







# THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

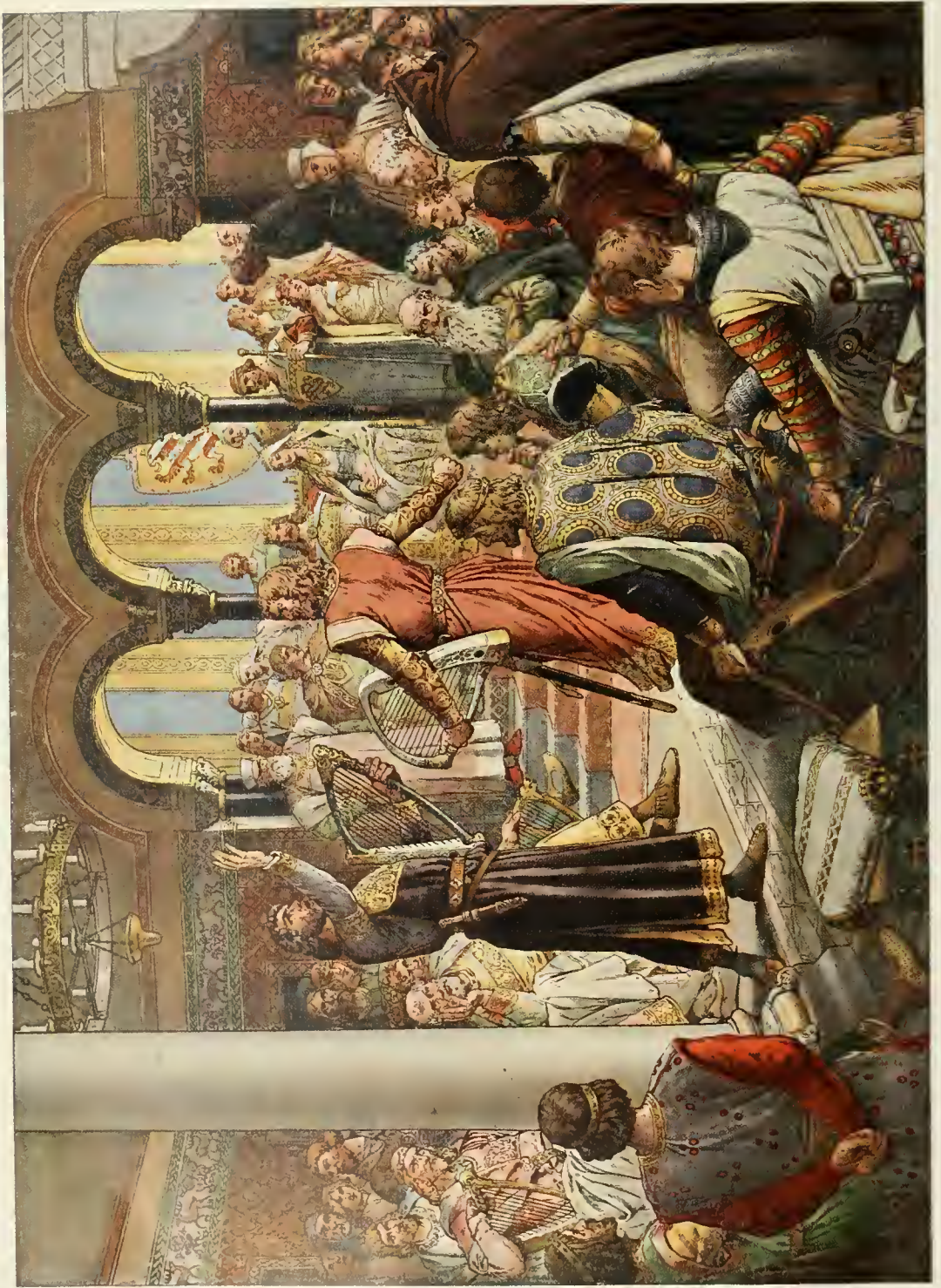
FOR READY REFERENCE  
READING AND RESEARCH

## VOLUME V

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

A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF HISTORY FOR ALL USES, EXTENDING TO  
ALL COUNTRIES AND SUBJECTS AND REPRESENTING  
THE BEST AND NEWEST LITERATURE

EDITED BY THE

J. M. LARNED

NEW EDITION FULLY REVISED BY

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CONTEST OF THE MINNESINGERS, OR SÄNGERKRIEG

Contest between the most celebrated German minstrels said to have been held at the  
Castle of Wartburg in 1207, immortalized in Wagner's "Tannhäuser."

*After painting by J. Gehrtz*

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OF HISTORY

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BASED ON THE WORK OF THE LATE

J. N. LARNED

*NOW COMPLETELY REVISED, ENLARGED AND BROUGHT UP TO DATE*

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WITH A LARGE NUMBER OF TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND CHARTS  
MANY OF THEM FULL-PAGE INSERTS, IN DUOTONE, AND FRONTISPICES IN COLOR; ALSO NUMEROUS  
DOUBLE AND SINGLE-PAGE HISTORICAL AND OTHER MAPS IN COLOR, FROM ORIGINAL  
STUDIES AND DRAWINGS BY ALAN C. REILEY AND OTHERS

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*IN 12 VOLUMES*

VOL. V.—FROE TO INVA



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THE  
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BY J. N. LARNED  
AND S. J. LARNED

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1. TERRITORY IN WHICH THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR WAS FOUGHT . . . . . See GERMANY: 1627-1629
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 [EDITOR'S NOTE: The present-day German Republic differs territorially from the former empire on three of its frontiers. The most striking difference is to be seen on the east, where the new Poland has acquired portions of Posen and Silesia and the corridor running down to the Baltic between East and West Prussia. On the southwest the new boundary with France shows the loss of Alsace-Lorraine while a separate color differentiates the Saar district from the rest of Germany. The northern part of Schleswig is here shown as part of Denmark as a result of plebiscite held after the World War.]
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[EDITOR'S NOTE: The two economic maps of England, Wales and the Lowlands of Scotland bring out the contrasts between the distribution of population and industries in those countries before the Industrial Revolution and in recent times. The power of coal and iron, in the north, to draw population to that hitherto thinly populated region is clearly brought out by the colors indicating density of population. The great urban growth of modern England is likewise to be noted in the clusters of industrial towns near the coal mines.]

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### VOLUME V

**FROEBEL, Friedrich Wilhelm August** (1782-1852), German philosopher and educational reformer; founder of the kindergarten. See **EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Rousseau; 19th century: Froebel.**

**FROG'S POINT, Battle at.** See **U. S. A.: 1776 (September-November).**

**FROISSART, Jean** (c. 1337-1410), French poet and historian. See **ANNALS: Medieval; FRENCH LITERATURE: 1337-1465; HISTORY: 19.**

**FROMENTIN, Eugene** (1820-1876), French painter and author. See **PAINTING: Europe (19th century).**

**FRONDE, FRONDEURS**, in French history, the names given respectively to a political party and its adherents who during the minority of Louis XIV opposed the policy of Mazarin. See **FRANCE: 1647-1648; 1649; 1650-1651; 1651-1653; BORDEAUX: 1652-1653.**

**FRONT ROYAL, Capture of.** See **U. S. A.: 1862 (May-June: Virginia).**

**FRONTENAC, Fort.** See **KINGSTON, Canada.**  
**FRONTENAC ET PALLUAU, Louis de Buade, Comte de** (1620-1668), governor of New France. As a young man, an officer in the French army, he saw military service in Italy, Flanders, and Germany; governor of New France, 1672-1682, 1689-1698; showed energy and tact especially in dealing with the Indians; foiled Sir William Phipps's fleet before Quebec, 1690; defeated the Iroquois, 1696.—See also **CANADA: 1634-1673; 1640-1700; 1673-1682; 1689-1690; 1696; OSWEGO: 1690-1696; QUEBEC, PROVINCE OF: 1672-1680.**

**FRONTIER POSTS.**—"When a group of families moved out into the wilderness they built themselves a station or stockade fort; a square palisade of upright logs, loopholed, with strong blockhouses as bastions at the corners. One side at least was generally formed by the backs of the cabins themselves, all standing in a row; and there was a great door or gate, that could be strongly barred in case of need. Often no iron whatever was employed in any of the buildings. The square inside contained the provision sheds and frequently a strong central blockhouse as well. These forts, of course, could not stand against cannon, and they were always in danger when attacked with fire; but save for this risk of burning they were very effectual defences against men without artillery, and were rarely taken, whether by whites or Indians, except by surprise. Few other buildings have played so important a part in our history as the rough stockade fort of the backwoods. The families only lived in the fort when there was war with the Indians, and even then not in the winter. At other times they all separated out to their own farms, universally called clearings, as they were always made by first cutting of the timber. . . . These clearings lay far apart from one another in the wilderness. Up to the doorsills of the log-huts

stretched the solemn and mysterious forest."—T. Roosevelt, *Winning of the West*, v. 1, pp. 110-112.—See also **U. S. A.: 1794-1795: Jay Treaty.**

**FROSCHWEILER, Battle of.** See **FRANCE: 1870 (July-August).**

**FROUDE, James Anthony** (1818-1894), English historian. See **HISTORY: 6; 30.**

**FRUCTIDOR, month.** See **CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era and calendar.**

**Coup d'Etat of the eighteenth of.** See **FRANCE: 1797 (September).**

**FRUELA I, king of Leon and the Asturias or Oviedo, 757-768.**

**Fruela II, king of Leon and the Asturias or Oviedo, 923-925.**

**FRUGONI, Carlo Innocenzio Maria** (1692-1768), Italian poet of the Arcadian school. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1690-1800.**

**FRUMENTARIAN LAW, First.** See **ROME: Republic: B. C. 133-121.**

**FRUMENTIUS, Saint** (c. 300-360), a Greek who was the founder of the Abyssinian church and who became Bishop Axum. See **ABYSSINIA: A. D. 4th century; ABYSSINIAN CHURCH.**

**FRYATT, Charles** (1872-1916), British captain of the merchant steamship *Brussels*. On March 20, 1915, he attempted to ram the German submarine U-33. On June 23, 1916, he was captured by German warships and being condemned as a "franc-tireur of the sea" was, on July 27, executed. The British held that he had a right to act as he did in defense of his ship, and that his execution was an atrocity. See **WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: d.**

**FRYE, WILLIAM P.,** American vessel. See **WILLIAM P. FRYE.**

**FU, name for administrative district, Japan.** See **JAPAN: Local government.**

**FUAD I** (1868- ), king of Egypt. Acceded to the throne October 9, 1917, as sultan; king, 1922. See **EGYPT: 1917; 1922 (March).**

**FUCHOW, capital of the province of Fukien, China, situated on the river Min.** See **CHINA: Map.**

1842.—Made one of the five open ports by the Treaty of Nanking. See **CHINA: 1830-1842.**

1919.—Fuchow incident. See **CHINA: 1919-1920.**

**FUEGIAN TRIBE.** See **INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area; PATAGONIANS.**

**FUEL CONTROL, United States.** See **FOOD REGULATION: 1917-1918: Food control in the United States; PRICE CONTROL: 1917-1919: United States; U. S. A.: 1917 (June): Food and Fuel Control Act.**

**FUENTES D'ONORO, Battle of** (1811). See **SPAIN: 1810-1812.**

**FUFIAN LAW.** See **ÆLIAN AND FUFIAN LAWS.**

**FUGGERS.**—"Hans Fugger was the founder of

the Fugger family. . . . He came to Augsburg in 1305 as a poor but energetic weaver's apprentice, acquired citizenship by marrying a burgher's daughter, and, after completing an excellent masterpiece, was admitted into the guild of weavers. . . . Hans Fugger died in 1409, leaving behind him a fortune of 3,000 florins, which he had made by his skill and diligence. This was a considerable sum in those days, for the gold mines of the New World had not yet been opened up, and the necessities of life sold for very low prices. The sons carried on their father's business, and with so much skill and success that they were always called the rich Fuggers. The importance and wealth of the family increased every day. By the year 1500 it was not easy to find a frequented route by sea or land where Fugger's wares were not to be seen. On one occasion the powerful Hanseatic league seized twenty of their ships, which were sailing with a cargo of Hungarian copper, down the Vistula to Cracow and Dantzic. Below ground the miner worked for Fugger, above it the artisan. In 1448 they lent 150,000 florins to the then Archdukes of Austria, the Emperor Frederick the Third (father of Maximilian) and his brother Albert. In 1500 a century had passed since the weaver Hans Fugger had died leaving his fortune of 3,000 florins, acquired by his laborious industry. His grand-children were now the richest merchants in Europe; without the aid of their money the mightiest princes of the continent could not complete any important enterprise, and their family was connected with the noblest houses by the ties of relationship. They were raised to the rank of noblemen and endowed with honourable privileges by the Emperor Maximilian the First."—A. W. Grube, *Heroes of history and legend*, ch. 13.

**FUGITIVE SLAVE LAWS, United States.** See U. S. A.: 1793: First fugitive slave law; 1850 (March); (April-September); 1864 (May-November); CONNECTICUT: 1818-1845.

**FUGUE, or Fuga**, polyphonic composition in music. See MUSIC: Medieval: 1350-1500.

**FUIDHIR**, class in ancient Ireland, under the protection of a chief. See IRELAND: 1269.

**FUJIWARA**, name of powerful family in Japan, who gave their name to one era of Japanese history. See JAPAN: 645-833; 833-1050; 1050-1150.

**FUJIYAMA**, highest mountain in Japan, about 12,450 feet. Its beauty is famous, and it is looked upon as sacred by the Japanese.

**FUKUOKA UNIVERSITY.** See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913.

**FUKUZAWA**, Ynkichi (1834-1901), Japanese author and journalist who endowed Keio University. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1871-1913.

ALSO IN: S. L. Gulick, *Evolution of the Japanese*.

**FULAS**, tribe of Hamitic-negro stock in Africa. See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Modern peoples.

**FULDA**, town in Hesse-Nassau, Germany, which contains a famous Benedictine Abbey. In 1803 it was ceded to Holland. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; LIBRARIES: Medieval: Monastic libraries.

**FULK III** (c. 970-1040), called Fulk Nerra, count of Anjou. See ANJOU: 987-1129.

**Fulk V** (1092-1143), king of Jerusalem. See CRUSADES: 1147-1149; JERUSALEM: 1099-1131.

**FULK OF NEUILLY**, preacher of fourth Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1201-1203.

**FULLER, Melville Weston** (1833-1910), American jurist. Chief justice United States Supreme Court, 1888-1910; member Arbitration Commission to adjust Anglo-Venezuelan boundary question, 1899; arbitrator at The Hague in case

between England and France, 1904-1905. See SUPREME COURT: 1888-1913; U. S. A.: 1895 (April-May).

**FULTON, Robert** (1765-1815), American engineer and inventor, known principally for the successful application of steam to navigation. He constructed his first steamboat in France in 1803. The *Clermont* was launched on the Hudson in 1807, and led to the permanent establishment of steamship navigation. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings; SUBMARINES: 1624-1815; U. S. A.: 1793; Whitney's cotton gin; WARSHIPS: 1782-1860; NEW YORK: 1909.

**FUNCHAL**, capital city of Madeira. In 1916 it was shelled by a submarine. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: b.

**FUNDAMENTAL AGREEMENT OF NEW HAVEN.** See CONNECTICUT: 1639.

**FUNDAMENTAL CONSTITUTIONS.** See NORTH CAROLINA: 1669-1693.

**FUNDAMENTAL ORDERS OF CONNECTICUT.** See CONNECTICUT: 1636-1639.

**FUNDING OF DEBTS, Origin of.** See DEBTS, PUBLIC: Great Britain.

**FUNG-YUN-SAN**, Chinese missionary in the Taiping rebellion. See CHINA: 1850-1864.

**FUNSTON, Frederick** (1865-1917), American general. In 1896 he joined the Cuban insurgents and became lieutenant-colonel; 1898, became colonel of the Twentieth Kansas Volunteers; became brigadier-general and in 1901 captured the rebel Aguinaldo in the Philippines; was commissioned in regular army; 1906, commanded in San Francisco after earthquake; 1914, took charge of Vera Cruz after the American seizure and was made major-general. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1906; U. S. A.: 1914 (April): Occupation of Vera Cruz.

**FUORUSCITI.**—In Italy, during the Guelph and Ghibelline contests of the 13th and 14th centuries (see ITALY: 1215 to 1313-1330), "almost every city had its body of 'fuorusciti';—literally, 'those who had gone out';—proscrits and exiles, in fact, who represented the minorities. . . . in the different communities;—Ghibelline fuorusciti from Guelph cities, and Guelph fuorusciti from Ghibelline cities."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence*, v. 1, p. 380.

**FUR TRADE**, one of the important factors leading to the exploration and settlement of the western United States and Canada. See ALASKA: 1741-1787; 1919; CANADA: 1616-1628; DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1806-1833; MISSOURI: 1700-1800; MONTANA: 1800-1852; OREGON: 1749-1859; 1808-1826; WISCONSIN: 1812-1825; WYOMING: 1807-1833; 1834-1862; MICHIGAN: 1616-1701; 1706-1840.

**FURKHAH, Battle at.** See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 15.

**FURNACE, Electric.** See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1815-1921.

**FURNES**, town in West Flanders, Belgium, which, in 1744, was captured by the French. See AUSTRIA: 1743-1744.

**FURNESS ABBEY**, founded in 1127 in Lancashire by a small body of monks belonging to the Benedictine order of Savigny. In 1148 the monks of Savigny, having been attracted by the Cistercian reform, became Cistercians. Generous gifts helped to make it one of the richest monastic establishments in England. There were a number of offshoots from this abbey, notably that of Rushen in the Isle of Man. However, Furness abbey was, under compulsion, surrendered to the king on April 7, 1537, as the result of the abbot's being charged with complicity in the Pilgrimage of Grace. Some three years later Parliament annexed the estates and revenues to the duchy of Lancaster from which

they descended to the Prestons and later to the dukes of Devonshire.

**FURNIVAL**, Sir John Talbot. See SHREWSBURY, JOHN TALBOT, 1ST EARL OF.

**FURST**, German conferred title for "prince." See GERMANY: 1125-1272.

**FURSTENBUND**, or League of princes, Germany. See GERMANY: 1785.

**FURY**: French. See NETHERLANDS: 1581-1584. Spanish. See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

**FUSILLADES**. See FRANCE: 1793-1794 (October-April).

**FUSTEL DE COULANGES**, Numa Denis (1830-1889), French historian. See HISTORY: 32.

**FUTTEH ALI SHAH**, shah of Persia, 1798-1834.

**FUTTEHPORE**, Battle of (1857). See INDIA: 1857-1858.

**FYLFOT-CROSS**, swastikalike device to fill

the lower part of a painted window. See TRISKELION.

**FYRD**.—"The one national army [in Saxon England, before the Norman Conquest] was the fyrd, a force which had already received in the Karolingian legislation the name of landwehr by which the German knows it still. The fyrd was in fact composed of the whole mass of free landowners who formed the folk: and to the last it could only be summoned by the voice of the folk-moot. In theory therefore such a host represented the whole available force of the country. But in actual warfare its attendance at the king's war-call was limited by practical difficulties. Arms were costly; and the greater part of the fyrd came equipped with bludgeons and hedgestakes, which could do little to meet the spear and battleaxe of the invader."—J. R. Green, *Conquest of England*, p. 133.

## G

**GA**. See GAU.

**GAAFER PASHA**, German leader of the Senussi revolt in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 1.

**GABA TEPE**, hill on the western shore of the Gallipoli peninsula. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 3; a, 4, v.

**GABELLE**. See TAILLE AND GABELLE.

**GABINIAN LAW**, proposed and carried through by the Roman tribune, Aulus Gabinus in 67 B.C. giving Pompey command of the war against the pirates. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 69-63.

**GABRIELI**, Andrea (c. 1510-1586), Italian organist and composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1527-1613; 1650-1739.

**GABRIELI**, Giovanni (1557-1613), Italian composer. See MUSIC: 1650-1739.

**GACHUPINES AND GUADALUPES**.—In the last days of Spanish rule in Mexico, the Spanish official party bore the name of Gachupines, while the native party, which prepared for revolution, were called Guadalupe.—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, p. 303.—The name of the Guadalupe was adopted by the Mexicans "in honour of 'Our Lady of Guadalupe,' the tutelary protectress of Mexico"; while that of the Gachupines "was a sobriquet gratuitously bestowed upon the Spanish fraction."—W. H. Chynoweth, *Fall of Maximilian*, p. 3.

**GADE**, Niels (1817-1890), Danish composer. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia.

**GADEBUSCH**, Battle of (1712). See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

**GADEIRA**, ancient Greek name for the modern city of Cadiz. See CADIZ: Location; PHOENICIANS: Origin.

**GADENI**, ancient Celtic tribe. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

**GADES**, ancient Roman name for the modern city of Cadiz. See CADIZ: Location.

**GADSDEN**, Christopher (1724-1805), American Revolutionary officer. Members of South Carolina legislature, c. 1760-1780; representative at Stamp Act Congress, 1765; member of Continental Congress, 1774; lieutenant-governor of South Carolina, 1780, at the surrender of Charleston to the British. See U. S. A.: 1765: News of the Stamp Act in the colonies; 1765: Stamp Act congress; 1774 (September); 1776 (February-April).

**GADSDEN PURCHASE**.—By a treaty negotiated by James Gadsden with Mexico in 1853, the United States acquired slightly over 45,000 square miles of land in what is now Arizona and New Mexico, paying \$10,000,000. The purchase also settled the southern boundaries of territories which had previously been received from Mexico.—See also ARIZONA: 1853; U. S. A.: Historical geography.

**GAEL**, Gaidhel, or Goidel. See CELTS.

**GAELIC LANGUAGE**. See PHILOLOGY: 11; 17.

**GAELIC LEAGUE**, an organization for the purpose of fostering and spreading the Gaelic language, especially in Ireland. See IRELAND: 1893-1905; 1905-1916.

**GAESERIC**. See GENSERIC.

**GAETA**, episcopal city and seaport on the southern coast of Italy. It was besieged and captured by the French, 1805-1806.

1848.—Refuge of Pope Pius IX. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

1860-1861.—Last stand of Francis II.—Francis II of Naples was besieged here by the forces of United Italy under Garibaldi from November, 1860, to February 13, 1861, when the king was forced to surrender.

**GAETANO**, Benedetto (Boniface VIII). See PAPACY: 1294-1348; FRANCE: 1285-1314.

**GAETULIANS**, wandering tribes of the Berber race, northern Africa. See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples; NUMIDIANS AND MAURI.

**GAFOL**, a payment in money, or kind, or work, rendered in the way of rent by a villein-tenant to his lord, among the Saxons and early English. The word signified tribute.—F. Seeböhm, *English village community*, ch. 2, 5.—See also TAILLE AND GABELLE.

**GAG RESOLUTION** (1836). See U. S. A.: 1836: Atherton Gag; CENSORSHIP: United States; ILLINOIS: 1831-1837.

**GAGE**, Lyman Judson (1836- ), American financier. President of First National Bank of Chicago, 1891; secretary of the treasury, 1897-1902; president of United States Trust Co., New York, 1902-1906. See U. S. A.: 1897 (March); 1900 (March-December); 1901-1905.

**GAGE**, Thomas (1721-1787), English soldier and colonial governor of Massachusetts, 1774-1775. In expeditions against Fort Duquesne, 1755, Ticonderoga, 1758; appointed governor of Montreal, 1760; commander-in-chief of the English forces in North America, 1763-1772, 1774; recalled to England, 1775. See BOSTON: 1768: Quartering,

etc.; 1774; U. S. A.: 1774-1775; 1775 (April-May); (June).

**GAGERN**, Heinrich Wilhelm August, Baron von (1799-1880), German statesman. President of Frankfurt parliament, 1848; leader of movement for the unity of Germany. See AUSTRIA: 1849-1859.

**GAI SABER**, El, form of poetry sung by the troubadours in the south of France during the twelfth century. See PROVENCE: 1179-1207.

**GAIHEL**. See CELTS.

**GAILLARD**, Château. See CHÂTEAU GAILLARD.

**GAILLARD CUT**.—"The 'Culebra Cut' (in the Panama canal) was renamed 'Gaillard Cut' by executive order of the president dated April 27, 1915. . . . At Gamboa the Chagres Valley turns sharply to the east and the line of the canal leaves it for the heavy cut thru the Continental Divide. Gaillard Cut, forming the passage-way between the opposite slopes of the divide, is 7.97 miles long, 300 feet wide at the bottom, and from 45 to 65 feet in depth. The great depth of the cut is responsible for the magnitude of the slides, which are breaks in the banks, due to the pressure of the material. The elementary phenomena of slides are encountered in almost any kind of cutting or trenching thru earth; the great depth of the Gaillard Cut has caused similar breaks even in ordinarily firm rock. The slides are responsible for 35,158,225 cubic yards of additional excavation to February 1, 1915. To that date the total excavation from the Cut has been 117,077 cubic yards. The Cut is an arm of Gatun Lake and its bottom is accordingly 40 feet above sea-level."—*Official handbook of the Panama canal*.—See also PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905; 1907-1914; 1914.

**GAINAS**, little tribe or state of old Lincolnshire, England, constituting a part of the great Anglian kingdom of the Mercians. See ENGLAND: 547-633.

**GAINES**, Edmund Pendleton (1777-1849), American brigadier-general. Figured in the defense of Fort Erie, August, 1814, and in the Seminole War of 1817. See U. S. A.: 1814 (July-September); FLORIDA: 1812-1819.

**GAINES**, Fort, Alabama, guarding the entrance to Mobile. A stronghold of the Confederates during the American Civil War. It was forced to surrender August 7, 1864. See U. S. A.: 1864 (August; Alabama).

**GAINES' MILL**, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-July; Virginia).

**GAINSBOROUGH**, Thomas (1727-1788), English painter. Settled at Ipswich, moving in 1759 to Bath, and to London in 1774; he painted portraits of all of the celebrities of his day; together with Sir Joshua Reynolds he ranks as the foremost of the English portrait-painters; also left some notable landscapes; was one of the original members of the Royal Academy.—See also PAINTING: English.

**GAIVS CAESAR**. See CALICULA.

**GAJ**, Ljudevit (1809-1872), Croatian poet. Proposed that the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes adopt the name of Illyrians, and urged the adoption of an official literary language of the nation. See JUGOSLAVIA: Early tendencies toward Jugo-Slav unity.

**GALABAT**, Battle of (1889). See EGYPT: 1885-1896.

**GALAPAGOS ISLANDS**, group of islands belonging to Ecuador and lying in the Pacific Ocean just under the equator. The nearest island lies about 580 miles off the Ecuadorian coast. The name is derived from the "galápago," the giant tortoise, which abounds in the islands. "The archipelago consists of 15 larger islands and about 40 smaller, with a total area variously estimated at

from 2,400 to 3,000 square miles. [See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.] Culpeper and Wenman Isles lie outside of this radius to the north. The most important in area are Albemarle, Indefatigable, Narborough, Chatham, James, and Charles. Other islands are Hood, Bindloe, Abingdon, Barrington, Tower, Duncan, Jarvis, Brattle, Culpeper, and Wenman. These names are the more common ones, but they are no longer official, as the Republic of Ecuador renamed the archipelago, in 1892, 'Colon,' in honor of Columbus, at the same time changing the nomenclature of each distinct island. . . . An ancient Incan legend would lead one to believe that the archipelago was known to the Kings of Quito, having been discovered by the Incan Tupac Yupanqui, who, according to their traditions, made a voyage of discovery on the Pacific during which he fell in with the two islands (Fire and Seaward). . . . That the group was known to the Quichuas, however, is probable. These people were great fishermen . . . so it is easily possible, especially when we consider the relation of the antarctic current to the isles, that some of their craft found the way to what we now call the Galápagos Islands. Leaving the question of Quichua discovery perhaps forever undetermined, we do know that Thomas De Berlanga, third bishop of Panama, was the first European to sight the Galápagos, on the 10th of March, 1535. . . . His discovery of the Galápagos Islands was quite accidental and came about during a voyage from Panama to Peru, whither he had been sent to report on the doings of Pizarro. The prelate left Panama on the 23d of February, 1535, laying a course for Inca land. All went well until the 1st of March, when the ship ran into calm weather, and was drawn at the mercy of the currents for eight days, at the end of which time the watch descried land. . . . After Bishop Berlanga left the islands their existence was again ignored, and they remained almost forgotten for a space of eleven years, when Diego de Rivadeneira, who, in carrying on war against the constituted authority at the time, was compelled to put to sea without chart or compass. He arrived at Albemarle. . . . Rivadeneira also left the group nameless, but after arriving safely at Acapulco and making his peace with the powers that were, his discovery was made known to the King of Spain, and he was recommended for the post of governor of the islands, a position he never filled, however. The archipelago now was well known to the Spanish mariners, [and was] . . . called the Enchanted Isles. Ortelius, however, in his map of America and the South Sea, published in 1570, indicated the group under the name Galápagos, which designation it has held ever since. Ambrose Cowley, a sea rover of the seventeenth century, gave the islands individual names, some of which hold to this day. The group became the rendezvous of the pirates who ravaged the west coast about the end of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. [See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764.] . . . The South Pacific whalers also made port in the islands and early reported them as most satisfactory fishing grounds, a distinction they still enjoy. Near the end of the eighteenth century, to be exact, in 1793, the Viceroy of Peru ordered a survey of the archipelago made, as it was part of his domains, and Alonso de Torres carried out his orders. During the period of revolution against Spanish authority in South America the islands were much used by the privateers that preyed on Spanish commerce, being visited by those two active Argentine corsairs, Buchar and Brown, who came to divide their booty and settle a difference that had arisen between

them. With the fall of Spanish power the isles were in a measure forgotten and these desolate shores were only touched by an occasional whaler or some circumnavigating sailor, the archipelago actually remaining no man's land until February 12, 1832, when the Ecuadorean Government formally took possession of the group. . . . This act of occupation was inspired by a North American, a Louisianian named Villamil, who left his native territory when it came under the jurisdiction of the United States. . . . General Villamil entered on a plan of colonization with great enthusiasm. He obtained a concession from the Ecuadorean Government in recognition for his having brought the islands to the notice of the officials of this Republic. He induced some of the younger men of the best families of Guayaquil to accompany him to Charles Island, where he established the Society for the Colonization of the Archipelago of the Galápagos. . . . Unfortunately the originator of the scheme soon lost interest in the affairs of the colony, and this, combined with the fact that the Ecuadorean Government found the islands a suitable place for use as a dumping ground for undesirable citizens, and a constantly diminishing trade between the group and the main coast, due to various circumstances, caused the original colonizers to become discouraged.—*Galápagos islands* (*Bulletin of the Pan-American Union, Jan.-June, 1911, pp. 228-230*).—"They [Galápagos Islands] lie almost in the direct path of vessels on the route across the Pacific from Australia and New Zealand to the Panama Canal. . . . The prospective strategic value, due to the . . . Panama Canal, of the islands has motivated various negotiations by foreign Powers for their acquisition. In 1909 some sensation was caused in Ecuador by the publication of ex-president García's private papers, showing that there had been proposals for sale of the Archipelago, first to France and then (that in view of the Monroe Doctrine having been found inadvisable) to the United States. In 1911 there were dealings between President Estrada and the United States for a proposed lease of the islands for a term of ninety-nine years, under a payment of £3,000,000 to Ecuador; the American offer was refused, as its acceptance would have affronted Ecuadorian patriotism."—C. R. Enoch, *Ecuador, pp. 209, 306*.

**GALATA**, suburb of Constantinople, largely settled by Venetian and Genoese traders during the thirteenth century. See GENOA: 1261-1299; CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453; 1348-1355; also Map of the Dardanelles, etc.; TURKEY: 1696 (August).

**GALATIA, GALATÆ, GALATIANS**.—In 280 B.C. a body of Gauls, or Celts, invaded Greece, under Brennus, and in the following year three tribes of them crossed into Asia Minor. There, as in Greece, they committed terrible ravages, and were a desolating scourge to the land, sometimes employed as mercenaries by one and another of the princes who fought over the fragments of Alexander's empire, and sometimes roaming for plunder on their own account. Antiochus, son of Seleucus, of Syria, is said to have won a great victory over them; but it was not until 239 B.C. that they were seriously checked by Attalus, king of Pergamus, who defeated them in a great battle and forced them to settle in the part of ancient Phrygia which afterwards took its name from them, being called Galatia, or Gallo-Græcia, or Eastern Gaul. When the Romans subjugated Asia Minor they found the Galatæ among their most formidable enemies. The latter were permitted for a time to retain a certain degree of independence, under tetrarchs, and afterwards under kings of their own. But finally Galatia became a Roman prov-

ince. "When St. Paul preached among them, they seemed fused into the Hellenistic world, speaking Greek like the rest of Asia; yet the Celtic language long lingered among them and St. Jerome says he found the country people still using it in his day (fourth cent. A.D.)."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire, ch. 8*.—See also CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 35-60; GAUL: People.

**GALATZ**, important commercial center and port on the left bank of the Danube river, Rumania. Extensive floods occurred there in June, 1897, rendering 20,000 people homeless. The scene of various conflicts with the Russians. See WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: b.

**GALBA**, Servius Sulpicius, Roman general and orator. Praetor in Spain, 151 B.C.; consul, 144 B.C.—See LUSITANIA.

**GALBA**, Servius Sulpicius (5 B.C.-69 A.D.), Roman emperor, 68-69 A.D. See ROME: Empire: A.D. 69.

**GALEAZA, GALEOTA, GALERA**, types of sailing vessels. See CARAVELS.

**GALEN**, Claudius (c. 130-203), Greek medical writer, anatomist and physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 2nd century; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 3rd-A.D. 3rd centuries.

**GALERIUS** (Galerius Valerius Maximianus) (d. 311), Roman emperor, 305-311. Created Cæsar by Diocletian, 293. See ROME: Empire: 284-305; 303-305.

**GALIBIS**, race related to the Caribs of French Guiana. See CARIBS.

**GALICIA**, ancient kingdom, captaincy-general and province of northwestern Spain, comprising the modern provinces of Coruña, Lugo, Orense and Pontevedra.

5th-6th centuries.—Settlement of Sueves and Vandals. See SPAIN: 409-474.

734-750.—Occupation by the Moors.—Moors driven out by Alphonso I of Asturias.—Founding of the kingdom. See SPAIN: 713-950.

**GALICIA** (German Galizien, Polish Halicz): Area.—Location.—Resources.—At the outbreak of the World War, Galicia was the largest of the Austrian crownlands with an area of over 30,000 square miles and a population of more than 8,000,000 according to the 1910 census. Its present area cannot be strictly defined until its boundaries are determined by the peace treaty with Russia and Lithuania, and by the plebiscite in Upper Silesia. The Carpathian Mountains, in the form of an arc, form the boundary between Galicia and Hungary. The country has extensive forests, and some of the richest petroleum fields in Europe.

**Agriculture**.—**Emigration**.—**Open-door policy**.—**Peasant farming**.—Agriculture is the principal industry. Rural population before the World War "numbered 71 to the square kilometer, or about 200 to the square mile. It is only within the last two decades that Ruthenians started to emigrate to other countries, or even to go to work for a season beyond their home lines, whereas immigration into Eastern Galicia had kept up at a steady pace all along. A failure in crops in Mazovia in the late sixties caused a large number of Poles from that district to seek homes in Podolia, the Panhandle of Eastern Galicia. They came in large groups. As they furnished steady and cheap labor, the landlords set aside parcels of land adjacent to the villages and built dwellings for their accommodation. These additions were commonly known as Mazowówka (Mazovia towns). The Mazur and his wife became the servants of the landlord, and so did their children as they grew up, one generation succeeding the other. When Germany decreed that all foreigners

should leave her country, 3,600 Poles were affected. Austria's open-door policy brought nearly all of them to Galicia, and added to the population of the Mazowówka. Peasant farming is still very primitive, and the smaller the farm the more old fashioned are the implements used. The location of the land contributes to a great deal of lost motion. The peasants live in villages, and the near-by land is divided into several subdivisions, usually three to five. A farmer owning five acres has one acre each in every division, miles apart. To do a day's work on his land he has to rise hours before sunrise to reach his destination in time. The grain is transported to the village in the shock. The sickle and the scythe are still the harvesting tools, and the flail is used for thrashing. There is not much meadow land, but the land is only cultivated two years in succession and then left fallow for a year. The fields are not fenced, and the fallow year is for the whole division, the land being used for pasture collectively by the owners. This is the reason for the parcel plan. If a man's land were all in one area he would have to let it all lie fallow in certain years and would have nothing to cultivate that year."—B. Falk, *Ruthenians versus Poles in Galicia* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1910).

**Nationalities.—Poles and Ruthenians.—Antagonism between the two races.—Formation of the nobility.—Language.**—"The Ruthenians of Eastern Galicia have commonly been classed as Poles, but there is as great a difference between the two nationalities as if they were living on different hemispheres. The Ruthenians have always been pacific, meek, and humble, whereas the Poles have been aggressive and domineering. In the 400 years that the Ruthenians were under the rule of the Poles the latter made themselves masters of the land, and, at the partition of Poland by Germany, Russia, and Austria, the Poles in Eastern Galicia formed the nobility and the more privileged peasant class, while the Ruthenians were serfs and laborers. Austria's emancipation of the serfs in 1848 gave the Ruthenians more freedom and put them in possession of the land which they had held nominally before the abolition of serfdom, but it did not narrow the gulf between the two classes. Church, language, and caste remained the true line of cleavage. The Poles are Roman Catholics and the Ruthenians are Greek Catholics; the Poles speak Polish and the Ruthenians speak Ruthenian, the same language as that of the Ukraine. From the beginning the Poles were the masters, the Ruthenians the peasants. The language of the province was Polish, and the Poles were also the more literate, so that they filled all the official and clerical positions."—*Ibid.*, p. 326.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

900-1382.—Bela III.—Changing conditions.—Galicia, from the tenth to the fourteenth centuries, was fought over by the Poles, Russians, and Hungarians. The original Germanic population was replaced by the Slavic Poles and Ruthenians. The principalities of Halicz (Galicia) and Vladimir (Lodomeria), in the twelfth century, rose to prominence from a host of petty states. Disputes, between Halicz and Lodomeria, led to the interference of the king of Hungary, Bela III, who, in 1190, assumed the title of king and appointed his son Andreas lieutenant of the kingdom. In 1198, Roman, prince of Lodomeria, succeeded in annexing Galicia to his kingdom; the two duchies were separated in 1215, but later were united by Daniel of Lodomeria, who accepted the crown of Galicia from the hands of the papal legate about 1235. In

1340 the house of Roman died out; and in 1382 Galicia and Lodomeria became a part of the kingdom of Poland.

1382-1861.—First and second partitions of Poland.—Rearrangement by Napoleon.—Galicia again awarded to Austria, 1814.—Cession of Cracow.—Constitution granted to Galicia.—From 1382 to 1772, Galicia and Lodomeria formed a part of Poland. In the first partition of Poland, 1772, the country passed to Austria and in the second partition, 1795, the districts of Little Poland, Radom and Lublin, were added to Austria's share under the name of West or New Galicia. These districts, with Cracow, were taken from Austria and given to the new grand duchy of Warsaw by Napoleon after the defeat of Austria at Wagram in 1809. [See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September).] At the Congress of Vienna, 1814-1815, Austria was again awarded the kingdom of Galicia, minus certain portions of Little Poland, and in 1846 the crownland was rounded out by the cession of the suppressed republic of Cracow. [See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.] The period since 1848 has been marked by political struggles between the Polish and Ruthenian nationalities, the former retaining the ascendancy. In 1861, Galicia was granted a constitution which allowed a provincial diet as well as representation in the Austrian Reichsrat.

1772-1914.—Austria's policy of "divide and rule."—Setting of one Slav race against the other.—Efforts to manufacture a new nationality and language for its Galician subjects.—"It has often been asserted that the government of Vienna has ruled its Galician subjects more kindly than the remainder of Poland was treated after the Partition by its German and Russian masters; and this is probably true. It was a matter of much importance to Austria to have on its side a people who could be turned into good soldiers and be a make-weight against the newly incorporated Poles, so the policy was adopted of setting one Slav people against another—the usual Hapsburg policy of 'divide and rule.' The Little Russian peasants of Galicia were converted into a new nationality and a new name was invented for them. They were called 'Ruthenes' so as to obliterate from memory their Russian origin. But they and their language and their literature are Russian. In religion they stand between Catholic Poland and 'Orthodox' Russia. They belong to the Uniate Greek Church, acknowledging the authority of the Pope while adhering to the ritual, discipline and doctrine of the Orthodox Russian Church. The Austrian Government—the great supporter of Catholicism—has looked with disfavour on the propagandist efforts of Catholic Poles to win over the Ruthenes. Such a junction of religions would tend to strengthen the Polish element in Galicia—a consummation devoutly to be avoided. In their efforts to manufacture a new nationality for their Little Russian subjects the Austrian Government also tried to give them a language of their own, with Latin characters to take the place of Cyrillic, a new phonetic spelling, new words collected from all quarters and new grammatical forms. A strong effort was also made to set up opposition and ill-feeling between this manufactured nationality and their Russian relatives over the border. They were pampered with benefits, they were well supplied with schools, churches and museums. They were given a large share in the magistracy and bureaucracy and their religion was favoured even at the expense of the Roman Catholic church. For the last half century Austria has done everything in its power to create and set up nationalities of Poles and Ruthenes as a bulwark against Russia.

There are 4 millions of these Ruthenes in [Galicia]. . . . They are a passive and melancholy people, often deceitful and cunning—the characteristics of a race long tyrannized over and ground down as these were by the Polish aristocracy who lived amongst them. They are, however, rapidly improving. The competition of the Austrian and Russian Empires for their favour—for Russia has not been idle—is having its effect and the people are rapidly rising in the social scale. Eastern Galicia is mainly occupied by Ruthenes, but as we journey west, Poles predominate. Of this race are the rich landowners and aristocrats of the northern Carpathian Plain that extends through Galicia across the Russian border into Podolia where it amalgamates with the great Steppe country that stretches away to the Urals and the Caucasus.”—W. F. Bailey, *Slavs of the war zone*, pp. 5-7.—See also AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.

1850.—Treatment of Ukrainians by Poles. See UKRAINE: 1795-1860.

1861-1879.—Condition of peasantry.—Compulsory education law.—Formation of Ruthenian state defeated.—Revival of nationalism.—“The abolition of serfdom in Russia in 1861 gave the Ukrainians larger land grants, and their economic condition was better than that of the Galicians. They also had a larger intellectual class, which tended to create closer ties between the people of the same nationality. . . . Prior to 1869 the Austrian school system was in the hands of the clergy. The priests conducted schools, but the peasants were mostly illiterate. The compulsory education law was passed that year requiring all established communities to build and maintain schoolhouses for elementary education. The Constitution of 1867 also gave them direct representation in the Reichsrat and Provincial Diet and in the selection of local officers. . . . Lack of self-confidence contributed much toward the peasants’ peonage. In 1874, however, the Ruthenian intellectuals, led by their Bishop, Jachymowicz, who represented them in the National Council, petitioned the Emperor to create the territory east of Lemberg in Galicia and the adjoining territory in Bukowina—inhabited by Ruthenians—into a Ruthenian State. Smalko, the Polish member, opposed them vigorously and used, it is charged, unfair means to defeat the measure. Count Goluchowski, an Eastern Galicia magnate, then Governor of Galicia, disapproved of the measure on the ground that the Ruthenians, formed into a separate province, would join their neighbors on the east, the Ukrainians, who speak the same language and have the same customs, and, with slight variations, have suffered the same injustices. The bill was defeated, but it had given the Ruthenians food for thought. . . . Simultaneously with the Austro-German alliance [1870] an impetus to revive Ruthenian nationalism became noticeable. At the same time the thirst for knowledge among the Ruthenians became more pronounced. Instead of spending Sunday after church in the tavern the peasants congregated in the reading room to hear the latest news read by those who were able to read. These libraries gradually increased in volume, and history, novels, and even poetry were read. It was surprising to hear an old peasant who could neither read nor write recite a poem he had learned by heart, and discuss history or the political questions of the day. Ruthenian was a prescribed language in the elementary schools where Ruthenians predominated, but secondary education was not provided for. Agitation for Ruthenian gymnasiums and an academy, which have since been built, began at that time.”—B. Falk, *Ruthenians*

*versus Poles in Galicia* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1919).

1861-1914.—Austria’s policy towards Poles in Galicia.—Pan-Slavism of the Ruthenians.—Political advance.—“While her neighbors were carrying out a policy which meant to Russianize and Prussianize their Polish subjects, Austria used her Poles to her own advantage and made them serve as the very pillars of her monarchy. After Austria was defeated by Prussia in 1866, and after the formation of the German Empire in 1871 had excluded her as a German power, she started an attempt to make all her Slavs props of her empire. But with the exception of the Poles the Slavs were more or less under the influence of the Pan-Slavic idea, with Russia as their leader. They were also agitating for the reorganization of the empire into autonomous States on national lines. The Austrian Government feared and opposed those movements, and the Poles, fearing Pan-Slavism under Russian influence, showed a readiness to support the Government in return for concessions to them. They asked for large rewards for their support—and received them. The new Constitution of 1867, establishing the so-called Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary, gave Galicia more liberal concessions than any of the other provinces. In course of a few years the Poles had complete administrative autonomy, and since then they have had the administration of Galicia in their own hands and have been able to govern it in their own interests. But this served only to advantage the nobility and near nobility. [See also POLAND: 1867-1910.] Franz Ferdinand had his own reasons for trying to develop Ukrainian autonomy. He had married a Bohemian Countess morganatically, and their children were not eligible to Austrian succession. The Countess, later Duchess of Hohenberg, a brilliant and ambitious woman, wanted her son to succeed to a throne, either through the separation of Hungary from Austria or the Ukraine from Russia. The German Emperor encouraged the scheme, because he had designs on the throne of St. Stephan for one of his younger sons. During a visit of the German Emperor and his son to the Austrian Court, the Austrian Emperor was painfully surprised to learn that the young German Prince spoke Hungarian fluently, a fact which could have but one meaning. Notwithstanding their former backwardness the Ruthenians in Galicia have made great political strides in the last thirty years, and by 1891 had a considerable representation in the Legislatures. In 1895 only Ruthenians were elected to the Reichsrat, where they predominated. There were several Ukrainian parties in Galicia before the great war, but the Ruthenian Party and the Russian National Party were predominant. Pursuant with the Austrian and German policy of playing both ends against the middle, when war was declared it was made known that if Austria and Germany won the war against Russia, Ukraina would be made an autonomous State, and Austrian Ruthenia might become part of it. Thus, on Aug. 3, 1914, all the Ukrainian parties in Galicia hailed the war against Russia as a war of freedom for the Ukrainians.”—B. Falk, *Ruthenians versus Poles in Galicia* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1919).

1902-1908.—Strikes of Ukrainians.—Assassination of Potocki. See UKRAINE: 1840-1914.

1913.—Strife of nationalities.—Aim of the Russian Chauvinists.—Agitation of Count Bobrinsky.—Ruthenian campaign of Polish obstruction.—“In Galicia the strife of nationalities was more complicated than in Bohemia, as it was mixed up with a politico-religious agitation, started

by a reactionary member of the Duma, Count Bobrinsky, and some of the bishops of the Russian Church. So long as Poland was independent the Ruthenians, who inhabited extensive districts under her rule, regarded themselves as Poles and did not claim to be a separate nationality, but after the partition both Russia and Austria endeavoured to sow dissensions between them and the Poles, and the Ruthenians now claim an autonomy of their own, so that Eastern Galicia, where they are much more numerous than the Poles, should be separated from the western part of the province and have a separate local government and diet. Their aspirations even go farther, to the extent of detaching the province of the Ukraine, where also they form the great majority of the population, from Russia and joining it to Eastern Galicia; and the formation of a separate province in Eastern Galicia where they would be predominant, was regarded as the first step towards a consummation which could only take place if Austria-Hungary were successful in a war against Russia. The Russian Chauvinists, on the other hand, with Count Bobrinsky at their head, aim at an annexation of Eastern Galicia to Russia, and accordingly strive by sending Russian missionaries to Galicia to produce a movement among the Ruthenians for leaving the Uniate Church, whose head is the Pope, and joining the Russian Church under the Holy Synod at St. Petersburg—a movement which the Austrian Government naturally does its utmost to check. Hence the stories of religious persecution, in Eastern Galicia, which have as little foundation as those of political persecution, the Ruthenians having more schools in Eastern Galicia than the Poles, and their own professors giving instruction in the Ruthenian language in the University of Lemberg. The agitation of Count Bobrinsky and his agents among the Ruthenians in Eastern Galicia and Hungary became so active that the Hungarian Government arrested eighty-four of them, who were brought to trial on December 29 [1913] on a charge of high treason. It appeared from the evidence that the accused had promised money to the peasants 'for the building of Russian churches,' and had assured them that 'the time was not far distant when Russia would rule,' and that 'conversions were necessary to produce this result.' Young men had been sent to Russia to be trained as priests 'that they might strengthen the Russian faith on their return.' . . . Meanwhile the Ruthenians of Galicia, being unable to come to an agreement with the Poles as to their being granted a larger representation in the Diet, started a campaign of obstruction in the Reichsrath, which they filled with the din of whistles, motor horns, penny trumpets, electric bells and the slamming of the lids of their desks. The campaign lasted for three weeks, and only ceased at the end of the year when the Ruthenians declared that 'in consideration of the threatened danger to Austrian Parliamentarism,' they would refrain from further obstruction. The Minister for Galicia, Dr. Dlugosz, having stated in a speech to his constituents that the leader of the Polish People's Party had received large sums of money from the Government for election purposes, was reprimanded by the Prime Minister on December 19, and consequently resigned. He was given a 'provisional' successor in Dr. Morawski, a Privy Councillor in the Ministry."—*Annual Register*, 1913, pp. 328-329.

1914-1920.—World War and the devastation wrought in Galician district.—Strife between Poles and Ruthenians after the war.—In the great military conflict of the World War, Galicia suffered more than any other large area of the

Hapsburg dominions. The first waves of the Russian invasion in 1914 engulfed the province except for the westernmost district around Cracow; and it was not till mid-summer of the next year that Mackensen's drive cleared the greater part of the invaded region. The severe fighting of 1916 (Brusilov's offensive) further devastated the Ruthenian districts of southeastern Galicia. During 1917 comparative quiet reigned throughout the territory, but the war between Poland, Ukraine, and Bolshevik Russia in 1919-1920 disturbed large areas of the country.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 1; d, 5; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; f; f, 8; g; i, 5; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 3; 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: b; k; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914-1915; POLAND: 1914-1917; RUSSIA: 1914-1915; UKRAINE: 1914-1921.

"The Ruthenians and the Poles in Eastern Galicia present a difficult problem in the crazy quilt of Middle Europe. The Ruthenians compose 62 per cent. of the population in Eastern Galicia, the former palatinate of Halicz adjoining the recently formed Government of the Ukraine. During the turmoil that followed the Austrian collapse they declared themselves a separate State, joined the Ukrainians, and called in the Government military forces against Polish resistance. The Poles, who for centuries dominated Galicia and form the majority of the population in the western part of the province, formed the Polish Republic, joined the Polish Nation on the north of them, and undertook to prevent the Ruthenians' secession by force of arms. Thus a small region of 20,000 square miles has become a battleground, with neighbor arrayed against neighbor, each seeking independence by acts of violence, without a restraining hand to stop the mutual destruction."—B. Falk, *Ruthenians versus Poles in Galicia* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1919).—See also AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918; 1918; POLAND: 1919 (September).

1914-1921.—Russian activities.—Struggle between Poland and Ukraine for possession of eastern Galicia. See UKRAINE: 1914-1921.

GALILEE.—The Hebrew name Galil, applied originally to a little section of country, became in the Roman age, as Galilæa, the name of the whole region in Palestine north of Samaria and west of the River Jordan and the Sea of Galilee. Ewald interprets the name as meaning the "march" or frontier land; but in Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible" it is said to signify a "circle" or "circuit." It had many heathen inhabitants and was called Galilee of the Gentiles.—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, bk. 5, sect. 1.—See also JEWS: Israel under the Judges; JERUSALEM: 1100; 1244; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine in time of Christ.

GALILEE, "a porch or chapel at the entrance of a church. The term also appears sometimes to be applied to the nave, or at least to the western portion of it, and in some churches there are indications of the west end of the nave having been parted off from the rest, either by a step in the floor, a division in the architecture, or some other line of demarkation. . . . The name is thus accounted for by Precentor Millers, in his 'Description of the Cathedral Church of Ely' (1834): 'As Galilee, bordering on the Gentiles, was the most remote part of the Holy Land from the holy city of Jerusalem, so was this part of the building, most distant from the sanctuary, occupied by those unhappy persons, who, during their exclusion from the mysteries, were reputed scarcely, if at all, better than heathens.' . . . The great narthexes or open porches in France, such as those at Autun, Beaune, Notre Dame at Dijon, Paray le Monial,



Tournus, and Vezelay, correspond in some measure with our Galilee. One of the finest was at the Abbey Church of Cluny, destroyed early in the last century. In Italy one of the most wonderful of these narthexes is that of the cathedral at Casale Monferrato."—J. S. Bumpus, *Dictionary of ecclesiastical terms*, pp. 142-143.

**GALILEO GALILEI** (1564-1642), Italian astronomer and physicist. The following were his most important contributions to science: (1) the discovery that the motion of the pendulum may be used for the exact measurement of time; (2) the law of falling bodies; (3) the invention of the telescope and microscope; (4) the discovery of four satellites of Jupiter and spots on the sun. He advocated the Copernican theory of astronomy. For this his works were put on the Index, and he was forced to make a public recantation in the following words: "I, Galileo, being in my seventieth year, being a prisoner and on my knees, and before your Eminences, having before my eyes the Holy Gospel, which I touch with my hands, abjure, curse, and detest the error and the heresy of the movement of the earth."—G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, p. 313.—Tradition says that, immediately after uttering this recantation, he murmured the now historic phrase, "Eppure si muove" ("and yet it moves"). Some authorities discredit the story, though it is generally accepted in Italy. He was also sentenced to an indefinite term of imprisonment, which was, however, commuted; and he was allowed to live at Siena and later at Florence, where he died.—See also ASTRONOMY: 130-1609; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period; INVENTIONS: 16th-17th centuries: Time measurement; Instruments; ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1600-1700; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and Renaissance: 16th century.

**GALITZIN**, Dmitry M. See **GOLITZIN**, **DMITRY MIKHAILOVICH**.

**GALIZIEN**, German name for Galicia. See **GALICIA**.

**GALLAS**, tribe of eastern Africa. See **ABYSSINIA**: 15th-19th centuries; **HAMITES**.

**GALLAS**, Matthias, Count of Campo, Duke of Lucera (1584-1647), Austrian general in the Thirty Years' War. He won the famous battle of Nördlingen on August 23, 1634. See **GERMANY**: 1634-1639; 1640-1645.

**GALLATIN**, Albert (1761-1849), American financier and statesman. Served in the Pennsylvania legislature, 1790-1792; elected to the United States Senate, 1793; unseated the following year because he lacked the necessary qualifications as to citizenship; became secretary of the treasury under Jefferson, 1801-1813; played an important part in the negotiations of the Treaty of Ghent; served as minister to France, 1816-1823; sent as minister to England, 1826; nominated for the vice presidency by the Crawford Republicans in May, 1824, withdrew in October; interested in the founding of New York University, and also founded the American Ethnological Society, 1842.—See also U. S. A.: 1800-1801; 1804-1809; 1806-1812; 1809; 1814 (December): Treaty of peace concluded at Ghent.

**GALLAUDET**, Edward Miner (1837-1917), American educator, interested in schools for deaf. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, etc.: Deaf mutes.

**GALLAUDET COLLEGE**, Washington. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, etc.: Deaf mutes.

**GALLDACHT**, name applied to the English Pale in the Irish annals. See **PALE**, **ENGLISH**.

**GALLEON**, **GALERA**, **GALEAZA**, **GALEASSES**, vessels. See **CARAVELS**; **ENGLAND**: 1588: Spanish Armada.

**GALLIA**, **GALLI**. See **GAUL**.

**GALLIA BRACCATA**, **COMATA** and **TOGATA**.—"The antient historians make some allusion to another division of Gaul, perhaps introduced by the soldiers, for it was founded solely upon the costume of the inhabitants. Gallia Togata, near the Rhone, comprehended the Gauls who had adopted the toga and the Roman manners. In Gallia Comata, to the north of the Loire, the inhabitants wore long plaited hair, which we find to this day among the Bas Britons. Gallia Bracata, to the south of the Loire, wore, for the national costume, trousers reaching from the hips to the ancles, called 'braccæ.'"—J. C. L. S. de Sismondi, *The French under the Merovingians* (tr. by Bellingham), *ch. 2, note*.

**GALLIA CISALPINA**, territory lying between the Alps, Apennines, and the Adriatic which was overrun by the Gauls. See **ITALY**: Ancient; **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 300-347; also Map of ancient Italy.

**GALLIC WAR** (58-51 B. C.). See **GAUL**: B. C. 58-51.

**GALLICAN CHURCH**, national church of France which maintains that the church and king of France has ecclesiastical rights of its own, exclusive and independent of the jurisdiction of the pope.

1268.—Pragmatic sanction of Saint Louis. See **FRANCE**: 1268.

1438.—Pragmatic Sanction of Charles VII, affirming some of the decrees of the reforming Council of Basel. See **FRANCE**: 1438.

1515-1518.—Abridgment of the Pragmatic Sanction.—Concordat of Bologna. See **FRANCE**: 1515-1518.

1653-1713.—Conflict of Jesuits and Jansenists.—Persecution of the latter.—Bull Unigenitus and its tyrannical enforcement. See **PORT ROYAL** and **THE JANSENISTS**.

1682-1693.—Struggle with papacy. See **PAPACY**: 1682-1693.

1791-1792.—Civil constitution of the clergy.—Oath prescribed by the National Assembly. See **FRANCE**: 1789-1791; 1790-1791; 1791-1792.

1793.—Suppression of Christian worship in Paris and other parts of France.—Worship of Reason. See **FRANCE**: 1793 (November).

1802.—Concordat of Napoleon.—Ultramontane influence. See **FRANCE**: 1801-1804.

**GALLIENI**, Joseph Simon (1849-1916), French general and colonial administrator. Served in the Franco-German War, 1870; took part in the explorations and military expeditions in the Upper Niger, 1877-1881; stationed in Martinique, 1883-1886; commanded the second military division in Tong King, 1893-1895; made governor-general of Madagascar, 1897-1905; appointed military governor of Paris, 1914; became minister of war, 1915.—See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: p.

**GALLIENUS**, Publius Licinius Egnatius (c. 218-268 A. D.), Roman emperor, 253-268; reigned jointly with his father, 253-260. See **ROME**: Empire: 192-284; **MILAN**: 268.

**GALLIPOLI**, narrow peninsula (and city) north of the Dardanelles (see **CONSTANTINOPLE**: Map of the Dardanelles, etc.). It was the scene of the Allies' most disastrous failure of the World War. The campaign at Gallipoli, to subdue the Turks there and to force the straits, was begun early in 1915 and was abandoned in January, 1916. See **VENICE**: 1508-1509; **WORLD WAR**: 1915: VI. Turkey: a; a, 3; a, 4, xxxiv; a, 5.

**GALLO-BELGIC**, school of music. See **MUSIC**: Medieval: 1350-1500.

**GALLOGLASSES**, heavy-armed foot-soldiers of the Irish in their battles with the English during the 14th century.—See also **RAPPAREES**.

**GALLO-GRAECIA**. See **GALATIA**.

**GALLOWAY**, Joseph (1731-1803), American Loyalist politician and lawyer, delegate to the First Continental Congress. See **U.S.A.**: 1774 (September).

**GALLUS**, Irish missionary. See **CHRISTIANITY**: 5th-9th centuries.

**GALLWITZ**, Max C. W. von (1852- ), commander of one of the German armies which in 1914-1915 of the World War defeated the Russians in a series of operations on the eastern front. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6; V. Balkans: a; b, 4; III. Eastern front: g, 6; g, 8; i, 3; 1917; II. Western front: f; f, 1.

**GALOPS CANAL**. See **CANALS**: American: Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system.

**GALSWORTHY**, John (1867- ), English novelist and playwright. See **DRAMA**: 1888-1921; **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1880-1920.

**GALTON**, Sir Francis (1822-1911), English scientist, one of the pioneers of the science of statistics and founder of the School of Eugenics. See **STATISTICS**: Early records and census-taking; **EUGENICS**: Meaning and purpose; Early history.

**GALVANI**, Luigi (1737-1798), Italian physiologist and discoverer of current electricity. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: 1784-1800.

**GALVANOMETER**, instrument for the measurement of electric currents. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Measuring instruments: 1833-1921.

**GALVESTON**, city of Texas on the gulf of Mexico; population in 1920, 44,255. The harbor was probably named by Spanish explorers who entered it in 1782. It later served as a base for buccaners and pirates until they were driven out in 1820. The first settlement from the United States was made in 1837, and it was incorporated as a town in 1839. During the Civil War it was captured successively by Federal and Confederate troops.

1900.—City overwhelmed by wind and waves.—"The southern coast of the United States was visited by a tropical hurricane on September 6-9, the fury of which reached its climax at and near Galveston, Texas, 1:45 A.M., on Sunday, the 9th. Galveston is built upon the east end of a beautiful but low-lying island some thirty miles long and six or seven miles wide at the point of greatest extent, though only a mile or two wide where the city is built. The pressure of the wind upon the waters of the Gulf was so powerful and so continuous that it lifted the waves on the north coast many feet above the ordinary high-tide level, and for a short time the entire city was submerged. . . . The combined attack of hurricane and tidal-wave produced indescribable horrors—the destruction of property sinking into insignificance when compared with the appalling loss of life. The new census taken in June accredited Galveston with a population of 37,789. The calamity of a few hours seems to have reduced that number by 20 per cent. The loss of life in villages and at isolated points along the coast-line will probably bring the sum total of deaths caused by this fatal storm up to 10,000. The condition of the survivors for two or three days beggars description. The water had quickly receded, and all means of communication had been destroyed, including steamships, railroads, telephone and telegraph lines, and public highways. Practically all food supplies had been destroyed, and the drinking-water supply had been cut off by the breaking

of the aqueduct pipes. The tropical climate required the most summary measures for the disposition of the bodies of the dead. Military administration was made necessary, and many ghastly looters and plunderers were summarily shot, either in the act of robbing the dead or upon evidence of guilt. . . . Relief agencies everywhere set to work promptly to forward food, clothing, and money to the impoverished survivors. Great corporations like the Southern Pacific Railroad made haste to restore their Galveston facilities, and ingenious engineers brought forward suggestions for protection of the city against future inundations. These suggestions embraced such improvements as additional break-waters, jetties, dikes, and the filling in of a portion of the bay, between Galveston and the mainland. The United States Government in recent years has spent \$8,000,000 or \$10,000,000 in engineering works to deepen the approach to Galveston harbor. The channel, which was formerly only 20 or 21 feet deep across the bar, is now 27 feet deep, and the action of wind and tide between the jetties cuts the passage a little deeper every year. The foreign trade of Galveston, particularly in cotton, has been growing by leaps and bounds."*—American Review of Reviews, Oct., 1900, p. 398.*—See also **TEXAS**: 1900.

1901.—Origin of commission government. See **COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES**: 1901-1903.

1904-1920.—Protection against floods.—**Population**.—As a protection against a recurrence of the disastrous flood of September, 1900, a wall, covering the entire frontage of the city, was built facing the gulf of Mexico. It was completed in 1904. As a further protection against storms the entire grade of the city was raised from one to fifteen feet above its former level. In 1908 the city issued bonds for the construction of a causeway, over two miles in length, to connect Galveston with the mainland, which was opened to traffic in May, 1912. Since the storm the growth of the city has been steady.

**GALVÉZ**, Bernardo de, Count de (1755-1786), governor of Louisiana and viceroy of Mexico. Sided with the Americans during the Revolutionary War, even before Spain's declaration of war against England, 1779; captured Baton Rouge, Pensacola and Mobile; appointed captain-general of Cuba, 1783; succeeded his father as viceroy of Mexico, 1785.—See also **FLORIDA**: 1779-1781; **LOUISIANA**: 1770-1797.

**GALVEZ**, José (1720-1787), Spanish statesman, visitor-general of Mexico and the West Indies, 1761-1774 (see also **VISITOR-GENERAL**); after his return to Spain was *ministro universal de Indias* and was created marquis of Sonora. Perhaps the greatest of the Spanish colonial administrators.

**GAMA**, Vasco da (c. 1460-1524), Portuguese mariner and discoverer of the ocean route to India in 1498. Four years later he headed a second expedition to India. In 1524 he was appointed viceroy of Portuguese Asia, but died shortly after his arrival at Cochin. See **COMMERCE**: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries; Leadership of the Portuguese; **INDIA**: 1498-1580; **PORTUGAL**: 1463-1498; **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1486-1806.

**GAMARRA**, Agustin (1785-1841), president of Peru, 1820-1834. See **PERU**: 1826-1876.

**GAMBETTA**, Léon Michael (1838-1882), French Republican statesman. Vigorous opponent of the second empire and the Franco-Prussian War; minister of interior in the government of national defense formed in 1870, escaping from Paris by balloon to organize the armies in the provinces;

resigning after the capitulation of Paris; president of the Chamber of Deputies, 1870-1881; premier, November, 1881, to January, 1882.—See also FRANCE: 1870-1871; 1875-1889; DEMOCRACY: Genesis of modern democracy; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: France: 1848-1875.

ALSO IN: P. Deschanel, *Gambetta*.—H. Dutrait-Crozon, *Gambetta et la défense nationale*.

**GAMBIA**, small British colony in West Africa at the mouth of the Gambia river adjoining the British protectorate which extends 200 miles up the river; under Mohammedan influence since the eleventh century; the Portuguese began trading on the river about the sixteenth century; England became interested later and in 1664 built a fort to protect her trade; the slave trade was abolished in 1807; first English settlement, 1816; ordinance for extinction of slavery, 1906.

**Area and population.** See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

**GAMBIER, James, Lord** (1756-1833), English admiral. Took part in the bombardment of Copenhagen in 1807; at the Treaty of Ghent. See U. S. A.: 1814 (December): Treaty of peace concluded at Ghent.

**GAMBLE, Hamilton Rowan** (1798-1864), governor of Missouri and presiding judge of the state supreme court, at the convention on Missouri Compromise. See MISSOURI: 1860-1861; 1862-1865.

**GAMBLING ACT** (1774). See INSURANCE: Life: Early forms.

**GAME LAWS, Canada.** See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1879-1921.

**GAMES.** See RECREATION; LUDI.

**GAMEZ CASE** (1885). See ASYLUM, RIGHT OF: Right of asylum on merchant ships.

**GAMMADION**, sun-symbol of antiquity. See TRI-SKELION.

**GAMORI**, early oligarchy of the Grecian states. See GEOMORI.

**GANDARIANS**, ancient people living close to the Indus, who, with the Gedrosians, were united into one satrapy under the Persian kings. See GEDROSIANS.

**GANDASTOGUES**, or Conestogas, American aboriginal tribe. See SUSQUEHANNAS.

**GANDHI, Mohandas Karamchand, Mahatma** (1869- ), Indian political leader. Educated as lawyer; 1893, went to South Africa and organized campaign against anti-Asiatic legislation and was finally imprisoned as a result of the conflict; 1914, returned to India; became an ardent advocate of Tolstoy's doctrines; started non-coöperation agitation and spread hostility to western civilization; 1920, attempted to unite Hindus and Mohammedans.—See also INDIA: 1885-1922; 1905-1922; 1919; 1921-1922.

**GANDO**, sultanate in the British protectorate of Nigeria, formerly a subordinate of the Sokoto empire.

1885.—Treaty with Great Britain. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: West Africa.

**GANGANELLI, Lorenzo.** See CLEMENT XIV. **GANGANI**, early Celtic tribe of Ireland. See IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

**GANGES**, great river of northern India, flowing from the Himalayas into the bay of Bengal. In all branches of the Hindu religion it is revered as a holy stream, the mere touch of whose waters has marvelous efficacy in washing away sin. Certain places on its banks receive annual visits from thousands of pilgrims.—See also INDIA: Land.

**GANGWAY.**—On the floor of the English House of Commons, "the long lines of seats rise

gradually on each side of the chair—those to the Speaker's right being occupied by the upholders of the Government, and those to the left accommodating the Opposition. One length of seating runs in an unbroken line beneath each of the side galleries, and these are known as the 'back benches.' The other lengths are divided into two nearly equal parts by an unseated gap of about a yard wide. This is 'the gangway.' Though nothing more than a convenient means of access for members, this space has come to be regarded as the barrier that separates the thick and thin supporters of the rival leaders from their less fettered colleagues—that is to say, the steady men from the Radicals, Nationalists, and free-lancers generally."—*Popular account of parliamentary procedure*, p. 6.

**GANS, Eduard** (1797-1839), German jurist. See JEWS: 18th-19th centuries.

**GAON, GEONIM**, title of the heads of Sura and Pumbeditha, two Jewish academies in Babylonia. See JEWS: 7th century.

**GAPON, George** (1870-1906), Russian priest and labor leader. See RUSSIA: 1905 (January).

**G. A. R.** See GRAND ARMY OF THE REPUBLIC.

**GARAMANTES.**—The ancient inhabitants of the north African region now called Fezzan, were known as the Garamantes.—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, ch. 8, sect. 1.—See also AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

**GARAY, Francisco de** (d. 1523), Spanish explorer in North America. See AMERICA: 1519-1525.

**GARAY, Juan de** (1541-1584), Spanish soldier and founder of Buenos Aires. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777; BUENOS AIRES: 1580-1650.

**GARBUNOWKA, Battle of.** See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: 1, 7.

**GARCIA, king of Leon and Asturias, or Oviedo**, 910-914.

**García I**, king of Navarre, 925-970.

**García II**, king of Navarre, 995-1001.

**García III**, king of Navarre, 1035-1054.

**García IV**, king of Navarre, 1134-1150.

**GARCIA Y INIGUEZ, Calixto** (1836-1898), Cuban general and leader of the insurgents. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June-July).

**GARDA, Lake**, largest lake in Italy, thirty-four miles long, two to ten miles wide; southern extremity is sixteen miles west of Verona; points of interest on its shores are connected with early Roman history; it is known for its fashionable resorts, fine hotels, agreeable climate and beautiful scenery; its northern extremity marked the limit of the Italian offensive in the summer of 1915 during the World War.

**GARDEN CITIES, England.** See CITY PLANNING: Great Britain.

**GARDEN OF EDEN.** See EDEN, GARDEN OF.

**GARDINER, Alan Henderson** (1870- ), English archaeologist. Editor of the *Journal of Egyptian Archaeology* since 1916; discovered the origin of the alphabet from inscriptions found in Sinai, 1915. See ALPHABET: Theories of origin and development.

**GARDINER, Samuel Rawson** (1829-1902), English historian. See HISTORY: 32.

**GARDNER, Henry** (1730-1782), American statesman. See U. S. A.: 1774-1775.

**GARDOQUI, Don Diego**, Spanish minister in the United States. See U. S. A.: 1784-1788.

**GARFIELD, Harry Augustus** (1863- ), president of Williams college. Appointed fuel administrator, 1917. See U. S. A.: 1918 (January-February); 1918-1920.

**GARFIELD, James Abram** (1831-1881), twentieth president of the United States. Presi-

dent of Hiram college, 1857-1859; member Ohio senate, 1859-1860; served in the Civil War, rising in rank from lieutenant-colonel to major-general; elected to the House of Representatives while in the field; served, 1863-1880; member of electoral commission, 1877; inaugurated president of the United States, 1881; shot at Washington, July 2, 1881, by Charles Guiteau; died September 19, 1881.—See also U. S. A.: 1880: Twenty-fourth presidential election; 1881.

**GARFIELD, James Rudolph** (1865- ), United States government official. Served in the upper house of the Ohio legislature, 1896-1899; became commissioner of the bureau of corporations in the federal Department of Commerce and Labor, 1903; appointed secretary of the interior, 1907. See U. S. A.: 1905-1909.

**Investigation of the "Beef Trust."** See TRUSTS: United States: 1903-1906.

**GARGANTUA**, principal character in two works by Rabelais. See EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Rabelais' Gargantua.

**GARIBALDI**, king of the Lombards, 672-673.

**GARIBALDI, Giuseppe** (1807-1882), Italian patriot. Condemned to death for his part in the Mazzinian conspiracy, 1834, but fled to South America where he served the republic of Rio Grande against the Brazilians and gained a reputation as a brilliant leader; returned to Italy, 1848, to aid the Italians in their rising against Austria; went to Rome to support Mazzini's republic, 1849, and was appointed commander of the forces; after a desperate defence escaped from Rome and fled to the United States; returned to Italy in 1854 and on the outbreak of war, 1859, was placed in command of the *Chasseurs* of the Alps; after a series of brilliant victories succeeded in liberating Alpine territory as far as the Tyrol. On the revolt of the Sicilians in 1860 he crossed to the island and wrested it from the king of Naples. In 1866 he attempted the liberation of the Italian Tyrol, but was unsuccessful; attempted the liberation of Rome, 1867, but was defeated and taken prisoner by the French. In 1870 he offered his services to the French in the war against Germany. In 1875 Garibaldi took his seat in the parliament of united Italy. The latter part of his life he spent quietly at Caprera, a small island off Sardinia.—See also ITALY: 1848-1849; 1856-1859; 1859-1861; 1862-1866; 1867-1870; EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the great powers (1848-1878); ROME: Modern city: 1849.

**GARIBALDI, Giuseppe (Peppino Garibaldi)** (1879- ), Italian general, grandson of the Italian Liberator. Served under Goethals in Panama canal zone, 1907-1909; in the Greek army, 1912; in the Italian army during World War, 1915-1918; promoted to the rank of brigadier-general for distinguished service, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: a.

**GARIBALDI**, Italian destroyer, operating in the Adriatic. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: b, 3.

**GARIGLIANO, Battle of** (1503). See ITALY: 1501-1504.

**GARITES**, ancient tribe of Aquitaine. See AQUITAINE: Ancient tribes.

**GARLAND CASE**, Arkansas. See ARKANSAS: 1865-1866.

**GARMENT MAKERS' STRIKE**, Chicago (1910-1911).

See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

**GARMENT WORKERS' UNION: Education.** See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States.

**GARNETT, Robert S.** (1819-1861), American

soldier; general in the Confederate army during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1861 (June-July).

**GARNIER-PAGES, Louis Antoine** (1803-1878), French statesman and member of provisional government. See FRANCE: 1842-1848.

**GARONNE**, river of southwestern France, rising at the Mount Maladetta in the Pyrenees and emptying in the bay of Biscay at Point de Grave. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: France: 1717-1922.

**GARRETSON, Austin Bruce** (1856- ), American labor-union official. Member of the federal commission on industrial relations, 1912. See INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.

**GARRISON, Lindley Miller** (1865- ), American cabinet officer. Vice chancellor of New Jersey, 1904-1913; secretary of war in the cabinet of President Wilson, 1913-1916. See U. S. A.: 1913 (March); 1916-1917.

**GARRISON, William Lloyd** (1805-1879), American abolitionist. Editor of several abolition newspapers, 1826-1831; editor of the *Liberator*, an extreme abolitionist paper, 1831-1865; organized American Anti-Slavery Society, 1832, becoming its president. See SLAVERY: 1828-1832; U. S. A.: 1829-1832.

**GARSTIN, Sir William** (1849- ), British government director of the Suez Canal Company since 1907; Red Cross worker in England during the World War. See SUDAN: 1914.

**GARTER, Knights of the Order of the.**—"About this time [1343] the king of England [Edward III] resolved to rebuild and embellish the great castle of Windsor, which king Arthur had first founded in time past, and where he had erected and established that noble round table from whence so many gallant knights had issued forth, and displayed the valiant prowess of their deeds at arms over the world. King Edward, therefore, determined to establish an order of knighthood, consisting of himself, his children, and the most gallant knights in Christendom, to the number of forty. He ordered it to be denominated 'knights of the blue garter,' and that the feast should be celebrated every year at Windsor, upon St. George's day. He summoned, therefore, all the earls, barons, and knights of his realm, to inform them of his intentions; they heard it with great pleasure; for it appeared to them highly honourable, and capable of increasing love and friendship. Forty knights were then elected, according to report and estimation the bravest in Christendom, who sealed, and swore to maintain and keep the feast and the statutes which had been made. The king founded a chapel at Windsor, in honour of St. George, and established canons, there to serve God, with a handsome endowment. He then issued his proclamation for this feast by his heralds, whom he sent to France, Scotland, Burgundy, Hainault, Flanders, Brabant, and the empire of Germany, and offered to all knights and squires, that might come to this ceremony, passports to last for fifteen days after it was over. The celebration of this order was fixed for St. George's day next ensuing, to be held at Windsor, 1344."—Froissart (Johnes), *Chronicles*, bk. 1, ch. 100.—"The popular tradition, derived from Polydore Vergil, is that, having a festival at Court, a lady chanced to drop her garter, when it was picked up by the King. Observing that the incident made the bystanders smile significantly, Edward exclaimed in a tone of rebuke, 'Honi soit qui mal y pense'—'Dishonoured be he who thinks evil of it': and to prevent any further inuendos, he tied the garter round his own knee. This anecdote, it is true, has been characterized by some

as an improbable fable: why, we know not. . . . Be the origin of the institution, however, what it may, no Order in Europe is so ancient, none so illustrious, for 'it exceeds in majesty, honour and fame all chivalrous fraternities in the world.' . . . By a Statute passed on the 17th January, 1805, the Order is to consist of the Sovereign and twenty-five Knights Companions, together with such lineal descendants of George III, as may be elected, always excepting the Prince of Wales, who is a constituent part of the original institution. Special Statutes have since, at different times, been proclaimed for the admission of Sovereigns and extra Knights."—B. Burke, *Book of orders of knighthood*, p. 08.

ALSO IN: J. Buswell, *Historical account of the Knights of the Garter*.—C. M. Yonge, *Cameos from English history, 2nd series*, ch. 3.

**GARUA**, trading and military post of the Cameroons, West Africa. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: VI. Africa: a; 1915: VIII. Africa: c, 4; c, 7.

**GARUMNI**, tribe of ancient Aquitaine. See **AQUITAINE**: Ancient tribes.

**GARY**, James Albert (1833- ), postmaster-general in President McKinley's cabinet, 1897-1898. See **U. S. A.**: 1897 (March).

**GARY**, city in Lake County, Indiana, situated on the southern side of Lake Michigan. In 1906 the United States Steel Corporation established its plant there and since then it has become the greatest steel producing centre in the world. It was chartered in 1906, and named after the chairman of the board of directors of the United States Steel Corporation, Elbert Henry Gary. See **INDIANA**: 1906.

**GARY SCHOOL PLAN**. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Experimental schools.

**GAS**, Experiments with. See **CHEMISTRY**: Physical: Laws of gases; **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Liquefaction of gases; Artificial light.

**GAS**, Poison. See **POISON GAS**.

**GAS ENGINES**. See **STEAM AND GAS ENGINES**.

**GAS LIGHTING**. See **INVENTIONS**: 18th century: Artificial light; **MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT**: European municipal ownership, etc.

**GAS MASKS**. See **POISON GAS**: First employment at Ypres; Protected shelters.

**GASCONY**, ancient duchy of southwestern France.

Origin of the Gascons. See **AQUITAINE**: 681-768.

778.—Ambuscade at Roncesvalles. See **SPAIN**: 778.

781.—Embraced in Aquitaine. See **AQUITAINE**: 781.

11th century.—Founding of the Dukedom. See **BURGUNDY**: 1032.

1154-1360.—Map showing boundaries. See **FRANCE**: Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.

1360.—Ceded to England. See **FRANCE**: 1337-1360.

**GASIND**, Lombardian retainers that sank into the general vassalage about the tenth century. See **COMITATUS**.

**GASKELL**, Mrs. Elizabeth Cleghorn Stevenson (1810-1865), English novelist. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1832-1880.

**GASOLINE MOTOR**. See **STEAM AND GAS ENGINES**: Adoption of gasoline motor.

**GASPARRI**, Cardinal, papal secretary of state and codifier of new canon law. See **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW**: 1917.

**GASPE**, small schooner employed (1772) by an English vessel of war as a tender to run in the

shallow waters of Rhode Island. See **U. S. A.**: 1772.

**GASTEIN**, Convention of (1865). See **GERMANY**: 1861-1866.

**GATE OF TEARS**. See **BAB-EL MANDEB**.

**GATACRE**, Sir William Forbes (1843-1906), British major-general. Fought in India, the Sudan and South Africa, and received high honors.

**GATES**, Horatio (1728-1806), American general, served as major under Braddock; saw active service during War of Independence and for a while attained the rank of chief in command in the South. His attempt to supersede Washington failed completely and he was himself superseded by Greene, December, 1780. See **U. S. A.**: 1775 (May-August); 1777 (July-October); 1777-1778; 1780 (February-August).

**GATES**, Sir Thomas (c. 1559-1621), first governor of Virginia under the Virginia Company. See **VIRGINIA**: 1609-1616.

**GATH**, one of the five cities of the Philistines. See **PHILISTINES**.

**GATHAS**, name applied to certain rhythmical compositions of great antiquity. The Gáthās of the Avesta comprise seventeen hymns. See **ZOROASTRIANS**.

**GATLING GUN**, Invention of. See **ORDNANCE**: 20th century.

**GATUN DAM**. See **PANAMA CANAL**: 1907-1914.

**GAU**, or **Ga**.—"Next [after the Mark, in the settlements of the Germanic peoples] in order of constitution, if not of time, is the union of two, three, or more Marks in a federal bond for purposes of a religious, judicial, or even political character. The technical name for such a union is in Germany a Gau or Bant; in England the ancient name Ga has been almost universally superseded by that of Scir or Shire. For the most part the natural divisions of the country are the divisions also of the Ga; and the size of this depends upon such accidental limits as well as upon the character and dispositions of the several collective bodies which we have called Marks. The Ga is the second and final form of unsevered possession; for every larger aggregate is but the result of a gradual reduction of such districts, under a higher political or administrative unity, different only in degree and not in kind from what prevailed individually in each. The kingdom is only a larger Ga than ordinary; indeed the Ga itself was the original kingdom. . . . Some of the modern shire-divisions of England in all probability have remained unchanged from the earliest times; so that here and there a now existent Shire may be identical in territory with an ancient Ga. But it may be doubted whether this observation can be very extensively applied."—J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—See also **GRAF**; **HUNDRED**.

**GAUGAMELA**, or **Arbela**, Battle of (331 B.C.). See **MACEDONIA**: B.C. 334-330; B.C. 330-323.

**GAUGUIN**, Paul (1848-1903), French post-impressionist painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

**GAUL**: Cæsar's description.—"Gallia, in the widest sense of the term, is divided into three parts, one part occupied by the Belgæ, a second by the Aquitani, and a third by a people whom the Romans name Galli, but in their own tongue they are named Celtae. These three people differ in language and social institutions. The Garumna (Garonne) is the boundary between the Aquitani and the Celtae; the rivers Matrona (Marne, a branch of the Seine) and the Sequana (Seine) separate the Celtae from the Belgæ. . . . That part of Gallia which is occupied by the Celtae

begins at the river Rhone: it is bounded by the Garonne, the Ocean and the territory of the Belgae; on the side of the Sequani and the Helvetii it also extends to the Rhine. It looks to the north. The territory of the Belgae begins where that of the Celts ends: it extends to the lower part of the Rhine; it looks towards the north and the rising sun. Aquitania extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenean mountains and that part of the Ocean which borders on Spain. It looks in a direction between the setting sun and the north."—Julius Cæsar, *Gaulic Wars*, bk. 1, ch. 1 (quoted in G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 3, ch. 22).

People.—"The Gauls, properly so called, the Galatæ of the Greeks, the Galli of the Romans, and the Gael of modern history, formed the van of the great Celtic migration which had poured westward at various intervals during many hundred years. . . . Having overrun the south of Gaul and penetrated into Spain, they lost a part of the territory thus acquired, and the restoration of the Iberian fugitives to Aquitania placed a barrier between the Celts in Spain and their brethren whom they had left behind them in the north. In the time of the Romans the Galli were found established in the centre and east of the country denominated Gaul, forming for the most part a great confederation, at the head of which stood the Arverni. It was the policy of the Romans to raise the Ædui into competition with this dominant tribe. . . . The Arverni, whose name is retained in the modern appellation of Auvergne, occupied a large district in the middle and south of Gaul, and were surrounded by tributary or dependent clans. The Ædui lay more to the north and east, and the centre of their possessions is marked by the position of their capital Bibracte, the modern Autun, situated in the highlands which separate the waters of the Loire, the Seine and the Saone. [See also ÆDUI.] . . . Other Gallic tribes stretched beyond the Saone: the Sequani, who afterwards made an attempt to usurp this coveted preëminence (the valley of the Doubs formed the centre of the Sequanese territory, which reached to the Jura and the Rhine); the Helvetii and other mountain races, whose scanty pastures extended to the sources of the Rhine; the Allobroges, who dwelt upon the Isere and Rhone, and who were the first of their race to meet and the first to succumb before the prowess of the Roman legions. According to the classification both of Cæsar and Strabo, the Turones, Pictones and Santones must be comprised under the same general denomination."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, v. 1, ch. 5.—See also CELTS; GALLIA BRACCATA; FRANCE: PEOPLE.

Migrations of tribes. See EUROPE: Introduction to historic period: Migrations.

Civilization. — Government. — Religion. — "The knowledge of metals penetrated into Gaul by two routes, of which the starting-point was in the Ægean. South-Eastern Gaul was served by the route that led through Central Europe; Western Gaul borrowed from Spain. It must not, indeed, be supposed that the Gallic tribes were merely imitative. The types which were introduced from the more favoured East developed along national lines. But side by side with the products of their own manufacture they continued to use many that came from abroad. Although the memory of inter-tribal war is preserved by the earthworks and stone forts which, even in the Neolithic Age, had been erected upon the hills, commerce, internal and external, advanced with rapid strides. Forests were gradually cleared; and trackways were laid out from village to village. Caravans

began to cross the Alps from the valley of the Po. Gold crescent-shaped ornaments, intended to be worn round the neck, and fancifully decorated with geometrical figures, were brought from Ireland; comparison of the types of pottery, of knives and axes, razors and swords, of bracelets, pins, and brooches, shows that many were derived from Italy and Germany; and before the end of the Hallstatt period trade was established with the Greeks, while wine was imported and distributed by the merchants of Massilia. . . . The earliest inhabitants of the Gaul about whom history has anything to tell were the Ligurians. According to the ancient geographers, the land which originally belonged to them in Gaul was the mountainous tract between the Rhône, the Durance, and the Cottian and Maritime Alps; but by the fifth century before Christ they were mingled with Iberians on the west of the Rhône; and from the evidence of certain geographical names as well as of archaeology, it would seem that they once possessed the whole of Eastern Gaul as far north as the Marne. The culture of this region in the Bronze Age differed from that of the west, but closely resembled that of Northern Italy, where we know that Ligurians lived. The vast number of sickles which have been discovered in the south-east show that the Ligurians were industrious tillers of the soil; and they may have been descended, at least in part, from Swiss lake-dwellers of the Stone Age, who probably introduced cereals and domestic animals into Gaul. The origin of the Iberians remains uncertain; but when they came under the notice of the Greeks they occupied the eastern part of Spain as well as the country between the Pyrenees and the Rhône; and it should seem that they had crossed the Pyrenees and made conquests in Aquitania as well as on the Mediterranean coast. The 'Iberian question' is one of the problems which amuse and baffle ethnologists; for there can be little doubt that in the land which belonged to the Iberians of history, in Spain as well as in Southern Gaul, there once existed, besides Celtic, at least two forms of speech,—Basque and the uncouth, undeciphered language or languages in which were engraved the so-called Iberian inscriptions. But if the Iberians were not one race, the bulk of them were small and dark, and not unlike the neolithic people of l'Homme Mort. [See also IBERIANS, WESTERN.] In Cæsar's time Liguria, as well as the land of the Iberians, was also peopled by the descendants of Celtic invaders. It was perhaps in the seventh century before the Christian era that the tall fair Celts began to cross the Rhine; but it is unlikely that even they were homogeneous; and those to whom belonged the characteristics which the ancient writers associated with the Gallic or Celtic type may have been accompanied by the descendants of aliens who had joined them during their long sojourn in Germany. Successive swarms spread over the land, partly subduing and mingling with the descendants of the palæolithic peoples and of their neolithic conquerors, partly perhaps driving them into the mountainous tracts. Physically, they resembled the tall fair Germans whom Cæsar and Tacitus describe; but they differed from them in character and customs as well as in speech. . . . But the growth of material prosperity had not been matched by true national progress. The Aquitani, indeed, the maritime tribes, and the Belgae were untouched by foreign influences; but the Celticans of the interior had been enfeebled by contact with Roman civilization. Much nonsense has been written about the enervating effect of luxury. Its effect, however, when it is suddenly introduced

among a half-civilized people, is quite different from its effect when it is a natural growth. The Gauls had lost the strength of barbarism, and had not gained the strength of civilization. They had once, as Caesar remarked, been more than a match for the Germans; but enervated by imported luxury, and cowed by a succession of defeats, they no longer pretended to be able to cope with them. Their constitution was based upon the tribe, if that word may be applied to the political unit which Caesar called a *civitas*. The tribe was generally an aggregate, more or less compact, of communities to which he gave the name of *pagi*, the members of which had originally been related by blood or by near neighbourhood; but it would seem that some of the smaller tribes consisted each of one *pagus* only. Each *pagus*, under its own magistrate, appears to have enjoyed a certain measure of independence, and to have contributed its separate contingent to the tribal host. Each tribe had its council of elders, and had once had its king; but in certain tribes the king was now superseded by an annually elected magistrate; while in others perhaps the council kept the government to itself. . . . The country swarmed with outlawed criminals, who had fled from justice, and exiled adventurers, who had failed to execute *coups d'état*. Nobles and their clients lived sword in hand; and hardly a year passed without some petty war. Every tribe, every hamlet, nay every household was riven by faction. One was for the Romans and another for the Helvetii: one for the Aedui and another for the Arverni: one for a Diviciacus and another for a Dumnorix; one for the constitutional oligarchy and another for the lawless adventurer. All, in short, were for a cult; and none was for the state. . . . Local cults of course abounded; but the great gods whom Caesar noticed, however variously they may have been conceived by various tribes, were common to Gaul; while every rite and every sacrifice was recognized and regulated by Druidism. . . . Celtic religion, in so far as it was descended from the religion of the undivided Aryan stock, was fundamentally one with the religions of Italy and Greece; but our imperfect knowledge of the classical religions hardly helps us more to understand the inwardness of Celtic religion than the remark of Caesar, that about their deities 'their notions are much the same as those of other peoples.' What is certain is that, like every other polytheistic religion, that of the Celts, except perhaps where it was moulded by Druidical doctrine, had no definite theology, but was an ever-expanding, ever-shifting, formless chaos, alike in its main developments in Britain, Gaul, and Spain, yet differing in every tribe and household, and in every age; that, on its practical side, it was a performance of traditional rites; and that it concerned the individual most as a member of a family, a community, or a tribe."—T. R. Holmes, *Cæsar's conquest of Gaul*, pp. 9-27.—See also DRUIDS: Points of agreement, etc.

**Education.** See EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries.

**B. C. 390-347.—Invasions of Italy.—Destruction of Rome.** See ROME: Republic: B.C. 390-347.

**B. C. 295-191.—Roman conquest of the Cisalpine tribes.** See ROME: Republic: B.C. 295-191.

**B. C. 280-279.—Invasion of Greece.**—In the year 280 B.C. the Gauls, who had long before passed from northern Italy around the Adriatic to its eastern coast, made their first appearance in Macedonia and northern Greece. The Macedonian throne was occupied at the time by the infamous

usurper, Ptolemy Ceraunus (see MACEDONIA: B.C. 297-280), and the Celtic savages did one good service to Greece by slaying him, in the single battle that was fought. The whole open country was abandoned to them, for a time, and they swept it, as far southward as the valley of the Peneus, in Thessaly; but the walled cities were safe. After ravaging the country for some months the Gauls appear to have retired; but it was only to return again the next year in more formidable numbers and under a chief, Brennus, of more vigor and capability. On this occasion the country suffered fearfully from the barbaric swarm, but defended itself with something like the spirit of the Greece of two centuries before. The Ætolians were conspicuous in the struggle; the Peloponnesian states gave little assistance. The policy of defense was much the same as at the time of the Persian invasion, and the enemy was confronted in force at the pass of Thermopylæ. Brennus made a more desperate attempt to force the pass than Xerxes had done and was beaten back with a tremendous slaughter of his Gauls. But he found traitors, as Xerxes had done, to guide him over the mountains, and the Greeks at Thermopylæ, surrounded by the enemy, could only escape by sea. The Gauls marched on Delphi, eager for the plunder of the great temple, and there they met with some fatal disaster. Precisely what occurred is not known. According to the Greeks, the god protected his sanctuary, and the accounts they have left are full of miracles and prodigies—of earthquakes, lightnings, tempests, and disease. The only clear facts seem to be that Delphi was successfully defended; that the Gauls retreated in disorder and were destroyed in vast numbers before the remnant of them got away from the country. Brennus is said to have killed himself to escape the wrath of his people for the failure of the expedition. One large body of the great army had separated from the rest and gone eastward into Thrace, before the catastrophe occurred. These subsequently passed over to Asia and pursued there an adventurous career, leaving a historic name in the country (see GALATIA).—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 60.

**B. C. 125-121.—First Roman conquests.** See SALYES; ALLOBROGES; ÆDUI.

**B. C. 58-51.—Cæsar's conquest.**—Cæsar was consul for the year 695 A. U. (59 B.C.). At the expiration of his consulship he secured, by vote of the people, the government of the two Gauls (see ROME: Republic: B.C. 63-58), not for one year, which was the customary term, but for five years—afterwards extended to ten. Cisalpine Gaul (northern Italy) had been fully subjugated and was tranquil; Transalpine Gaul (Gaul west and north of the Alps, or modern France, Switzerland and Belgium) was troubled and threatening. In Transalpine Gaul the Romans had made no conquests beyond the Rhone, as yet, except along the coast at the south. The country between the Alps and the Rhone, excepting certain territories of Massilia (Marseilles) which still continued to be a free city, in alliance with Rome, had been fully appropriated and organized as a province—the Provence of later times. The territory between the Rhone and the Cevennes mountains was less fully occupied and controlled. Cæsar's first proceeding as proconsul in Gaul was to arrest the migration of the Helvetii, who had determined to abandon their Swiss valleys and to seize some new territory in Gaul. He blocked their passage through Roman Gaul, then followed them in their movement eastward of the Rhone, attacked and defeated them with great slaughter, and forced the small remnant to return to their deserted mountain homes. The same year

(58 B. C.) he drove out of Gaul a formidable body of Suevic Germans who had crossed the Rhine some years before under their king, Ariovistus. They were almost annihilated. (See SUEVI: B. C. 58). The next year (57 B. C.) he reduced to submission the powerful tribes of the Belgian region, who had provoked attack by leaguering themselves against the Roman intrusion in Gaul. The most obstinate of those tribes—the Nervii—were destroyed. In the following year (56 B. C.) Cæsar attacked and nearly exterminated the Veneti, a remarkable maritime people, who occupied part of Armorica (modern Brittany); he also reduced the coast tribes northwards to submission, while one of his lieutenants, Crassus, made a conquest of Aquitania. The conquest of Gaul was now apparently complete, and next year (55 B. C.), after routing and cutting to pieces another horde of Germanic invaders—the Usipetes and Tenctheri—who had ventured across the lower Rhine, Cæsar traversed the channel and invaded Britain. (See also USIPETES.) This first invasion, which had been little more than a reconnaissance, was repeated the year following (54 B. C.), with a larger force. It was an expedition having small results, and Cæsar returned from it in the early autumn to find his power in Gaul undermined everywhere by rebellious conspiracies. The first outbreak occurred among the Belgæ, and found its vigorous leader in a young chief of the Eburones, Ambiorix by name. Two legions, stationed in the midst of the Eburones, were cut to pieces while attempting to retreat. (See also EBURONES.) But the effect of this great disaster was broken by the bold energy of Cæsar, who led two legions, numbering barely 7,000 men, to the rescue of his lieutenant Cicero (brother of the orator) whose single legion, camped in the Nervian territory, was surrounded and besieged by 60,000 of the enemy. Cæsar and his 7,000 veterans sufficed to rout the 60,000 Belgians. Proceeding with similar vigor to further operations, and raising new legions to increase his force, the proconsul had stamped the rebellion out before the close of the year 53 B. C., and the Eburones, who led in it, had ceased to exist. But the next year (52 B. C.) brought upon him a still more serious rising, of the Gallic tribes in central Gaul, leagued with the Belgians. Its leader was Vercingetorix, a gallant and able young chief of the Arverni. It was begun by the Carnutes, who massacred the Roman settlers in their town of Genabum (probably modern Orleans, but some say Gien, farther up the Loire). Cæsar was on the Italian side of the Alps when the news reached him, and the Gauls expected to be able to prevent his joining the scattered Roman forces in their country. But his energy baffled them, as it had baffled them many times before. He was across the Alps, across the Rhone, over the Cevennes—through six feet of snow in the passes—and in their midst, with such troops as he could gather in the Province, before they dreamed of lying in wait for him. Then, leaving most of these forces with Decimus Brutus, in a strong position, he stole away secretly, recrossed the Cevennes, put himself at the head of a small body of cavalry at Vienne on the Rhone, and rode straight through the country of the insurgents to join his veteran legions, first at Langres and afterwards at Sens. In a few weeks he was at the head of a strong army, had taken the guilty town of Genabum and had given it up to fire and the sword. A little later the capital of the Bituriges, Avaricum (modern Bourges), suffered the same fate. Next, attempting to reduce the Arvernian town of Gergovia, he met with a check and was placed in a serious strait. But with the able help of his lieutenant

Labienus, who defeated a powerful combination of the Gauls near Lutetia (modern Paris), he broke the toils, reunited his army, which he had divided, routed Vercingetorix in a great battle fought in the valley of the Vingeanne, and shut him up, with 80,000 men, in the city of Alesia. The siege of Alesia (modern Alise-Sainte-Reine, west of Dijon) which followed, was the most extraordinary of Cæsar's military exploits in Gaul. Holding his circumvallation of the town, against 80,000 within its walls and thrice as many swarming outside of it, he scattered the latter and forced the surrender of the former. His triumph was his greatest shame. Like a very savage, he dragged the knightly Vercingetorix in his captive train, exhibited him at a subsequent "triumph" in Rome, and then sent him to be put to death in the ghastly Tullianum. The fall of Alesia practically ended the revolt; although even the next year found some fighting to be done, and one stronghold of the Cadurci, Uxellodunum (modern Puy-d'Issolu, near Vayrac), held out with great obstinacy. It was taken by tapping with a tunnel the spring which supplied the besieged with water, and Cæsar punished the obstinacy of the garrison by cutting off their hands. Gaul was then deemed to be conquered and pacified, and Cæsar was prepared for the final contest with his rivals and enemies at Rome.—Cæsar, *Gaulic Wars*.

ALSO IN: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 4.—Napoleon III, *History of Cæsar*.—T. A. Dodge, *Cæsar*, ch. 4-25.

2nd-3rd centuries.—Introduction of Christianity. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church in Gaul and Spain.

2nd-7th centuries.—Ancient commerce. See COMMERCE: Ancient: 200-600.

259.—Invasion of the Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: 259.

277.—Invaders driven back by Probus.—"The most important service which Probus [Roman emperor, 276-282] rendered to the republic was the deliverance of Gaul, and the recovery of seventy flourishing cities oppressed by the barbarians of Germany, who, since the death of Aurelian, had ravaged that great province with impunity. Among the various multitude of those fierce invaders, we may distinguish, with some degree of clearness, three great armies, or rather nations, successively vanquished by the valour of Probus. He drove back the Franks into their morasses; a descriptive circumstance from whence we may infer that the confederacy known by the manly appellation of 'Free' already occupied the flat maritime country, intersected and almost overflowed by the stagnating waters of the Rhine, and that several tribes of the Frisians and Batavians had acceded to their alliance. He vanquished the Burgundians [and the Lygians]. . . . The deliverance of Gaul is reported to have cost the lives of 400,000 of the invaders—a work of labour to the Romans, and of expense to the emperor, who gave a piece of gold for the head of every barbarian."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 12.—See also LYGIANS.

287.—Insurrection of the Bagauds. See BAGAUDS; SERFDOM: 3rd-5th centuries.

355-361.—Julian's recovery of the province from the barbarians.—During the civil wars and religious quarrels which followed the death of Constantine the Great—more especially in the three years of the usurpation of Magnentius, in the west (350-353), Gaul was not only abandoned, for the most part, to the barbarians of Germany, but Franks and Alemanni were invited by Constantius to enter it. "In a little while a large part of the north and east of Gaul were in their almost undis-





VERCINGETORIX BEFORE CÆSAR  
(From an old print)

puted possession. The Alamans seized upon the countries which are now called Alsace and Lorraine; the Franks secured for themselves Batavia and Toxandria: forty-five flourishing cities, among them Cologne, Trèves, Spire, Worms, and Strasburg, were ravaged; and, in short, from the sources of the Rhine to its mouth, forty miles inland, there remained no safety for the population but in the strongly fortified towns." In this condition of the Gallic provinces, Julian, the young nephew of the emperor, was raised to the rank of Cæsar and sent thither with a trifling force of men to take the command. "During an administration of six years [355-361] this latest Cæsar revived in Gaul the memory of the indefatigable exploits and the vigorous rule of the first Cæsar. Insufficient and ill-disciplined as his forces were, and baffled and betrayed as he was by those who should have been his aids, he drove the fierce and powerful tribes of the Alamans, who were now the hydra of the western provinces, beyond the Upper Rhine; the Chamaves, another warlike tribe, he pursued into the heart of their native forests; while the still fiercer and more warlike Franks were dislodged from their habitations on the Meuse, to accept of conditions from his hands. . . . A part of these, called the Saliens, and destined to figure hereafter, were allowed to settle in permanence in Toxandria, between the Meuse and the Scheld, near the modern Tongres. . . . By three successful expeditions beyond the Rhine [he] restored to their friends a multitude of Roman captives, recovered the broken and down-trodden lines of the empire, humiliated many of the proud chiefs of the Germans, and impressed a salutary awe and respect upon their truculent followers. . . . He spent the intervals of peace which his valor procured in recuperating the wasted energies of the inhabitants. Their dilapidated cities were repaired, the excesses of taxation retrenched, the deficient harvests compensated by large importations of corn from Britain, and the resources of suspended industry stimulated into new action. Once more, says Libanius, the Gauls ascended from the tombs to marry, to travel, to enjoy the festivals, and to celebrate the public games."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 2, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 19.

365-367.—Expulsion of the Alemanni by Valentinian. See ALEMANNI: 365-367.

378.—Invasion of the Alemanni.—Destruction by Gratian. See ALEMANNI: 378.

406-409.—Breaking of the Rhine barrier.—The same year (406) in which Radagaisus, with his motley barbaric horde, invaded Italy and was destroyed by Stilicho, a more fatal assault was made upon Gaul. Two armies, in which were gathered up a vast multitude of Suevi, Vandals, Alans and Burgundians, passed the Rhine. The Franks opposed them as faithful allies of the Roman power, and defeated a Vandal army in one great battle, where 20,000 of the invaders were slain; but the Alans came opportunely to the rescue of their friends and forced the Frank defenders of Gaul to give way. "The victorious confederates pursued their march, and on the last day of the year, in a season when the waters of the Rhine were most probably frozen, they entered without opposition the defenceless provinces of Gaul. This memorable passage of the Suevi, the Vandals, the Alani, and the Burgundians, who never afterwards retreated, may be considered as the fall of the Roman empire in the countries beyond the Alps; and the barriers which had so long separated the savage and the civilized nations of the earth were, from that fatal

moment, levelled with the ground. . . . The flourishing city of Mentz was surprised and destroyed, and many thousand Christians were inhumanly massacred in the church. Worms perished after a long and obstinate siege; Strasburg, Spire, Rheims, Tournay, Arras, Amiens experienced the cruel oppression of the German yoke; and the consuming flames of war spread from the banks of the Rhine over the greatest part of the seventeen provinces of Gaul. That rich and extensive country, as far as the ocean, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, was delivered to the barbarians, who drove before them in a promiscuous crowd the bishop, the senator, and the virgin, laden with the spoils of their houses and altars."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 30.—See also ROME: Empire: 406-500.

407-411.—Reign of the usurper Constantine. See BRITAIN: 407.

410-419.—Establishment of the Visigoths in the kingdom of Toulouse. See GOTHs: 410-419.

410-420.—Franks join in the attack on Gaul. See FRANKS: 410-420.

5th-8th centuries.—Barbarities of the Frank conquest.—The conquests of the Franks in Gaul, under Clovis, began in 486 and ended with his death in 511 (see FRANKS: 481-511). "In the year 532, Theoderik, one of the sons and successors of Cblodowig, said to those Frankish warriors whom he commanded: 'Follow me as far as Auvergne, and I will make you enter a country where you will take as much gold and silver as you possibly can desire; where you can carry away in abundance flocks, slaves, and garments.' The Franks took up arms and once more crossing the Loire, they advanced on the territory of the Bituriges and Arvernes. These paid with interest for the resistance they had dared to the first invasion. Everything amongst them was devastated; the churches and monasteries were razed to their foundations. The young men and women were dragged, their hands bound, after the luggage to be sold as slaves. The inhabitants of this unfortunate country perished in large numbers or were ruined by the pillage. Nothing was left them of what they had possessed, says an ancient chronicle, except the land, which the barbarians could not carry away. Such were the neighbourly relations kept up by the Franks with the Gallic populations which had remained beyond their limits. Their conduct with respect to the natives of the northern provinces was hardly less hostile. When Hilperik, the son of Chlothar, wished, in the year 584, to send his daughter in marriage to the king of the West Goths, or Visigoths, settled in Spain, he came to Paris and carried away from the houses belonging to the 'fisc' a great number of men and women, who were heaped up in chariots to accompany and serve the bride elect. Those who refused to depart, and wept, were put in prison: several strangled themselves in despair. Many people of the best families enlisted by force into this procession, made their will, and gave their property to the churches. 'The son,' says a contemporary, 'was separated from his father, the mother from her daughter; they departed sobbing, and pronouncing deep curses; so many persons in Paris were in tears that it might be compared to the desolation of Egypt.' In their domestic misfortunes the kings of the Franks sometimes felt remorse, and trembled at the evil they had done. . . . But this momentary repentance soon yielded to the love of riches, the most violent passion of the Franks. Their incursions into the south of Gaul recommenced as soon as that country, recovered from its terrors and defeats, no longer admitted their gar-

risons nor tax collectors. Karle, to whom the fear of his arms gave the surname of Marteau, made an inroad as far as Marseilles; he took possession of Lyons, Arles, and Vienne, and carried off an immense booty to the territory of the Franks. When this same Karle, to insure his frontiers, went to fight the Saracens in Aquitania, he put the whole country to fire and sword; he burnt Bérgeries, Agde, and Nûnes; the arenas of the latter city still bear traces of the fire. At death of Karle, his two sons, Karlemann and Peppin, continued the great enterprise of replacing the inhabitants of the south, to whom the name of Romans was still given, under the yoke of the Franks. . . . Southern Gaul was to the sons of the Franks what entire Gaul had been to their fathers; a country, the riches and climate of which attracted them incessantly, and saw them return as enemies, as soon as it did not purchase peace of them."—A. Thierry, *Narratives of the Merovingian era, historical essays, etc., essay 24.*

**5th-10th centuries.—Conquerors and the conquered.—State of society under the barbarian rule.—Evolution of Feudalism.**—"After the conclusion of the great struggles which took place in the fourth and fifth centuries, whether between the German conquerors and the last forces of the empire, or between the nations which had occupied different portions of Gaul, until the Franks remained sole masters of the country, two races, two populations, which had nothing in common but religion, appear forcibly brought together, and, as it were, face to face with each other, in one political community. The Gallo-Roman population presents under the same law very different and very unequal conditions; the barbarian population comprises, together with its own peculiar classifications of ranks and conditions, distinct laws and nationalities. In the first we find citizens absolutely free, coloni, or husbandmen belonging to the lands of a proprietor, and domestic slaves deprived of all civil rights; in the second, we see the Frankish race divided into two tribes, each having its own peculiar law [the law of the Salic Franks or Salic law, and the law of the Riparian Franks or Riparian law]; the Burgundians, the Goths, and the rest of the Teutonic races, who became subjected, either of their own accord or by force, to the Frankish empire, governed by other and entirely different laws; but among them all, as well as among the Franks, we find at least three social conditions—two degrees of liberty, and slavery. Among these incongruous states of existence, the criminal law of the dominant race established, by means of the scale of damages for crime or personal injury, a kind of hierarchy—the starting-point of that movement towards an assimilation and gradual transformation, which, after the lapse of four centuries, from the fifth to the tenth, gave rise to the society of the feudal times. The first rank in the civil order belonged to the man of Frankish origin, and to the Barbarian who lived under the law of the Franks; in the second rank was placed the Barbarian, who lived under the law of his own country; next came the native freeman and proprietor, the Roman possessor, and, in the same degree, the Lidus or German colonus; after them, the Roman tributary—i.e., the native colonus; and, last of all, the slave, without distinction of origin. These various classes, separated on the one hand by distance of rank, on the other by difference of laws, manners, and language, were far from being equally distributed between the cities and the rural districts. All that was elevated in the Gallo-Roman population, of whatever character it might be, was found in the cities, where its

noble, rich, and industrious families dwelt, surrounded by their domestic slaves; and, among the people of that race, the only constant residents in the country were the half-servile coloni and the agricultural slaves. On the contrary, the superior class of the German population established itself in the country, where each family, independent and proprietary, was maintained on its own domain by the labour of the Lidi whom it had brought thither, or of the old race of coloni who belonged to the soil. The only Germans who resided in the cities were a small number of officers in the service of the Crown, and of individuals without family and patrimony, who, in spite of their original habits, sought a livelihood by following some employment. The social superiority of the dominant race rooted itself firmly in the localities inhabited by them, and passed, as has been already remarked, from the cities to the rural districts. By degrees, also, it came to pass that the latter drew off from the former the upper portion of their population, who, in order to raise themselves still higher, and to mix with the conquerors, imitated, as far as they were able, their mode of life. . . . While Barbarism was thus occupying or usurping all the vantage points of the social state, and civil life in the intermediate classes was arrested in its progress, and sinking gradually to the lowest condition, even to that of personal servitude, an ameliorating movement already commenced before the fall of the empire, still continued, and declared itself more and more loudly. The dogma of a common brotherhood in the eyes of God, and of one sole redemption for all mankind, preached by the Church to the faithful of every race, touched the heart and awakened the mind in favour of the slave, and, in consequence, enfranchisements became more frequent, or a treatment more humane was adopted on the part of the masters, whether Gauls or Germans by origin. The latter, moreover, had imported from their country, where the mode of life was simple and without luxury, usages favourable to a modified slavery. The rich barbarian was waited upon by free persons—by the children of his relatives, his clients and his friends; the tendency of his national manners, different from that of the Roman, induced him to send the slave out of his house, and to establish him as a labourer or artisan on some portion of land to which he then became permanently attached, and the destination of which he followed, whether it were inherited or sold. . . . Domestic slavery made the man a chattel, a mere piece of moveable property. The slave, settled on a spot of land, from that time entered into the category of real property. At the same time that this last class, which properly bore the name of serfs, was increased at the expense of the first, the classes of the coloni and Lidi would naturally multiply simultaneously, by the very casualties of ruin and adverse circumstances which, at a period of incessant commotions, injured the condition of the freemen. . . . In the very heart of the Barbarian society, the class of small proprietors, which had originally formed its strength and glory, decreased, and finally became extinct by sinking into vassalage, or a state of still more ignoble dependence, which partook more or less of the character of actual servitude. . . . The freemen depressed towards servitude met the slave who had reached a sort of half liberty. Thus, through the whole extent of Gaul, was formed a vast body of agricultural labourers and rural artisans, whose lot, though never uniform, was brought more and more to a level of equality; and the creative wants of society produced a new sphere of industry in the

country, while the cities remained stationary, or sank more and more into decay. . . . On every large estate where improvement flourished, the cabins of those employed, *Lidi*, *coloni* or slaves, grouped as necessity or convenience suggested, were multiplied and peopled more numerous, till they assumed the form of a hamlet. When these hamlets were situated in a favourable position . . . they continued to increase till they became villages. . . . The building of a church soon raised the village to the rank of a parish; and, as a consequence, the new parish took its place among the rural circumscriptions. . . . Thence sprung, altogether spontaneously, under the sanction of the intendant, joined to that of the priest, rude outlines of a municipal organization, in which the church became the depository of the acts which, in accordance with the Roman law, were inscribed on the registers of the city. It is in this way that beyond the towns, the cities, and the boroughs, where the remains of the old social condition lingered in an increasing state of degradation, elements of future improvement were formed. . . . This modification, already considerably advanced in the ninth century, was completed in the course of the tenth. At that period, the last class of the Gallo-Frankish society disappeared—viz., that of persons held as chattels, bought, exchanged, transferred from one place to another, like any other kind of moveable goods. The slave now belonged to the soil rather than to the person; his service, hitherto arbitrary, was changed into customary dues and regulated employment; he had a settled abode, and, in consequence, a right of possession in the soil on which he was dependent. This is the earliest form in which we distinctly trace the first impress of the modern world upon the civil state. The word *serf* henceforward took its definite meaning; it became the generic name of a mixed condition of servitude and freedom, in which we find blended together the states of the *colonus* and *Lidus*—two names which occur less and less frequently in the tenth century, till they entirely disappear. This century, the point to which all the social efforts of the four preceding ones which had elapsed since the Frankish conquest had been tending, saw the intestine struggle between the Roman and German manners brought to a conclusion by an important revolution. The latter definitely prevailed, and from their triumph arose the feudal system; that is to say, a new form of the state, a new constitution of property and domestic life, a parceling out of the sovereignty and jurisdiction, all the public powers transformed into demesne privileges, the idea of nobility devoted to the profession of arms, and that of ignobility to industry and labour. By a remarkable coincidence, the complete establishment of this system is the epoch when the distinction of races terminates in Frankish Gaul—when all the legal consequences of diversity of origin between Barbarians and Romans, conquerors and subjects, disappear. The law ceases to be personal, and becomes local; the German codes and the Roman code itself are replaced by custom; it is the territory and not the descent which distinguishes the inhabitant of the Gallic soil; finally, instead of national distinctions, one mixed population appears, to which the historian is able henceforward to give the name of French.”

—A. Thierry, *Formation and progress of the Tiers État in France*, v. 1, ch. 1.—See also FEUDALISM: Definition; SERFDOM: 5th-18th centuries.

412-453.—Mixed administration, Roman and barbarian.—“A praetorian prefect still resided at Trèves; a vicar of the seventeen Gallic provinces at Arles: each of these provinces had its Roman

duke; each of the hundred and fifteen cities of Gaul had its count; each city its *curia*, or municipality. But, collaterally with this Roman organisation, the barbarians, assembled in their ‘*mallum*,’ of which their kings were presidents, decided on peace and war, made laws, or administered justice. Each division of the army had its *Graf Jarl*, or Count; each subdivision its centenary, or hundred-man; and all these fractions of the free population had the same right of deciding by suffrage in their own *mallums*, or peculiar courts, all their common affairs. In cases of opposition between the barbarian and the Roman jurisdiction, the overbearing arrogance of the one, and the abject baseness of the other, soon decided the question of supremacy. In some provinces the two powers were not concurrent: there were no barbarians between the Loire and the Meuse, nor between the Alps and the Rhone; but the feebleness of the Roman government was only the more conspicuous. A few great proprietors cultivated a part of the province with the aid of slaves; the rest was desert, or only inhabited by *Bagaudæ*, runaway slaves, who lived by robbery. Some towns still maintained a show of opulence, but not one gave the slightest sign of strength; not one enrolled its militia, nor repaired its fortifications. . . . Honorius wished to confer on the cities of southern Gaul a diet, at which they might have deliberated on public affairs: he did not even find public spirit enough to accept the offered privilege.”—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire*, v. 1, ch. 7.

451.—Attila's invasion. See HUNS: 451.

453-484.—Extension of the Visigothic kingdom. See GOTHS: 453-484.

457-486.—Last Roman sovereignty.—The last definite survival of Roman sovereignty in Gaul lingered until 486 in a district north of the Seine, between the Marne and the Oise, which had Soissons for its capital. It was maintained there, in the first instance, by Ægidius, a Gallic noble whom Marjorian, one of the last of the emperors at Rome, made Master-General of Gaul. The respect commanded by Ægidius among the surrounding barbarians was so great that the Salian Franks invited him to rule over them, in place of a licentious young king, Childeric, whom they had driven into exile. He was king of these Franks, according to Gregory of Tours, for eight years (457-464), until he died. Childeric then returned, was reinstated in his kingdom and became the father of Clovis (or Chlodwig), the founder of the great Frank monarchy. But a son of Ægidius, named Syagrius, was still the inheritor of a kingdom, known as the “Kingdom of Syagrius,” embracing, as has been said, the country around Soissons, between the Seine, the Marne and the Oise, and also including, in the opinion of some writers, Troyes and Auxerre. The first exploit of Clovis—the beginning of his career of conquest—was the overthrow of this “king of the Romans,” as Syagrius was called, in a decisive battle fought at Soissons, 486, and the incorporation of his kingdom into the Frank dominions. Syagrius escaped to Toulouse, but was surrendered to Clovis and put to death.—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 3, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 2.

474.—Invasion of Ostrogoths. See GOTHS: 473-474.

507-509.—Expulsion of the Visigoths. See GOTHS: 507-509.

540.—Formal relinquishment of the country to the Franks by Justinian. See FRANKS: 539-553.

725.—Saracen invasion. See CALIPHATE: 715-732.

752.—Expulsion of Arabs from southern Gaul. See CALIPHATE: 752-759.

ALSO IN: E. Lavisse, *Histoire de France*.

**GAULS**, Præfect of the. See PRÆTORIAN PRÆFFECTS.

**GAUMATA**, or False Smerdis (d. 521 B. C.), according to Darius, a Magian priest from Media, the impersonator of Smerdis and usurper of the Persian throne, 522 B. C. See PERSIA: B. C. 549-521.

**GAUSARAPOS**, American aboriginal tribe. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

**GAUTAMA BUDDHA**, family name of Buddha. See BUDDHA; INDIA: B. C. 600-327; RELIGION: B. C. 600.

**GAUTIER**, Théophile (1811-1872), French poet, novelist and critic. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885.

**GAUTS**, or Geatas, Scandinavian tribe. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-11th centuries.

**GAUTSCH VON FRANKENTHURN**, Paul, Baron von (1851- ), Austrian statesman; minister of the interior, 1897-1898; premier, 1904-1906, also June 26 to Oct. 31, 1911. See AUSTRIA: 1898.

**GAVELKIND**, Irish.—"The Irish law of succession in landed property, known as that of Irish gavelkind, was a logical consequence of the theory of tribal ownership. If a member of the tribe died, his piece of land did not descend by right to his eldest son, or even to all his children equally. Originally, it reverted to its sole absolute owner, the tribe, every member of which had a right to use proportionate to his tribal status. This was undoubtedly the essential principle of inheritance by gavelkind."—S. Bryant, *Celtic Ireland*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: H. Maine, *Early history of institutions*, lect. 7.

**GAVEREN**, Battle of (1453). See GHENT: 1451-1453.

**GAVRELLE**, town in France, southwest of Douai. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: c, 12; c, 14; 1918: II. Western front: 1.

**GAY**, John (1685-1732), English poet and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1660-1800.

**GAYNOR**, William Jay (1851-1913), American jurist and public official. Judge of the New York state supreme court, 1893-1900; mayor of New York, 1900-1913; was shot and seriously wounded August 9, 1910.

**GAYOSO DE LEMOS**, Manuel (d. 1799), Spanish governor of Louisiana, 1797-1799. See LOUISIANA: 1770-1797.

**GAZA** (Arabic, Ghazeh), town in Palestine, southwest of Jerusalem, near the Mediterranean coast, one of the five chief cities of the Philistines. See PHILISTINES; ECBATANA; CHRISTIANITY; Map of Palestine, etc.

**B. C. 332.—Siege by Alexander.**—In his march from Phœnicia to Egypt (see MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330), Alexander the Great was compelled to pause for several months and lay siege to the ancient Philistine city of Gaza. It was defended for the Persian king by a brave eunuch named Batis. In the course of the siege, Alexander received a severe wound in the shoulder, which irritated his savage temper. When the town was at length taken by storm, he gave no quarter. Its male inhabitants were put to the sword and the women and children sold to slavery. The eunuch Batis, being captured alive, but wounded, was dragged by the feet at the tail of a chariot, driven at full speed by Alexander himself. The "greatest of conquerors" proved himself often enough, in this way, to be the greatest of barbarians—in his age.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 93.

**B. C. 312.—Battle between Ptolemy and Demetrius.** See MACEDONIA: B. C. 315-310.

**B. C. 100.—Destruction by Alexander Jannæus.**—Gaza having sided with the Egyptian king, in a war between Alexander Jannæus, one of the Asmonean kings of the Jews, and Ptolemy Lathyrus of Egypt and Cyprus, the former laid siege to the city, about 100 B. C., and acquired possession of it after several months, through treachery. He took his revenge by massacring the inhabitants and reducing the city to ruins. It was rebuilt not long afterwards by the Romans.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 3, ch. 9.

1244.—Defeat of Christians of Palestine by Carismians. See JERUSALEM: 1244.

1516.—Defeat of the Mamelukes by the Turks. See TURKEY: 1481-1520.

1917.—Turkish stronghold during World War.—Captured by the British. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1; c, 1, ii; c, 1, iv; c, 2, iii.

**GAZACA**, chief city of northern Media. See ECBATANA.

**GAZARI**, corruption of the word Cathari. See CATHARI.

"**GAZETTE**," first French newspaper of Dr. Renanot. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1631.

**GAZNEVIDES**, or Ghaznevīdes. See GHAZNEVIDES.

**GEARY ACT.** See U. S. A.: 1892: Chinese Exclusion Act.

**GBER** (born c. 830), Arabian alchemist, the "founder of chemistry." See SCIENCE: Ancient: Arabian science.

**GEDDES**, Sir Auckland Campbell (b. 1879), British scientist, surgeon, educator and diplomat. Served in South African War, 1901; in the World War, 1914-1916; minister of national service, 1917; president of local government board, and of reconstruction, 1918; president of the Board of Trade, 1919-1921; ambassador to the United States, 1920.

**GEDDES**, Sir Eric (Campbell) (1876- ), British railway organizer. Was inspector-general of transportation, 1916-1917; first lord of the admiralty, 1917-1918; minister without portfolio, 1919-1922; resigned from Parliament Feb., 1922, to reënter business life. See WORLD WAR: 1917: I. Summary: b, 12; 1918: XI. End of the war: a, 1.

**GEDDES**, James (1763-1838), American engineer, surveyor of the Erie canal. See NEW YORK: 1817-1825.

**GEDDES**, Jenny, reputed Scottish religious fanatic. See SCOTLAND: 1637.

**GEDROSIA**, **GEDROSĪANS**.—"Close to the Indus, and beyond the bare, hot, treeless shores of the ocean, the southern part of the plain [of eastern Iran] consists of sandy flats, in which nothing grows but prickly herbs and a few palms. The springs are a day's journey from each other, and often more. This region was possessed by a people whom Herodotus calls Sattagyde and the companions of Alexander of Macedonia, Gedrosians. . . . Neighbours of the Gandarians, who, as we know, dwelt on the right bank of the Indus down to the Cabul, the Gedrosians led a wandering, predatory life; under the Persian kings they were united into one satrapy with the Gandarians."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 5, bk. 7, ch. 1.—See also BALUCHISTAN: Origin of name; B. C. 325.

**GEFFARD**, Fabre Nicholas (1806-1870), president of Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1804-1880.

**GEIER**, German cruiser interned in 1914 at Honolulu.

**GEIGER**, Lazarus (1829-1870), German philologist. See PHILOLOGY: 3.

- GEIJER, Erik Gustaf** (1783-1847), Swedish historian, poet and composer. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1813-1877.
- GEISA I, or Stephen** (d. 1077), king of Hungary. See HUNGARY: 972-1116.
- Geisa II** (1130-1161), king of Hungary, 1141-1160. See HUNGARY: 1116-1301.
- GEISBERG, Battles of.** See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December); Progress of war, etc.; 1870 (July-August).
- GELA**, ancient town on the southern coast of Sicily.
- Founding of.** See SYRACUSE: B. C. 734.
- GELASIUS I**, bishop of Rome, 492-496.
- Gelasius II** (Giovanni da Gaëta), pope, 1118-1119.
- GELDERLAND, Gelders, or Guelders.** See GUELDERLAND.
- GELÉE, Claude** (pseud. Claude of Lorraine) (1600-1684), French landscape painter; spent a youth of wandering and hardship; from about 1637 rose to fame and prosperity, under the patronage of Pope Urban VIII, working chiefly at Rome.
- GELEONTES**, one of the four Attic tribes in ancient Greece. See PHYLÆ.
- GELHEIM, Battle of** (1298). See GERMANY: 1273-1308.
- GELIMER, or Gelimer** (fl. 530-535), last Vandal king. See VANDALS: 533-534.
- GELLERT, Christian Fürchtegott** (1717-1769), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.
- GELONI**, ancient colony of Greeks intermixed with natives which shared the country of the Budini, on the steppes between the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, v. 3, ch. 17.
- GELVES, Battle of** (1510). See BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510.
- GEMARA**, division of the Talmud proper. See TALMUD.
- GEMBLOURS, Battle of** (1578). See NETHERLANDS: 1577-1581.
- GEMEINDE, GEMEINDERATH**, the basis of legislative division in Switzerland. See SWITZERLAND: 1848-1890.
- GEMMYO**, empress of Japan. See JAPAN: 645-833.
- GEMOT**, meeting, assembly, council, moot. See COURTS: Early Teutonic; WITENAGEMOT.
- GENABUM, or Cenabum**, principal town of the Gallic tribe called the Carnutes; identified by most archæologists with the modern city of Orleans, France, though some think its site was at Gen. See GAUL: B. C. 58-51.
- GENDARMES**: Meaning of the term. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 15.
- GENEALOGICAL TABLES: Anjou, Third House of.** See FRANCE: 1328-1339.
- Bonaparte Family.** See FRANCE: 1804-1805.
- Bourbon, House of.** See FRANCE: 1593-1598.
- Bourbon (Spanish House).** See SPAIN: 1608-1700.
- Burgundy, Dukes of.** See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477.
- Capetians.** See FRANCE: 1593-1598.
- Carolingians.** See FRANCE: 9th century.
- Castile and Aragon, Sovereigns of** (to the union of the crowns). See SPAIN: 1366-1369.
- Denmark, Sovereigns of.** See DENMARK: 1848-1862.
- England: West Saxon kings.** See ENGLAND: 855-880.
- Dukes of Normandy.** See ENGLAND: 855-880.
- William I to George V.** See ENGLAND: 1483-1485.
- France: Carolingians.** See FRANCE: 9th century.
- Third House of Anjou.** See FRANCE: 1328-1339.
- Valois, Bourbons, Capetians.** See FRANCE: 1593-1598.
- Bonaparte Family.** See FRANCE: 1804-1805.
- Germany: Hohenstaufen.** See GERMANY: 1250-1272.
- Hapsburg.** See GERMANY: 1250-1272.
- Hohenzollerns.** See GERMANY: 1871 (January).
- Hanover House, Guelph descent.** See HANOVER.
- Hapsburg, House of.** See GERMANY: 1250-1272.
- Hapsburg and Bourbon sovereigns of Spain.** See SPAIN: 1608-1700.
- Hohenzollern, House of.** See GERMANY: 1871 (January).
- Italy: House of Savoy.** See ITALY: 1862-1866.
- Lorraine, Later House of.** See LORRAINE.
- Medici Family.** See FLORENCE.
- Normandy, Dukes of.** See ENGLAND: 855-880.
- Orange-Nassau, House of.** See NETHERLANDS: 1813.
- Ottoman Turkish sultans.** See TURKEY: 1566-1571.
- Romanoffs.** See RUSSIA: 1533-1682.
- Russia: Romanoffs.** See RUSSIA: 1533-1682.
- Savoy, House of.** See ITALY: 1862-1866.
- Seljuk sultans.** See TURKEY: 1566-1571.
- Spain: Castile and Aragon.** See SPAIN: 1366-1369.
- Hapsburg and Bourbon.** See SPAIN: 1698-1700.
- Sweden: Vasa, House of.** See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.
- Holstein-Gottorp, House of.** See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.
- Bernadotte, House of.** See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.
- Turkey: Ottoman sovereigns.** See TURKEY: 1566-1571.
- Seljuk sultans.** See TURKEY: 1566-1571.
- Valois, House of.** See FRANCE: 1593-1598.
- West Saxon kings.** See ENGLAND: 855-880.
- GENELLI, Giovanni Buonaventura** (1798-1868), German painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).
- "GENELOGIES," of Hecataeus.** See HISTORY: 16.
- GENERAL ARMSTRONG (privateer), Case of.**—During the War of 1812 the United States privateer *General Armstrong* was sunk in the harbor of Fayal, in the Azores. In 1851 the United States and Portugal referred the case for arbitration to the president of the French republic. The case pended until 1852 when the award was made in favor of Portugal.
- GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD.**—"The General Education Board, founded by John D. Rockefeller, began informally when, on the evening of January 15, 1902, a few of those who subsequently became its members met for the purpose of discussing the probable scope and methods of an educational organization, the creation of which Mr. Rockefeller was then contemplating. At a second meeting, held in the following month, . . . Edward M. Shepard submitted articles of association under which the Board began its preliminary operations. Incorporation by Act of Congress took place January 12, 1903. The charter set

forth the general object of the corporation as 'the promotion of education within the United States of America, without distinction of race, sex, or creed'; and this broad object was specifically stated to include the power to establish or endow elementary or primary schools, industrial schools, technical schools, normal schools, training schools for teachers, or schools of any grade, or higher institutions of learning; to cooperate with associations engaged in educational work; to donate property or money to any such association; to collect educational statistics and information, to publish and distribute documents and reports, 'and in general to do and perform all things necessary or convenient for the promotion of the object of the corporation.' Under the authority thus conferred, the entire field of education in the United States—taking the word education in its broadest significance—is open to the General Education Board. The Board can employ its resources in supplementing the income of established institutions of learning; it can cooperate with state and local authorities as well as with private organizations; it can undertake educational experimentation along new and hitherto untried lines, whether at the primary, academic, technical, industrial, or professional level; it can conduct educational research and disseminate educational data."—General Education Board, *General Education Board: An account of its activities, 1902-1914*.—In the first twelve years of its existence the board "moved in two principal directions: education in the South and higher education in the whole United States. In the South much had already been done to aid and improve special educational agencies, but the General Education Board first made a survey of the entire field, and after acquiring a comprehensive knowledge of conditions in the Southern States, it decided that before a system of public schools could be successfully maintained better economic conditions must prevail. . . . Therefore it was decided to undertake the agricultural training of the farmer on the theory that if he could be substantially helped to secure better economic results he would gladly support better schools. This was the origin of the great work of farm demonstrations, in which the General Education Board cooperated with the Government at Washington. The board has expended nearly \$1,000,000 in this work, and it was declared that the results have been not only better farm conditions and increased financial profit, but a social and educational awakening of the rural South. . . . The great educational problem in the South is the rural school problem, and it is that which has been made the center of the General Education Board's attack. There is no doubt whatever that the farm demonstration work has brought about increased provisions for schools, and in those regions where this work has been most successful, vigorous efforts have been made to remedy school deficiencies. Realizing that without high schools the educational system would largely fail of its purpose, the board has, from the beginning, tried to further the building up of good secondary schools. As a result of its policy of providing funds for the several State universities and departments of education for the salaries and traveling expenses of professors of secondary education. . . . North of Mason and Dixon's line the work of the board has been chiefly known in its relation to college and university education. After a survey of the chaotic conditions that prevailed in the field of higher education at the time when it began its work, the board was at length enabled to formulate a definite policy, which the report [of the

board's activities, 1902-1914] states as follows: (1) Preference for centers of wealth and population as the pivots of the system; (2) systematic and helpful cooperation with religious denominations; (3) concentration of gifts in the form of endowment. In the matter of location the board has been governed in its selection for assistance by its preference for those institutions situated within a field where students could be easily procured, where the care of a prosperous community could be counted on, and where an appetite for education and culture could be stimulated, at the same time not passing by older institutions, otherwise located. In the matter of endowment it was tentatively estimated that an efficient college should enjoy an income from endowment covering from 40 to 60 per cent. of its annual expenditure. It was decided that the gifts of the board should be made to endowment, and on such terms as were calculated to draw further funds to the selected institutions."—*American Review of Reviews*, Nov., 1915, pp. 628-629.—Prior to 1921, the board had given \$35,000,000 toward endowments of colleges and universities, and \$14,000,000 for the endowment of schools of medicine, and education in general, or a total of \$49,000,000. All this has been done in cooperation with other funds, and with state and district school authorities, so as to expend the money for the greatest benefit.

ALSO IN: V. Hendricks, *Handbook of social resources of United States*, p. 136.

In 1921 a million dollars were given toward the combined medical school and hospital which was being constructed by Columbia University and the Presbyterian Hospital in New York; \$1,000,000 to aid medical instruction in various universities in Canada; \$3,500,000 towards a new medical laboratory and hospital in Brussels; \$50,000 to purchase apparatus and supplies needed by five universities in central Europe. In the same year all restrictions on the fund were removed, so as to enable the trustees to deal with principal as well as income; and it was announced that 33 per cent. of the principal had already been applied for educational purposes. Attacks were made on the foundation in the New York legislature in 1922 and a bill to dissolve it and end its influence in state educational policies was introduced into the state legislature in January. This was in pursuance of a demand made by the State Federation of Labor, which declared that moneyed interests were seeking to control the educational systems.

**GENERAL SLOCUM**, excursion steamer, burned in East River with great loss of life, June 15, 1904. See NEW YORK CITY: 1904 (June).

**GENERAL STAFF**: Its development in military organization. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 19.

**GENERAL STAFF ACT**, United States (1903). See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 19; United States.

**GENÊT**, or Genest, Edmond Charles Édouard (1765-1834), known as Citizen Genêt. French diplomatist and first minister to the United States. He tried to induce the United States to declare war against Great Britain and to raise a volunteer army to recover Louisiana from Spain as well as to commission privateers. Although enthusiastically received at first, he failed in his attempts. Attached to the Girondists in Paris, their fall prevented his return, and he became a United States citizen, settling in New York.—See also U. S. A.: 1793: Popular sympathy with French Revolution; NEUTRALITY, DEVELOPMENT OF.

**GENETES**, or Genetours, Spanish cavalry. See SPAIN: 1366-1369.

**GENEVA** (French *Geneve*, German *Genf*, Italian *Ginevra*), city capital of the canton Geneva, Switzerland, situated at the southwest extremity of Lake Geneva at the outlet of the river Rhone which divides the city. In 1920 the estimated population was 55,738.—See also **CIVIC BEAUTY**.

**Industries.**—“Geneva may be said to lead the industry of *la Suisse romande*. Geneva’s specialty lies in the manufacture of musical-boxes, jewellery, and watches, with which must be included time-pieces. For some two hundred years, or more, the ancient city has been engaged in the making of watches, and though its business has of late years been considerably injured by American and English competition, it still does a considerable trade in that department, employing a large number of men. In Geneva the art of the jeweller is closely allied with that of the watchmaker, the Geneva watch, *par excellence*, being a highly finished and exquisitely decorated piece of workmanship, a jewel first, as one might say, and a timekeeper afterwards. It is an education in art to spend half a day in the streets of Geneva, studying the beautiful things, the manufacture of the city, that are displayed in the windows of its shops. Only after doing so, and perhaps visiting one of its many workshops, is one in a position to understand the superior quality of artisan everywhere to be met with in this city built on the ‘Rock of Predestination,’ as Michelet wittily puts it. Not all its workmen, however, are employed in the shops, many of the best working in their own homes, and showing fine traits of independence.”—A. T. Story, *Swiss life in town and country*, p. 97.

**Beginnings of the city.** See **HELVETII**.

**500.**—Under the Burgundians. See **BURGUNDY**: 500.

**10th century.**—In the kingdom of Arles. See **BURGUNDY**: 843-933.

**1401.**—Acquisition of the Genevois, or county, by the house of Savoy.—City surrounded. See **SAVOY** and **PIEDMONT**: 11th-15th centuries.

**1504-1535.**—Emancipation of the city from the Vidomme and the prince-bishop.—Triumph of the Reformation.—“Geneva was nominally a free city of the Empire, but had in reality been governed for some centuries by its own bishop, associated with a committee of lay-assessors, and controlled by the general body of the citizens, in whose hands the ultimate power of taxation, and of election of the magistrates and regulation of the police, rested. The prince-bishop did not exercise his temporal jurisdiction directly, but through an officer called the Vidomme (*vice-dominus*), whose rights had in the 15th century become hereditary in the dukes of Savoy. These rights appear to have been exercised without any considerable attempt at encroachment till the beginning of the following century, when Charles III. succeeded to the ducal crown (1504). To his ambition the bishop, John, a weak and willing tool of the Savoy family, to which he was nearly allied, ceded everything; and the result was a tyrannical attempt to destroy the liberties of the Genevese. The Assembly of the citizens rose in arms; a bitter and sanguinary contest ensued between the Eidgenossen [Confederates] or Patriot party on the one side, and the Mamelukes or monarchical party on the other side. By the help of the free Helvetic states, particularly Berne and Freiburg, the Patriots triumphed, the friends of Savoy were banished, the Vidomme abolished, and its powers transferred to a board of magistrates. The conduct of the bishops in this conflict . . . helped greatly, as may be imagined, to shake the old hierarchical authority in Geneva; and when, in

1532, Farel first made his appearance in the city, he found a party not indisposed to join him in his eager and zealous projects of reform. He had a hard fight for it, however, and was at first obliged to yield, and leave the city for a time; and it was not till August, 1535, that he and Viret and Froment succeeded in abolishing the mass, and establishing the Protestant faith.”—J. Tulloch, *Leaders of the Reformation*, pp. 161-162.—See also **SWITZERLAND**: 1531-1648.

ALSO IN: J. Planta, *History of the Helvetic confederacy*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 6.—I. Spon, *History of the city and state of Geneva*, bk. 2.

**1536.**—Coming of Calvin. See **PAPACY**: 1521-1535.

**1536-1564.**—Calvin’s ecclesiastical state.—“Humanly speaking, it was a mere accident which caused Calvin to yield to the entreaties of his friends to remain in the city where he was to begin his renowned efforts in the cause of reform. Geneva had been from ancient times one of the most flourishing imperial cities of the Burgundian territory; it was situated on the frontiers of several countries where the cross roads of various nationalities met. The city, which in itself was remarkable, belonged originally to the German empire; the language of its inhabitants was Romanic; it was bounded on one side by Burgundy, on the other by German Switzerland. . . . Geneva was apparently in a state of political, ecclesiastical, and moral decay. With the puritanical strictness of Geneva, as it afterwards became, before the mind’s eye, it is difficult to picture the Geneva of that day. An unbridled love of pleasure, a reckless wantonness, a licentious frivolity had taken possession of Genevan life, while the State was the plaything of intestine and foreign feuds. . . . Reformers had already appeared in the city: Vinet, Farel, Theodore Beza; they were Frenchmen, Farel a near neighbour of Geneva. These French Reformers are of quite a different stamp from our Germans, who, according as Luther or Melancthon is taken as their type, have either a plebeian popular, or learned theological character. They are either popular orators of great power and little polish, or they belong to the learned circles, and keep strictly to this character. In France they were mostly men belonging not to the lower, but to the middle and higher ranks of society, refined and cultivated; and in this fact lay the weakness of Calvinism, which knew well how to rule the masses, but never to gain their affection. . . . His [Calvin’s] greatness . . . was shown in the fanatical zeal with which he entered the city, ready to stake his life for his cause. He began to teach, to found a school, to labour on the structure which was the idea of his life, to introduce reforms in doctrine, worship, the constitution and discipline of the Church, and he preached with that powerful eloquence only possessed by those in whom character and teaching are in unison. The purified worship was to take place within bare, unadorned walls; no picture of Christ, nor pomp of any kind, was to disturb the aspirations of the soul. Life outside the temple was also to be a service of God; games, swearing, dancing, singing, worldly amusements, and pleasure were regarded by him as sins, as much as real vice and crime. He began to form little congregations, like those in the early ages of the Church, and it need scarcely be said that even in this worldly and pleasure-loving city the apparition of this man, in the full vigour of life, all conviction and determination, half prophet and half tribune, produced a powerful impression. The number of his outward followers increased, but they were out-



ward followers only. Most of them thought it would be well to make use of the bold Reformer to oppose the bishop, and that he would find means of establishing a new and independent Church, but they seemed to regard freedom as libertinism. Calvin therefore regarded the course things were taking with profound dissatisfaction. . . . So he delivered some extremely severe sermons, which half frightened and half estranged his hearers; and at Easter, 1538, when the congregation came to partake of the Lord's Supper, he took the unheard-of step of sending them all back from the altar, saying, 'You are not worthy to partake of the Lord's body; you are just what you were before; your sentiments, your morals, and your conduct are unchanged.' This was more than could be hazarded without peril to his life. The effect was indescribable; his own friends disapproved of the step. But that did not dismay him. He had barely time to flee for his life, and he had to leave Geneva in a state of transition—a chaos which justified a saying of his own, that defection from one Church is not renovation by another. He was now once more an exile. He wandered about on the frontiers of his country, in the German cities of Strasburg, Basle, &c., and we several times meet with him in the religious discussions between 1540 and 1550. . . . But a time came when they wished him back at Geneva. . . . In September, 1541, he returned and began his celebrated labours. Endowed with supreme power, like Lycurgus at Sparta, he set to work to make Geneva a city of the Lord—to found an ecclesiastical state in which religion, public life, government, and the worship of God were to be all of a piece, and an extraordinary task it was. Calvinistic Geneva became the school of reform for western Europe, and scattered far and wide the germs of similar institutions. In times when Protestantism elsewhere had become cool, this school carried on the conflict with the mediæval Church. Calvin was implacable in his determination to purify the worship of God of all needless adjuncts. All that was calculated to charm and affect the senses was abolished; spiritual worship should be independent of all earthly things, and should consist of edification by the word, and simple spiritual songs. All the traditional externals that Luther had retained—altars, pictures, ceremonials, and decorations of every kind—were dispensed with. . . . Calvin next established a system of Church discipline which controlled the individual in every relation of life, and ruled him from the cradle to the grave. He retained all the means by which ecclesiastical authority enforced obedience on the faithful in the Middle Ages—baptism, education up to confirmation, penance, penal discipline, and excommunication. . . . Calvin began his labours late in the autumn of 1541, and he acquired and maintained more power than was ever exercised by the most powerful popes. He was indeed only the 'preacher of the word,' but through his great influence he was the lawgiver, the administrator, the dictator of the State of Geneva. There was nothing in the commonwealth that had not been ordained by him, and this indicates a remarkable aspect of his character. The organization of the State of Geneva began with the ordinances of the 2nd of January, 1542. There were four orders of officials—pastors, teachers, elders, and deacons. The Consistory was formed of the pastors and elders. . . . It was the special duty of the Consistory, which was composed of the clergy and twelve laymen, to see that the ordinances were duly observed, and it was the supreme tribunal of morals. The twelve laymen were elected for a year, by the council of

two hundred, on the nomination by the clergy. The Consistory met every Thursday to see that everything in the church was in order. They had the power of excommunication, but this only consisted in exclusion from the community of the faithful, and the loss of the privilege of partaking of the Lord's Supper. It also decided questions relating to marriage. The deacons had the care of the poor and of almsgiving. Calvin himself was the soul of the whole organization. But he was a cold, stiff, almost gloomy being, and his character produces a very different impression from the genial warmth of Luther, who could be cheerful and merry with his family. Half Old Testament prophet, half Republican demagogue, Calvin could do anything in his State, but it was by means of his personal influence, the authority of his words, 'the majesty of his character,' as was said by a magistrate of Geneva after his death. He was to the last the simple minister, whose frugal mode of life appeared to his enemies like niggardliness. After a reign of twenty-three years, he left behind him the possessions of a mendicant monk. . . . No other reformer established so rigid a church discipline. . . . All noisy games, games of chance, dancing, singing of profane songs, cursing and swearing, were forbidden, and. . . church-going and Sabbath-keeping were strictly enjoined. The moral police took account of everything. Every citizen had to be at home by nine o'clock, under heavy penalties. Adultery, which had previously been punished by a few days' imprisonment and a small fine, was now punished by death. . . . At a time when Europe had no solid results of reform to show, this little State of Geneva stood up as a great power; year by year it sent forth apostles into the world, who preached its doctrines everywhere, and it became the most dreaded counterpoise to Rome, when Rome no longer had any bulwark to defend her. . . . It formed a weighty counterpoise to the desperate efforts which the ancient Church and monarchical power were making to crush the spirit of the Reformation. It was impossible to oppose Caraffa, Philip II., and the Stuarts, with Luther's passive resistance; men were wanted who were ready to wage war to the knife, and such was the Calvinistic school. It everywhere accepted the challenge; throughout all the conflicts for political and religious liberty, up to the time of the first emigration to America, in France, the Netherlands, England, and Scotland, we recognise the Genevan school. A little bit of the world's history was enacted in Geneva, which forms the proudest portion of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries."—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 18.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Calvin; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers.

ALSO IN: P. Henry, *Life and times of Calvin*, pt. 2-3.—J. H. M. D'Aubigne, *History of the Reformation in the time of Calvin*, bk. 9, 11.—F. P. Guizot, *Calvin*, ch. 12-22.—L. von Ranke, *Civil wars and monarchy in France, 16th-17th centuries*, ch. 8.

1570.—Treaty with the duke of Savoy.—Agreement of non-molestation. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 1559-1580.

1602-1603.—Escalade of the Savoyards and its repulse.—Treaty of St. Julien.—Finding a pretext in some hostile manifestations which had appeared among the Genevese during a conflict between the French king and himself, Charles Emanuel I, duke of Savoy, chose to consider himself at war with Geneva, and "determined to fight out his quarrel without further notice. The night of the 11th to the 12th of December, 1602, is

forever memorable in the annals of Geneva. 4,000 Savoyards, aided by darkness, attempted the escalade of its walls; an unforeseen accident disconcerted them; the citizens exhibited the most heroic presence of mind; the ladders by which the aggressors ascended were shot down by a random cannon-ball; the troops outside fell into confusion; those who had already entered the town were either mowed down in fight or hung on the scaffold on the morrow; thus the whole enterprise miscarried. It was in vain that the Duke came forward with his whole host, and tried to prevail by open force where stratagem had failed. He was thwarted by the intervention of the French and Swiss, and compelled by their threats to sign the Treaty of St. Julien (July 21st, 1603), which secured the independence of the Genevese. Charles nevertheless did not, to his last day, give up his designs upon that city."—A. Gallenga, *History of Piedmont*, v. 3, ch. 2.

1738.—Struggle for democracy.—Constitution.—"At Geneva the power of legislation belonged to the whole body of citizens on the general Council. No discussion was permitted, and the votes were taken individually and orally by the officials deputed to record them. The aristocracy of Geneva labored unceasingly to restrict this privilege, which intrepid citizens defended with a passion which in 1707 cost a lawyer, named Fatio, and a number of others their lives. One of the upholders of the rights of the people, Jacques Barthélemy Micheli, was degraded from the nobility and deprived of all his property. He was condemned to death, but his life was spared and he remained for eighteen years a prisoner in the hands of the oligarchy of Bern. Micheli was one of the bar-bingers of modern Swiss democracy. He urged the adoption of the popular initiative and desired that the people should enjoy facilities for expressing approval or disapproval of the decisions of the Council. These efforts were not in vain. In 1738, through the mediation of France, Zürich and Bern, the people of Geneva received a constitution which restored to the general council the power of legislation, that is, the power to accept or reject proposals for new laws or amendments to existing laws."—F. Bonjour, *Real democracy in operation*, pp. 27-28.

1798.—Forcibly united to the French republic. See SWITZERLAND: 1792-1798.

1814.—United with the Swiss Confederation. See SWITZERLAND: 1803-1848.

1815.—United as a canton to the Swiss Confederation, by the Congress of Vienna. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1864.—Convention for the amelioration of the condition of the sick and wounded in war. See GENEVA CONVENTIONS; RED CROSS: Character and aim.

1914-1918.—Effect of World War.—During the World War refugees from the countries at war flocked to Geneva and the government undertook, under contract price, the feeding and housing of thousands of interned soldiers.

1914-1918.—Headquarters of International Committee of the Red Cross. See SWITZERLAND: 1914-1918.

1920.—Seat of the League of Nations.—Article 7 of the Covenant of the League of Nations reads: "The seat of the League is established at Geneva. The Council may at any time decide that the seat of the League shall be established elsewhere." On November 15, 1920, the first meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations was held at Geneva. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: First meeting of the Assembly.

1920.—Congress of Second International. See INTERNATIONAL: 1920.

1920.—Meeting of the League of Red Cross Societies. See RED CROSS: 1919-1920: International activities.

1920 (December).—Signing of protocol outlining plan for establishing Court of International Justice. See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

1921.—Conference of the Assembly of the League of Nations.—The Assembly of the League of Nations held its second plenary conference at Geneva, from September 5 until October 6, 1921.

See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Second meeting of Assembly.

GENEVA, Libertines of. See LIBERTINES OF GENEVA.

GENEVA BIBLE. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 16th-18th centuries.

GENEVA CONFESSION. See SCOTLAND: 1558-1560.

GENEVA CONVENTIONS: Summary of provisions.—Adhesions and revisions.—The first convention of Geneva was formulated in 1864 by the representatives of twelve European states. The provisions of it were not new, but were declarative of the best existing usage; they were, in fact, partly based on Lieber's "Regulations" for the American army, published the preceding year.

"1. Ambulances and military hospitals to be neutral. Neutrality to cease if held by a military force. 2. Persons employed in hospitals and ambulances to participate in neutrality. 3. Neutrality to continue to persons fulfilling duties in hospitals, etc., occupied by the enemy. Persons ceasing their functions to be delivered to outposts of the enemy. 4. Private property in military hospitals only can be carried away. Ambulance to retain its equipment. 5. Persons assisting the wounded to be respected. Houses containing wounded men to be protected. Privileges to inhabitants entertaining wounded men. 6. Care to be taken of wounded or sick men. Delivery of wounded to outposts of the enemy. Wounded, if capable of serving, to be sent to their country. Wounded or sick cured to be sent back on condition of not bearing arms. Evacuations to enjoy absolute neutrality. 7. Distinctive flag for hospitals, etc. Arm-badge to be worn by neutralized individuals. Colour of flag and arm-badge. 8. Details of execution. 9. Governments to be invited to accede to convention. 10. Ratifications."—*Hertslet's map of Europe by treaty*, v. 3, p. 1621.—"The convention was signed by the representatives of twelve powers, and in less than four years all Europe and most of the States of America had accepted it. . . . Some additional articles extending its provisions to maritime warfare were added in 1868, although they did not become binding because of lack of unanimity in their ratification. Nevertheless they were observed by the belligerents during the Franco-German war of 1870-1871 and during the Spanish-American war of 1898; and in 1899 they received the approval of the First Hague Conference, which extended its provisions to maritime warfare. In 1906 the convention was revised and improved by a conference at Geneva representing more than thirty States, and it has been accepted by practically all the States of the world."—J. W. Garner, *International law and the World War*, v. 1, pp. 13-14.—See also RED CROSS: Character and aim; HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909.

GENEVA TRIBUNAL OF ARBITRATION. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1871; 1871-1872.

**GENEVAN REFORMERS:** Calvin. See EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers; GENEVA: 1536-1564.

**GENEVOIS**, county of Geneva, which, from the eleventh to the fifteenth centuries, the counts of Savoy struggled to possess. See SAVOY AND PIEMONT: 11th-15th centuries.

**GENGHIS KHAN.** See JENGHIZ-KHAN.

**GENOA**, city of northern Italy, on the west coast, at the head of the wide bay formed by the turn of the coast, called the gulf of Genoa. It is the capital of the province of Genoa which is situated in Liguria. In 1915 it had a population of 300,139. The harbor of Genoa, which made it the trade center that it was in ancient times, makes the city one of the great ports of Italy, second only to Naples. Its greater growth is somewhat hampered by the congested traffic and the difficulties in the way of increasing facilities for docking. In 1919 the number of vessels that entered the port of Genoa was 3,043, while 3,054 leared from that point. Just outside the city is the famous Ausaldo factory, which, during the World War, turned out super-dreadnoughts, motors, guns, and destroyers.

**Origin and rise of the city.**—"Genoa, anciently Genua, was the chief maritime city of Liguria, and afterwards a Roman municipium. Under the Lombards the constant invasions of the Saracens united the professions of trade and war, and its greatest merchants became also its greatest generals, while its naval captains were also merchants. The Crusades were of great advantage to Genoa [see CRUSADES: 1104-1111] in enabling it to establish trading settlements as far as the Black Sea; but the power of Pisa in the East, as well as its possession of Corsica and Sardinia, led to wars between it and Genoa, in which the Genoese took Corsica [see CORSICA: Early history] and drove the Pisans out of Sardinia. By land the Genoese territory was extended to Nice on one side and to Spezia on the other."—A. J. C. Hare, *Cities of northern and central Italy*, v. 1, p. 30.—See also CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands.

**11th-15th centuries.**—Development of commerce and industry.—Money and banking. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 11th-16th centuries; MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 12th-17th centuries; GENOA; DANUBE: B. C. 5th-A. D. 15th centuries.

**13th-15th centuries.**—Genoese explorations in Africa. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Beginnings.

**1256-1257.**—Battles with the Venetians at Acre. See VENICE: 1256-1258.

**1261-1299.**—Supplanting of Venice at Constantinople and in the Black sea trade.—Colonies in the Crimea.—Wars with Venice.—Victory at Curzola and favorable treaty of peace.—"During the Latin dynasty in Constantinople the Genoese never gained the first place in the commerce of the Black Sea. . . . It was Venice who held the key of all this commerce, at Constantinople; when, after diverting the whole course of the fourth Crusade, she induced Christendom to waste its energies on subduing the Greek empire for her benefit [see BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1203-1204]. With the exiled Greek dynasty, however, the Genoese were always on the best of terms, at Thebizond, Nicea, and in Roumania; and recognizing that as long as the Latins were all-powerful in Constantinople she would have to relinquish the cream of the Black Sea commerce to the Queen of the Adriatic, she at length determined to strike a bold stroke and replace a Greek again on the throne." This was accomplished in 1261, when Baldwin II fled from the Byzantine capital and Michael Paleo-

logus took possession of his throne and crown (see NICEA: 1204-1261). For the assistance given in that revolution, the Genoese obtained the treaty of Ninfco, "which firmly established their influence in the Black Sea. . . . Thus did the brave mariner-town of Genoa turn the scale of the vast, but rotten, Eastern Empire; and her reward was manifold. The grateful emperor gave her streets and quays in Constantinople, immunity from tribute, and a free passage for her commerce. . . . In addition to these excellent terms in the treaty of Ninfco, the emperor conceded to various Genoese private families numerous islands in the Archipelago. . . . But the great nucleus of this power was the streets, churches, and quays in Constantinople which were allotted to the Genoese, and formed a vast emporium of strength and commerce, which must have eventually led to entire possession of Constantinople, had not the 'podestà,' or ruler of the Genoese colony there, thought fit, from personal motives, or from large offers made him by the Venetians, to attempt a restoration of the Latin line. . . . His conspiracy was discovered, and the Genoese were sent away in a body to Eraclea. However, on representation from home that it was none of their doing, and that Guercio had been acting entirely on his own account, the emperor yielded in perpetuity to the Genoese the town of Pera, on the sole condition that the governors should do him homage [see also CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453]. . . . Thus were the Genoese established in this commanding position; here they had a separate government of their own, from here they ruled the road of commerce from China to Europe; and, taking advantage of the weakness of the emperors, they were able to do much as they wished about building fortresses and palaces, with gardens to the water's edge; and thus from Pera, with its citadel of Galata behind it, they were enabled to dictate what terms they pleased to ships passing to and from the Bosphorus." In the Black sea, "from time immemorial, the small tongue of land now known as the Crimea, then as the Tauric Chersonese, was the mart towards which all the caravan trade of Asia was directed by this northern road, and upon this tongue of land sprang up a group of noble cities which, until finally seized by the Turks, were without exception Genoese property. Of these, Caffa was the chief. When this city was built on the ruins of Theodosia, and by whom, is somewhat shrouded in mystery. Certain it is that Genoa had a colony here soon after the first Crusade. . . . Second only to Caffa in importance, and better known to us by name, was the town of Crim, which gave its name eventually to the whole peninsula, which originally it had got from the Crim Tatars. . . . Prior to its cession to the Genoese, it had been the residence of a Tatar emperor. . . . Here, then, in this narrow tongue of land, which we now call the Crimea, was the kernel of Genoese prosperity. As long as she flourished here she flourished at home. And when at length the Turkish scourge swept over this peninsula and swallowed up her colonies, the Ligurian Republic, by a process of slow decay, withered like a sapless tree." The supplanting of the Venetians at Constantinople by the Genoese, and the great advantages gained by the latter in the commerce of the Black sea, led necessarily to war between the rival republics. "To maintain her newly acquired influence in the East, Genoa sent forth a fleet under the joint command of Pierino Grimaldi, a noble, and Perchelto Mallone, the people's representative. They encountered the Venetian squadron at Malvasia [1263] which was greatly inferior to

their own. But as the combatants were just warming to their work, Mallone, actuated by party spirit, withdrew his ships and sailed away. The Venetians could scarcely believe what they saw; they anticipated some deep laid stratagem, and withdrew for a while from the contest. When however they beheld Mallone's galleys fairly under sail, they wonderingly attacked Grimaldi and his 13 ships and obtained an easy victory. Grimaldi fell at his post. . . . This fatal day of Malvasia [sometimes called the battle of Sette Pozzi] might easily have secured Venice her lost place in the Black Sea had she been able to follow up her victory, but with inexplicable want of vigour she remained inactive." Genoa, meantime, recovered from the disaster and sent out another fleet which captured a rich squadron of Venetian merchant ships in the Adriatic, taking large booty. "It surprises us immensely to find how for the next thirty years Genoa was able to keep up a desultory warfare with Venice, when she was at the height of her struggle with Pisa; and it surprises us still more that Venice raised not a hand to assist Pisa, though she was on most friendly terms with her, and when by so doing she could have ruined Genoa. . . . After the fall of Pisa at Meloria, in 1296 [1284], Genoa could transfer her attention with all the greater vigour to her contest against Venice. Four years after this victory men's minds were again bent on war. Venice cared not to pay a tax to her rival on all ships which went to Caffa, Genoa resented the treatment she had received in Cyprus, and thus the rivals prepared for another and more determined contest for supremacy." The Venetians sent a fleet to operate in the Black sea. "Fire was set to the houses of Galata, irreparable damage was done to Caffa, and in the Archipelago everything Genoese was burnt, and then off they sailed for Cyprus, whilst the Genoese were squabbling amongst themselves. With much trouble the many rulers of Genoa succeeded at length in adjusting their difference, and a goodly array of 76 galleys was entrusted to the care of Lamba D'Oria to punish the Venetians for their depredations. . . . Much larger was the force Venice produced for the contest, and when the combatants met off Curzola, amongst the Dalmatian islands, the Genoese were anxious to come to terms, and sought them, but the Venetians haughtily refused. . . . This battle of Curzola [September 8, 1298] was a sharp and vehement struggle, and resulted in terrible loss to the Venetians, four of whose galleys alone escaped to tell the tale. . . . Had Lamba D'Oria but driven the contest home, Venice was ill-prepared to meet him; as it was, he determined to sail off to Genoa, taking with him the Venetian admiral . . . Dandolo. . . . The natural result of such a victory was a most favourable peace for Genoa, signed under the direction of Matteo Visconti, lord of Milan, in 1299; and thus the century closed on Genoa as without doubt the most powerful state in Italy, and unquestionably the mistress of the Mediterranean. . . . The next outbreak of war between the two Republics had its origin in the occupation of the island of Chios, in 1349," and Genoa in that struggle encountered not the Venetians alone, but the Greeks and Catalans in alliance with them (see CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1355).—J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 6, 8.—See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 11th-16th centuries.

ALSO IN: W. C. Hazlitt, *History of the Venetian republic*, v. 2, ch. 11.

1282-1290.—War with Pisa.—Great victory of Meloria.—Capture of the chain of the Pisan harbor. See PISA: 1063-1293.

1313.—Alliance with the emperor Henry VII

against Naples. See ITALY: 1310-1313: Visitation of the emperor.

1318-1319.—Feuds of the four great families.—Siege of the city by the exiles and the Lombard princes, and its defense by the king of Naples. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1348-1355.—War with the Greeks, Venetians and Aragonese. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1355.

1353.—Annexed by the Visconti to their Milanese principality. See MILAN: 1277-1447.

1378-1379.—Renewed war with Venice.—Victory at Pola. See VENICE: 1378-1379.

1379-1381.—Disastrous war of Chioggia.—Venice triumphant. See VENICE: 1379-1381.

1381-1422.—Succession of foreign masters: King of France, the marquis of Montferrat and the duke of Milan.—The history of Genoa for more than a century after the disastrous War of Chioggia "is one long and melancholy tissue of internal and external troubles, coming faster and faster upon one another as the inherent vitality of the Republic grew weaker. . . . During this period we have a constant and unhealthy craving for foreign masters, be they Marquises of Monferrato, Dukes of Milan, or the more formidable subverters of freedom, the kings of France. . . . In 1396 . . . Adorno [then doge of Genoa], finding himself unable to tyrannize as he wished, decided on handing over the government to Charles VI. of France. In this he was ably backed up by many members of the old nobility, as the signatures to the treaty testify. The king was to be entitled 'Defender of the Commune and People,' and was to respect in every way the existing order of things. So on the 27th of November, in that year, the great bell in the tower of the ducal palace was rung, the French standard was raised by the side of the red cross of Genoa, and in the great council hall, where her rulers had sat for centuries, now sat enthroned the French ambassadors, whilst Antoniotto Adorno handed over to them the sceptre and keys of the city. These symbols of government were graciously restored to him, with the admonition that he should no longer be styled 'doge,' but 'governor' in the name of France. Thus did Adorno sell his country for the love of power, preferring to be the head of many slaves, rather than to live as a subordinate in a free community. The first two governors sent by France after Adorno's death were unable to cope with the seething mass of corruption they found within the city walls, until the Marshal Boucicault was sent, whose name was far famed for cruelty in Spain against the Moors, in Bulgaria against the Turks, and in France against the rebels." The government of Boucicault was hard and cruel, and "his name is handed down by the Genoese as the most hateful of her many tyrants." In 1409 they took advantage of his absence from the city to bring in the marquis of Monferrato, who established himself in his place. "It was but for a brief period that the Genoese submitted to the Marquis of Monferrato; they preferred to return to their doges and internal quarrels. . . . Throughout the city nothing was heard but the din of arms. Brother fought against brother, father against son, and for the whole of an unusually chill December, in 1414, there was not a by-path in Genoa which was not paved with lances, battle-axes and dead bodies. . . . Out of this fiery trial Genoa at length emerged with Tommaso Campofregoso as her doge, one of the few bright lights which illumined Liguria during the early part of this century. . . . The Genoese arms during this time of quiescence again shone forth with something of their ancient brilliancy. Cor-

sica was subdued, and a substantial league was formed with Henry V. of England, . . . 1421, by which perpetual friendship and peace by land and sea was sworn. Short, however, was the period during which Genoa could rest contented at home. Campofregoso was driven from the dogeship, and Filippo Maria, Visconti of Milan, was appointed protector of the Republic [1422], and through this allegiance the Genoese were drawn into an unprofitable war for the succession in Naples, in which the Duke of Milan and the Pope supported the claims of Queen Joanna and her adopted son, Louis of Anjou, against Alphonso of Aragon."—J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 9.—*Universal history*, v. 25, ch. 73, sect. 3-4.

1385-1386.—Residence of Pope Urban VI. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1380.

1407-1448.—Bank of St. George.—"The Bank of St. George was founded in Genoa in the year 1407. It was an immense success and a great support to the government. It gradually became a republic within the republic, more peaceful and better regulated than its mistress." In 1448 the administration of Corsica and of the Genoese colonies in the Levant was transferred to the bank, which thenceforward appointed governors and conducted colonial affairs.—G. B. Malleson, *Studies from Genoese history*, p. 75.—See also CORICA: Early history.

ALSO IN: J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 11.

1421-1435.—Submission to the duke of Milan, and recovery of the freedom of the city. See ITALY: 1412-1447.

1458-1464.—Renewed struggles of domestic faction and changes of foreign masters.—Submission to the dukes of Milan.—"Genoa, wearied with internal convulsions, which followed each other incessantly, had lost all influence over the rest of Italy; continually oppressed by faction, it no longer preserved even the recollection of liberty. In 1458, it had submitted to the king of France, then Charles VII.; and John of Anjou, duke of Calabria, had come to exercise the functions of governor in the king's name. He made it, at the same time, his fortress, from whence to attack the kingdom of Naples [see ITALY: 1447-1480]. But this war had worn out the patience of the Genoese; they rose against the French; and, on the 17th of July, 1461, destroyed the army sent to subdue them by René of Anjou. The Genoese had no sooner thrown off a foreign yoke than they became divided into two factions,—the Adorni and the Fregosi [severally partisans of two families of that name which contended for the control of the republic]: both had at different times, and more than once, given them a doge. The more violent and tyrannical of these factious magistrates was Paolo Fregoso, also archbishop of Genoa, who had returned to his country, in 1462, as chief of banditti; and left it again, two years afterwards, as chief of a band of pirates. The Genoese, disgusted with their independence, which was disgraced by so many crimes and disturbances, had, on the 13th of April, 1464, yielded to Francesco Sforza, duke of Milan; and afterwards remained subject to his son Galeazzo."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: B. Duffy, *Tuscan republics*, ch. 23.

1475.—Loss of possessions in the Crimea. See TURKEY: 1451-1481.

1500-1507.—Capitulation to Louis XII of France, conqueror of Milan.—Revolt and subjugation.—By the conquest of Milan (see ITALY: 1499-1500), Louis XII. of France acquired the signoria of Genoa, which had been held by the deposed duke, Ludovico Sforza. "According to

the capitulation, one half of the magistrates of Genoa should be noble, the other half plebeian. They were to be chosen by the suffrages of their fellow-citizens; they were to retain the government of the whole of Liguria, and the administration of their own finances, with the reservation of a fixed sum payable yearly to the king of France. But the French could never comprehend that nobles were on an equality with villains; that a king was bound by conditions imposed by his subjects; or that money could be refused to him who had force. All the capitulations of Genoa were successively violated; while the Genoese nobles ranged themselves on the side of a king against their country: they were known to carry insolently about them a dagger, on which was inscribed, 'Chastise villains'; so impatient were they to separate themselves from the people, even by meanness and assassination. That people could not support the double yoke of a foreign master and of nobles who betrayed their country. On the 7th of February, 1507, they revolted, drove out the French, proclaimed the republic, and named a new doge; but time failed them to organize their defence. On the 3rd of April, Louis advanced from Grenoble with a powerful army. He soon arrived before Genoa: the newly-raised militia, unable to withstand veteran troops, were defeated. Louis entered Genoa on the 20th of April; and immediately sent the doge and the greater number of the generous citizens, who had signalized themselves in the defence of their country, to the scaffold."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics*, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Latin and Teutonic nations from 1494 to 1514*, p. 260.

1527-1528.—French dominion momentarily restored and then overthrown by Andrew Doria.—Republic revived. See ITALY: 1527-1520.

1528-1559.—Conspiracy of Fiesco and its failure.—Revolt and recovery of Corsica.—"Sustained by the ability of Doria, and protected by the arms of Charles V., the Republic, during near nineteen years subsequent to this auspicious revolution, continued in the enjoyment of dignified independence and repose. But, the memorable conspiracy of Louis Fiesco, Count of Lavagna, the Catiline of Liguria, had nearly subverted Genoa, and reduced it anew to the obedience of France, or exposed it once more to all the misfortunes of anarchy. The massacre of Doria and his family constituted one of the primary objects of the plot; while the dissimulation, intrepidity, and capacity, which marked its leader . . . have rendered the attempt one of the most extraordinary related in modern history. It was accompanied with complete success till the moment of its termination. Jeannetin Doria, the heir of that house, having perished by the dagger, and Andrew, his uncle, being with difficulty saved by his servants, who transported him out of the city, the Genoese Senate was about to submit unconditionally to Fiesco, when that nobleman, by a sudden and accidental death, at once rendered abortive his own hopes and those of his followers. The government, resuming courage, expelled the surviving conspirators; and Doria, on his return to the city, sullied the lustre of his high character, by proceeding to acts of cruelty against the brothers and adherents of the Count of Lavagna. Notwithstanding this culpable and vindictive excess, he continued invariably firm to the political principles which he had inculcated, for maintaining the freedom of the Commonwealth. Philip, Prince of Spain, son of Charles V., having visited Genoa in the succeeding year, attempted to induce the sen-

ate, under specious pretences of securing their safety, to consent to the construction of a citadel, garrisoned by Spaniards. But he found in that assembly, as well as in Doria, an insurmountable opposition to the measure, which was rejected with unanimous indignation. The island of Corsica, which had been subjected for ages to Genoa, and which was oppressed by a tyrannical administration, took up arms at this period [1558-1559]; and the French having aided the insurgents, they maintained a long and successful struggle against their oppressors. But the peace concluded at Cateau between Philip, King of Spain, and Henry II., in which the Spanish court dictated terms to France, obliged that nation to evacuate their Corsican acquisitions, and to restore the island to the Genoese [see FRANCE: 1547-1559]. Soon afterwards [1559], at the very advanced age of ninety, Andrew Doria expired in his own palace, surrounded by the people on whom he had conferred freedom and tranquillity; leaving the Commonwealth in domestic repose and undisturbed by foreign war."—N. W. Wraxall, *History of France*, v. 2, pp. 43-44.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleon, *Studies from Genoese history*, ch. 1-3.

1625-1626.—Unsuccessful attack by France and Savoy. See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

1715.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1715.

1745.—Republic sides with Spain and France in the War of the Austrian Succession. See ITALY: 1745.

1746-1747.—Surrendered to the Austrians.—Popular rising.—Expulsion of the Austrian garrison.—Long siege and deliverance of the city. See ITALY: 1746-1747.

1748.—Territory secured by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1768.—Cession of Corsica to France. See CORSICA: 1729-1769.

1796.—Treaty of peace with France. See FRANCE: 1796 (October).

1797.—Revolution forced by Bonaparte.—Creation of the Ligurian republic. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

1800.—Siege by the Austrians.—Masséna's defense.—Surrender of the city. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

1802.—New Constitution. See FRANCE: 1802 (June-October).

1805.—Surrender of independence.—Annexation to France. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1814.—Reduction of the forts by English troops.—Surrender of the French garrison. See ITALY: 1814.

1814-1815.—Annexation to the kingdom of Sardinia. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1816.—Suppression. See ITALY: 1814-1815.

1848.—Genoa in revolt for the national cause.—Measures of Gioberti.—Suppression by La Marmora.—Genoa, in common with the other Italian cities, was in semi-revolt at this time, as a sign of its sympathy with the nationalist cause. During the period of Gioberti's ministry, Genoa ceaselessly opposed his vacillating policy. "The Democrats were now frankly hostile, especially at Genoa; the city was loyal to the King, but it was fiercely democratic and unsettled, and three times in the past summer and autumn had been on the brink of civil war. Gioberti had appeased it when he came into office, but now it readily joined in the revolt against his new tendencies. The government took up the challenge; . . . the ministry illegally closed a club at Genoa, and by a sordid

trick got Brofferio expelled from the chamber. [After the defeat of Piedmont at Novara and the resulting humiliation, the storm broke.] At Genoa the suspicions of treachery broke into revolt. The report won credence that the young King had torn up the constitution and surrendered the city to the Austrians. Panic-stricken at the reported advance of the enemy and wildly surmising treachery in the commander of the garrison, they frightened him into a tame surrender of the forts. The Genoese protested their loyalty to Piedmont; the primary, and indeed the main purpose of the rising was to protect the city from the fancied danger of an Austrian occupation; the movement was accepted by the mass of the citizens, and men of responsibility, as Pareto, the ex-minister, took a leading part. . . . But the new ministry, which had just come into office, was zealous to prove its conservatism; it was frightened by the spectre of separation, and the Moderates had an old grudge against the turbulent democracy of Genoa. The Genoese were declared rebels; La Marmora was sent to force the city into submission, and two days' hard fighting, disgraced by a bombardment and looting by the troops, forced the city to a tardy surrender (April 10)."—B. King, *History of Italian unity*, v. 1, pp. 299-300.

1915.—D'Annunzio's speeches in Genoa.—"Gabriele d'Annunzio had been invited to take part in the Quarto celebrations. He arrived at Genoa on the 4th of May, and on the same evening he delivered the first of that series of impassioned orations . . . which vitalised the idea of the Greater Italy."—S. Low, *Italy in the war*, p. 292.

GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).—The allied powers, met in conference at Cannes, France, unanimously decided on January 6, 1922, "that a conference of an economic and financial nature should be called during the first weeks of March, at which all the European powers, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Russia included, should be invited to send representatives." The objects of the proposed conference were thus set forth in the resolution: "A common effort by the most powerful States is necessary to render to the European system its vitality which is now paralyzed. This effort ought to be applied to the suppression of all obstacles in the way of commerce. It ought to be applied also to granting large credits to the most feeble countries and to the coöperation of all for the restoration of normal production. The Allied Powers consider that the fundamental and indispensable conditions for the realization of an efficacious effort are capable of being defined in general terms as follows: 1. The nations cannot claim the right to dictate to each other the principles according to which they must organize within their frontiers, their régime of property, their economy and their government. It is the right of each country to choose for itself the system which it prefers. 2. Nevertheless it is not possible to place foreign capital in order to help a country unless the foreigners who provide the capital have a certitude that their property and their rights will be respected and that the fruits of their enterprise will be assured. 3. This feeling of security cannot be reëstablished unless nations or their Governments desiring to obtain foreign credits freely engage: (a) To recognize all public debts and obligations which have been contracted, or will be contracted or guaranteed by States, municipalities, or other public organizations, and to recognize also obligation to restore or, in case of default, to indemnify all foreign interests for loss or damage which has been caused by the confiscation or sequestration of property; (b) to establish legal and juristic

punishment and assure the impartial execution of all commercial or other contracts. 4. The nations ought to have available convenient means of exchange; in general, financial and monetary conditions ought to exist which offer sufficient guarantees. 5. All nations ought to engage to abstain from all propaganda which is subversive of the political system established in other countries. 6. All nations ought to take a common engagement to abstain from all aggression on their neighbors. If with a view to assuring the necessary conditions for the development of the commerce of Russia the Russian Government claims official recognition, the Allied Governments cannot accord this recognition unless the Russian Government accepts the preceding conditions." Two lines of postscript were added that the conference would be held in Italy and that the United States would be invited to participate.

The conference, which was described by Mr. Lloyd George in his opening speech as "the greatest gathering of European nations which has ever assembled on this continent," held its first session on April 10, 1922. "We meet on equal terms," continued the speaker, "provided we accept equal conditions. . . . We are assembled as the representatives of all the nations and peoples of Europe, to seek out in common the best methods for restoring the shattered prosperity of this continent. . . . [The] conditions in inviting the Powers were laid down at Cannes. They apply to all alike; they are the conditions which heretofore have been accepted by all civilized communities as the basis of international good faith. . . . The first is, when a country enters into contractual obligations with another country or its nationals for value received, that contract cannot be repudiated, whenever the country changes its Government, without returning value. The second is, that no country can wage war on the institutions of another. The third is, that one nation shall not engage in aggressive operations against the territory of another. If any people reject these elementary conditions of civilized intercourse between nations they cannot be expected to be received into the comity of nations. . . . A distinguished citizen of this city once upon a time discovered America, and as Genoa in the past discovered America to Europe, I am hopeful that Genoa once more will render another immortal service to humanity by rediscovering Europe to America. Thirty-four nations are represented at this table, and the interest taken in the conference by the world is by no means exhausted by that representation. The press of practically all the world is represented." The United States was not represented by delegates at the conference, though the American ambassador to Italy, Richard Washburn Child, was present as an unofficial observer. An invitation had been extended to the American government through the Italian ambassador in Washington, to which Secretary of State Hughes replied, in part: "I am sure that you will realize that the Government of the United States must take a deep interest in any conference which holds promise of effective measures to promote the economic rehabilitation of Europe, since not only do we keenly desire the return of prosperity to the peoples who have suffered most severely from the wastes and dislocations of war, but it is also manifest that there can be no improvement in world conditions in the absence of European recuperation. It is with this sympathetic spirit, and with the utmost reluctance to withhold its support from any appropriate effort to attain this object, that the Government of the United States has examined the resolution adopted at Cannes and the sug-

gested agenda for the conference. I regret to inform your Excellency that, as a result of this examination, it has been found impossible to escape the conclusion that the prospective conference is not merely an economic conference, as questions appear to have been excluded from consideration without the satisfactory determination of which the chief causes of economic disturbance must continue to operate, but is rather a conference of a political character in which the Government of the United States could not helpfully participate. . . . It is also the view of this Government . . . that while awaiting the establishment of the essential basis of productivity in Russia, to which reference was made in the public declaration of this Government on March 25, 1921, and without which this Government believes all consideration of economic revival to be futile, nothing should be done looking to the obtaining of economic advantages in Russia which would impair the just opportunities of others, but that the resources of the Russian people should be free from such exploitation and that fair and equal economic opportunity in their interest, as well as in the interest of all the powers, should be preserved. While this Government does not believe that it should participate in the proposed conference, it sincerely hopes that progress may be made in preparing the way for eventual discussion and settlement of the fundamental economic and financial questions relating to European recuperation which press for solution." The declaration referred to by Secretary of State Hughes was in reply to a formal appeal by the Russian Soviet Government on March 20, 1921, for the conclusion of a trade compact with the United States.

The following list shows the nations represented at the conference, with their respective number of delegates:—Albania, 4; Australia, 14; Austria, 6; Belgium, 14; Bulgaria, 15; Canada, 2; Czecho-Slovakia, 30; Denmark, 10; Estonia, 25; Finland, 7; France, 80; Germany, 80; Great Britain, 128; Greece, 22; Holland, 16; Hungary, 7; Ireland, 6; Italy, 6; Japan, 4; Jugo-Slavia, 12; Latvia, 6; Lithuania, 7; Luxemburg, 4; New Zealand, 16; Norway, 8; Poland, 40; Portugal, 9; Rumania, 22; Russia, 12; San Marino, 16; South Africa, 4; Spain, 16; Sweden, 10, and Switzerland, 8. Counting all delegations, with assistants, the total number was estimated at 1,500. Signor Luigi Facta, Italian premier, presided over the conference. M. Barthou, leader of the French delegation at the conference, declared that the world was tired of vain words and solemn declamations. "We have come here to act. . . . The French Delegation . . . will act in the full light of day; it has no ideas and plans to conceal. . . . Peace and work are the program and watchword of France." Dr. Wirth, the German chancellor, said that Germany had come to work for the economic reconstruction of Europe and told of Germany's domestic difficulties and needs, though he refrained from making any statement on the question of the reparations due from Germany to the Allies. The Bolshevik foreign minister, George Tchicherin, head of the Russian delegation, stated that Russia had come to the conference to cooperate in the economic reconstruction of the world; that the Soviet government was ready to give all suitable guarantees to the trading and business nationals of other countries on a basis of reciprocity, was prepared to grant concessions and open Siberia to the world. He then declared that Russia was perfectly willing to reduce her army provided that other nations reduced theirs and promised to leave Russia alone. This statement evoked a spirited protest from M. Barthou, who asserted that the Cannes program

specifically excluded the discussion of disarmament, and if that subject were introduced by any one at the conference, the French answer would be "a definite, categorical, decisive, final 'No.'" Tchicherin ironically replied that Russia knew "that at Washington M. Briand told Mr. Hughes that France could not cut down her army because Russia had a big one. We thought that if we offered to disarm, France could do so, and we should be helping all round. We are very sorry if we were wrong, and since we have been invited to confer, we will abide by the rules."

In order to facilitate the labors of the conference three special commissions were created—Finance, Commercial, and Transportation, respectively under British, French and Belgian leadership, while to another and superior body, "Commission No. 1," composed of representatives of all the nations, was assigned the task of deciding all questions falling within the scope of sections 1, 2 and 3 of the Cannes resolution, and in particular the position of Russia. Not without considerable friction Commission No. 1 reduced itself into an active sub-committee composed of twelve members, drawn as follows: Signor Schanzer (Italy), chairman; D. Lloyd George (Great Britain); M. Barthou (France); Baron Ishii (Japan); M. Theunis (Belgium); Julius Wirth and Walter Rathenau (Germany); George Tchicherin (Russia); H. Branting (Sweden); M. Motta (Switzerland); M. Bratianu (Rumania); M. Skirmunt (Poland). In the report of the Allied experts on the Russian problem, Chapter 1, headed "Liquidation of the Past," Article 1 declared that the Soviet government should accept the financial obligations of its predecessors, the former Imperial government and the Provisional government of 1917, which included obligations to foreign states and their nationals. Article 2 provided for the recognition by the Soviet of the financial engagements of all Russian authorities, provincial or local, and also all public utility enterprises contracted with other powers or their peoples. Article 3 declared that the Soviet should assume responsibility for all material damage suffered by foreigners in consequence of the acts or negligence of the Soviet or its predecessors. Article 4 proposed that the responsibilities referred to would be fixed by the commission on the Russian debt and by mixed arbitration tribunals to be created. Article 5 declared that all debts, responsibilities and obligations between foreign governments and the Russian government since August 1, 1914, should be considered as entirely effaced by the payment of sums to be fixed in a future accord. Furthermore, the Soviet government was called upon to promise various reforms in the administration of justice, including independence of the judiciary and free access to the courts by foreigners, who were to be treated on a basis of equality. Other recommendations stipulated that the Soviet permit foreigners to enter and leave Russia in conformity with international practice; that foreigners residing in Russia should be exempt from obligatory military service, have liberty to communicate through the post, telegraph and wireless systems and use telegraphic codes and enjoy every protection and the right to carry on business or profession without discrimination or restriction on account of nationality. No discrimination should be shown in the case of foreign workmen employed by foreigners, regarding military service or enforced labor. Finally, the report specially emphasized that effective collaboration between Russia and other nations would be difficult unless Russia wholeheartedly labored to restore her economic life, the basis of which was agriculture.

Security of property rights was a necessary condition for the rebirth of Russia, and when this was realized, foreign assistance would immediately be available. Russia could not expect foreign help in her industrial life until foreigners were able to count upon the good will and collaboration of the Russian government. With regard to the economic rehabilitation of Europe the report declared that an essential condition of reconstruction was that each country should stabilize the value of its money: "No country can be master of its own money so long as its budget shows an annual deficit which it tries to meet by the issue of paper currency or by opening bank credits. Each country must try by independent effort to remove the deficit." Other reform measures related to exchange, credits, tariff restrictions and prohibitions respecting importation and exportation; the administration of international transports must not be determined by political considerations, but by commercial and technical reasons as emphasized by the conventions of Barcelona, 1921, dealing with the liberty of transit.

The French delegation endeavored to rule out the German and Russian representatives from the deliberations, but the majority decided against the exclusion. It soon became apparent that there was considerable divergence of policy in the Allied ranks. "The Western nations needed Russia. Britain needed the Russian market for its manufactures and desired cheap Russian wheat. Italy was equally anxious to open the Black Sea ports. With comparative rapidity national and official views both in Britain and Italy have been changed and the new watchword, voiced alike by Lloyd George and various Italian statesmen, has been 'peace with Russia.' By contrast, France and Belgium, and in a limited measure the United States, were more concerned with investments already made in Russia than with the future Russian market or with imaginary Russian food supplies. . . . The Russian position was enormously strengthened at the outset by this obvious difference existing between the nations which had been enemies of Red Russia and allies against Germany. The British, supported by the Italians, proclaimed in advance that they must, as a matter of national prosperity, reach a settlement with Russia. And since the British leadership at Genoa was certain, Russia thus began the conference with assured allies. In addition, Russia had certain things with which to trade. Money she lacked; immediate liquid assets were also lacking, but despite the contemporary misery and chaos in Russia, there was world-wide recognition of the fact that the natural resources of Russia were almost incalculably rich and the western nations which could obtain the chance to exploit them would profit enormously. . . . Still another advantage Russia possessed and meant to use to its full extent. There was in Europe another great nation, momentarily broken by defeat but, industrially speaking, still the most potential of all the Continental states—namely, Germany. The French and Belgians, who were precisely the most exigent in respect of Russia, were similarly the most insistent upon German fulfilment of the terms of the treaty which marked German defeat." —F. H. Simonds, *Battle of Genoa (American Review of Reviews, June, 1922)*.—"From the statements given out by the Soviet delegates, it was made clear that the Russian delegation as a whole was amazed and even staggered by the sweeping political changes—to say nothing of the wide scope of the financial clauses—suggested in the allied report. It was declared by them that the demands respecting the right of personal property and pro-



tection for foreigners contemplated changes in the Soviet Government which would virtually wipe out communism and impair Soviet sovereignty in its own dominion."—*Genoa conference (New York Times Current History, May, 1922, p. 326)*.—"The French were adamant in insisting on Soviet acceptance of the Russian debt to France, and Lloyd George was equally resolved on acceptance of far-reaching political changes."—*Ibid.*, p. 327.—The total claims of Russia's creditors amounted to 65,000,000,000 gold francs; against this the Russian delegate presented a counter-claim for 300,000,000,000 gold francs, being Russian expenditure in the war against Germany before the revolution of 1917 and reparation for the damage sustained by Soviet Russia through the military operations of Kolchak, Denikin and Wrangel, aided and abetted by the Allied governments. "This claim the Russians subsequently scaled down to 50,000,000,000 gold rubles—the equivalent of 125,000,000,000 gold francs. Having thus shown that they owed the Allies nothing, but were in reality a creditor nation, the Russian leaders offered to settle on the basis of 2,000,000,000 gold francs, plus a considerable loan for economic reconstruction. Tchicherin pointed out the difficulty of persuading some 150,000,000 Russian peasants, who believed that the whole Czarist régime had been swept away, to assume the obligation to repay the old debt. Lloyd George in reply pointed out that a large part of the Russian debt was owed to French peasants. (Before the outbreak of the World War Russian indebtedness to France on account of loans amounted to ten thousand million francs.) Late on April 15, at the close of two days of discussions, the British Premier told M. Tchicherin flatly that the Russians must abandon their fantastic indemnity claims, and must comply with the following conditions: (1) Recognize the pre-war debt of Russia; (2) recognize the responsibility of the Russian Government for the sums borrowed by Russia from the Allies during the war; (3) recognize the liability of the Soviet Government for property owned by foreigners, which the Soviet had nationalized. After the Russians had accepted these conditions, Lloyd George said, the Allies would entertain the Soviet suggestion of reciprocity in the case of the damage done by the anti-Soviet generals. The Russians asked time to consider this."—*Genoa conference (New York Times Current History, June, 1922, pp. 479-480)*.—On the same day Rakovsky appeared before the Finance Committee to answer the claim of 6,000,000,000 gold francs for foreign-owned property seized or destroyed in Russia. He declared that his government was prepared to recognize this claim provided that the Allies recognized the Russian counter-claim of 30,000,000,000 gold francs and would pay to Russia an initial instalment of 2,000,000,000 gold francs on account. The session terminated abruptly. This was on Saturday, April 15. On the Sunday a tremendous *coup* was engineered in the neighboring town of Rapallo, 15 miles from Genoa. On Monday the Germans dropped a veritable diplomatic bombshell among the Allied delegations when they announced that a Russo-German *entente* had been concluded at Rapallo. By this *coup*, one of the chief aims of the conference—to prevent Germany and Russia from making common cause—had been frustrated. Russia had won from Germany practically all that the Allies had refused her. (See RAPALLO, TREATY OF, 1922.) Great consternation reigned among the Allied statesmen. On April 18 the representatives of Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Rumania, Portugal and Jugo-Slavia ad-

ressed this note to the German delegation: "The undersigned powers learned with astonishment that in the first stage of the Genoa conference, Germany, without reference to the other powers assembled, has secretly concluded a treaty with the Soviet Government. The questions covered by the treaty are the subject of negotiations between the representatives of Russia and those of all the other powers invited to the conference, including Germany, and the German Chancellor himself declared at the opening session that the German delegation would co-operate with the other powers for a solution of these questions in a spirit of genuine loyalty and fellowship. The undersigned powers therefore express to the German delegation in the frankest terms their opinion that the conclusion of such an agreement while the conference was in session is a violation of the conditions to which Germany pledged itself on entering the conference. . . . In these circumstances the undersigned do not consider it fair or equitable that Germany, having effected her own arrangement with Russia, should enter into a discussion of the conditions of an arrangement between their countries and Russia; they therefore assume that the German delegates have by their action renounced further participation in the discussion of the conditions of agreement between Russia and the various countries represented at the conference."—*Ibid.*, p. 482. The question arose as to whether Germany, by making this treaty, had infringed any of the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, by which her actions and relations to the Allies were governed. Russia had taken no part in the Versailles Treaty, and consequently stood in an independent position. In the course of his reply Dr. Rathenau said: "I came with my hands free to see what Germany would get at Genoa. When I saw that she would get nothing, I acted as though there had been no Genoa conference."

Thanks to the mediation of the Italian foreign minister, Signor Schanzer, the German delegates agreed to withdraw from discussions on Russian affairs, while continuing to participate in the remaining work of the conference. This proposal came from Dr. Julius Wirth, the German premier, submitted on April 21, but on the following day the problem was aggravated by a vigorous protest from the French side, attacking the legality of the Russo-German Treaty as being outside the scope of Germany's treaty engagements and of the Cannes resolutions, and calling upon the signatories to the note of April 18 (see above) to consider the matter afresh. At the same time Germany was asked for a statement that there were no secret clauses in the treaty with Russia. (Assurances on this last point were given by Tchicherin in a note to Barthou on May 1: "The Russian delegation announces in the most categorical manner that the Rapallo Treaty does not contain any secret clauses of military or political character, and the Russian Government has not engaged in any action of any sort against the interests of the French nation or any other nation whatsoever.") Before the end of the month French legal experts had submitted the treaty to a microscopic examination to discover any infringements of Articles 243 and 260 of the Treaty of Versailles. The experts "decided that the reservations already contained in the Rapallo treaty safeguarded Allied rights to a considerable degree, and that, if they were somewhat extended, there would be no violation." Acting on this basis the Reparations Commission did not demand the annulment of the Russo-German Treaty, "but would require Germany to enlarge her reservations in the compact to the point where they

covered and protected all Allied interest."—Based on *Genoa conference* (*New York Times Current History, June, 1922*).—But the storm raised by the Russo-German Treaty was by no means allayed. While in Germany the instrument was regarded as entirely innocuous, there were not a few who considered it a tactical blunder to have concluded it during the Genoa conference. The French, on the other hand, looked upon it as the gravest menace to their interests since the war. In a bellicose speech at Bar-le-Duc (France) on April 24, M. Poincaré announced that if Germany failed to comply with the terms of the Reparations Commission when the next payment was due, on the forthcoming May 31, France would be obliged, either with her allies or alone, to take active steps against Germany. "Under the double menace of Rapallo and Bar-le-Duc, the whole Genoa Conference staggered. Crisis followed crisis, the reports of speedy dissolution multiplied and to the outside world the prospect of failure increased in clarity with each day."—F. H. Simonds, *Battle of Genoa* (*American Review of Reviews, June, 1922, pp. 599-600*).—On May 2 the Allied plan for Russian recognition was handed to the Soviet delegates, but without the signatures of France and Belgium. On May 4 the session emphasized the necessity of settling international debts before attempting to restore financial stability. The French delegates protested that Lloyd George was trying to help the Soviets arrange land terms which would enable Russia to shift ownership of oil lands from France and Belgium over to Great Britain and Germany on long leases under the guise of Russian land nationalization. To Lloyd George's proposal for a ten-year non-aggression pact the French were prepared to agree on condition (1) that every European nation signed, (2) that Russia recognized all her existing boundaries for ten years, and (3) that France should not be called upon to surrender any of her rights of enforcing the Versailles Treaty. On the same day the Reparations Commission handed a long note to Germany; the reply came on May 28, nine days after the conference had broken up. Germany conceded all demands, conditional upon an international loan on terms bearable to Germany. Already on May 10 Germany had claimed that she could not meet her obligations under the moratorium of March 21 before May 31 without the aid of foreign loans, alleging that it was impossible to levy 60,000,000,000 marks new taxes before May 31. The Russian reply to the Allied proposals was received and published on May 11. While considered conciliatory in its actual commitments, the note denounced the Allies in scathing terms and accused them of deviating from the line of their original proposals and of conspiring to overthrow the Bolshevik government. "Not one of the conditions imposed by the powers as the price of resuming commercial relations with Russia was accepted. Every offer of concessions which the Russians had previously accepted was withdrawn, and the reply brought the conference back to the conditions that existed at its opening, and even further, for in accepting the Cannes invitation the Soviet had agreed to recognition of Russia's debts. The Russians now took back their pledge to cancel their counter-claim of 50,000,000,000 gold rubles against the Allies for damage done by the anti-Soviet Russian armies with allied support, and reverted to the principle of reciprocity, under which all debts would be canceled upon both sides. M. Rakovsky, speaking for the Russian delegation, declared that it would henceforth stand upon this principle. . . . The French on reading the Russian

note at once wired to Paris for instruction. Whether the French and their allies would withdraw was problematical. . . . It was clearly intimated in the note that no agreement could be reached unless Russia received a large international loan, and the allied governments had already made it clear that such a loan would not be extended. This refusal was confirmed officially in the British Parliament on May 11, the day when the Russian reply was received, when Sir Robert Horne, speaking for the Government, declared that the British Government was not prepared to make a loan to the Moscow Government. . . . After full consideration of the Russian reply, the delegation unanimously agreed that all hope of reaching an economic settlement with the Soviet Government at Genoa must be abandoned. The impossibility of realizing Lloyd George's other project—the making of a ten-year non-aggressive treaty—was generally admitted, for this plan depended primarily on the success of an economic arrangement with Russia. . . . Lloyd George . . . succeeded on May 14 in securing an agreement to begin a new attempt at settlement at The Hague on June 15, the main issues to be decided between then and the end of October being Russian credits, debts and private property. All the powers pledged themselves to conclude no separate treaties with Russia up to October 26. A special invitation was transmitted to the United States through Ambassador Child. Secretary Hughes declined this invitation on May 15, reiterating the American position that the question of Russian reconstruction and re-establishment of commerce and credit must be preceded by fundamental changes in the policy of the Soviet Government. . . . The receipt of the American refusal to participate in the new discussions caused keen disappointment at Genoa among all the delegations."—*New York Times Current History, June, 1922, pp. 497, 503*.—The conference decided on May 17 to adjourn *sine die* on the 10th, after a plenary session on that day. The Russian delegation had consented to cooperate in the proposed new conference. At 1 o'clock on May 19 the Genoa conference came to an end after six weeks of hopes and disappointments. One direct result of the Genoa conference was the calling by Moscow of a general conference of eastern nations to meet in the Russian capital late in June. Another was the withdrawal by the Soviet government of its troops concentrated on the Bessarabian frontier, which move was apparently due to the protest entered by Rumania at Genoa, and more particularly by France's support and guarantee to Rumania of her possession of Bessarabia, transferred to her from Russia under the peace settlement of 1919. The economic problems of Europe, however, remained unsettled, although another attempt to solve these questions was made at the Hague conference held in June.—See also HAGUE CONFERENCE (1922).

**Protest of Georgian republic against Bolshevik rule.** See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1922 (March-April).

ALSO IN: E. J. Dillon, *Genoa and its sequel* (*Contemporary Review, July, 1922*).—Idem, *Genoa tournament* (*Fortnightly Review, June, 1922*).—D. J. Hill, *Illusions of Genoa* (*North American Review, Aug., 1922*).—J. S. Mills, *Genoa conference*.—H. A. Gibbons, *Introduction to world politics, ch. 48*.—R. Picard, *Les questions financières à la conférence de Gênes* (*Revue d'Économie Politique, July-Aug., 1922*).

**GENOA CONGRESS OF ORIENTAL PEOPLES (1922).**—This gathering, which opened toward the end of May, was attended by delegates from Egypt, India, Turkey, Persia, Syria, Afghanis-

tan, Armenia, Mesopotamia and the Lebanon. It was originally intended to hold this congress concurrently with the Genoa economic and financial conference of the Allied powers, but owing to the late arrival of the delegates the congress did not open until after the conference had closed. The congress was held behind closed doors. An Egyptian Nationalist, Abdul Hamid Said, presided, and Chekib Arslan, a Syrian emigré, usually resident in Berlin, acted as secretary. A voluminous resolution was passed, protesting against European imperialism and declaring that "if imperialism will not take our friendship, it will have to reckon with our enmity." The congress also made the following demands: The extension to the entire East of the European and American code of international law; the abolition of the mandates; the recognition of the right of the eastern peoples to organize themselves in their own way as wholly independent states; complete withdrawal of European troops from all territory occupied by them in the East; all eastern states to be admitted to full membership of the League of Nations; the pact of non-aggression to be extended to the eastern states.

**GENOLA, Battle of (1799).** See FRANCE: 1799 (August-December).

**GENPEI ERA, Japan.** See JAPAN: 1150-1109.

**GENRO, or Elder statesmen.** See JAPAN: 1868-1894; 1894-1912; 1918-1921; 1921-1922; JAPAN, CONSTITUTION OF.

**GENS, GENTES, GENTILES.**—"When Roman history begins, there were within the city, and subordinate to the common city government, a large number of smaller bodies, each of which preserved its individuality and some semblance of governmental machinery. These were clans [gens], and in prehistoric times each of them is taken to have had an independent political existence, living apart, worshipping its own gods, and ruled over by its own chieftain. This clan organization is not supposed to have been peculiar at all to Rome, but ancient society in general was composed of an indefinite number of such bodies, which, at the outset, treated with each other in a small way as nations might treat with each other to-day. It needs to be noted, however, that, at any rate, so far as Rome is concerned, this is a matter of inference, not of historical proof. The earliest political divisions in Latium of which we have any trace consisted of such clans united into communities. If they ever existed, separately, therefore their union must have been deliberate and artificial, and the body thus formed was the canton ('civitas' or 'populus'). Each canton had a fixed common stronghold ('capitolium,' 'height,' or 'arx'—cf. 'arceo'—'citadel') situated on some central elevation. The clans dwelt around in hamlets ('vici' or 'pagi') scattered through the canton. Originally, the central stronghold was not a place of residence like the 'pagi,' but a place of refuge . . . and a place of meeting. . . . In all of this, therefore, the clan seems to lie at the very foundation. . . . Any clan in the beginning, of course, must have been simply a family. When it grew so large as to be divided into sections, the sections were known as families ('familie') and their union was the clan. In this view the family, as we find it existing in the Roman state, was a subdivision of the clan. In other words, historically, families did not unite to form clans, but the clan was the primitive thing, and the families were its branches. Men thus recognized kinship of a double character. They were related to all the members of their clan as 'gentiles,' and again more closely to all the members of their branch of the clan at once as 'gentiles' and also as 'agnati.' As already stated, men

belonged to the same family ('agnati') when they could trace their descent through males from a common ancestor who gave its name to the family, or, what is the same thing, was its eponym. Between the members of a clan the chief evidence of relationship in historical times was tradition. . . . We have thus outlined what is known as the patriarchal theory of society, and hinted at its application to certain facts in Roman history. It should be remembered, however, that it is only a theory, and that it is open to some apparent and to some real criticism."—A. Tighe, *Development of the Roman constitution*, ch. 2.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 5.—"The patricians were divided into certain private associations, called Gentes, which we may translate Houses or Clans. All the members of each Gens were called gentiles; and they bore the same name, which always ended in -ius; as for instance, every member of the Julian Gens was a Julius; every member of the Cornelian Gens was a Cornelius, and so on. Now in every Gens there were a number of Families which were distinguished by a name added to the name of the Gens. Thus the Scipios, Sullas, Cinnas, Cethegi, Lentuli, were all families of the Cornelian Gens. Lastly, every person of every Family was denoted by a name prefixed to the name of the Gens. The name of the person was, in Latin, prænomen; that of the Gens or House, nomen, that of the Family, cognomen. Thus Caius Julius Cæsar was a person of the Cæsar Family in the Julian Gens; Lucius Cornelius Scipio was a person of the Scipio Family in the Cornelian Gens; and so forth."—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—"There is no word in the English language which satisfactorily renders the Latin word 'gens.' The term 'clan' is apt to mislead; for the Scotch Highland clans were very different from the Roman 'gentes.' The word 'House' is not quite correct, for it always implies relationship, which was not essential in the 'gens'; but for want of a better word we shall use 'House' to express 'gens,' except where the spirit of the language rejects the term and requires 'family' instead. The German language has in the word 'Geschlecht' an almost equivalent term for the Latin 'Gens.'"—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 1, ch. 13, *foot-note*.—See also ROME: Ancient kingdom: Early character, etc.; Genesis of the people.

**Greek gens.** See GREECE: B. C. 8th century; PHYLÆ.

**ALSO IN:** F. de Coulanges, *Ancient city*, bk. 2, ch. 10.

**GENSERIC, or Gaeseric** (c. 400-477), king of the Vandals, 428-477. See VANDALS: 429-439; 431-533; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455; ROME: Empire: 455; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

**GENSONNE, Armand** (1758-1793). French revolutionist. Deputy of the Gironde to the legislative assembly, 1791-1792; member of the Constitutional Convention, 1792-1793 and president of it for two weeks in March, 1793; was guillotined as a Girondist.

**GENTES, Gentiles.** See GENS.

**GENTLEMEN'S AGREEMENT**, agreement between the United States and Japan whereby the latter pledged herself to restrict emigration of her laborers to the United States. See JAPAN: 1905-1914; CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1909.

**GENUCIAN LAW.**—A law which prohibited the taking of interest for loans is said to have been adopted at Rome, 342 B. C., on the proposal of the tribune Genucius; but modern historians are skeptical as to the actual enactment of the law.—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 3, ch. 5.

**GEOFFREY**, first duke of Brittany. See BRITANNY: 902-1237.

**GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH** (c. 1100-1154), Early English historian and bishop of Asaph. His "Historia Britonum" became the source and model for poets and chroniclers even before his death. See HISTORY: 19; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 11th-14th centuries.

**GEOGRAPHY: Influence upon history, as shown in various countries.**

**Abyssinia.** See ABYSSINIA.

**Afghanistan.** See AFGHANISTAN: Geographic description; KHYBER PASS.

**Africa.** See AFRICA: Geographic description; Modern European occupation: 1014-1920: Climatic conditions.

**Alexandria.** See HELLENISM: Science and invention.

**Alsace-Lorraine.** See ALSACE-LORRAINE: Its history, etc.

**America.** See AMERICA: Politico-geographical survey.

**Armenia.** See ARMENIA: Geographical description; Physical features.

**Asia.** See ASIA: Influence of geography, etc.

**Asia Minor.** See ASIA MINOR: Name.

**Assyria.** See ASSYRIA: The land.

**Austria.** See AUSTRIA: Geography.

**Babylonia.** See BABYLONIA: Land and its characteristics.

**Balkans.** See BALKAN STATES: Geographical position.

**British empire.** See BRITISH EMPIRE: Expansion, etc.: Beginnings.

**Central America.** See CENTRAL AMERICA: Geographical description.

**China.** See CHINA: Geography of China proper, etc.

**Crete.** See CRETE: Effect of position and physical features, etc.

**Egypt.** See EGYPT: Position and nature of the country.

**England.** See ENGLAND: Area, etc.

**Europe.** See EUROPE: Geography; Introduction to the historic period: Geographic background; ALPS: As barriers.

**Finland.** See FINLAND: Territory.

**France.** See FRANCE: Geographic description.

**Greece.** See GREECE: The land.

**India.** See INDIA: Geographical description.

**Italy.** See ALPS: As barriers; BRENNER PASS.

**Japan.** See JAPAN: Land.

**Netherlands.** See NETHERLANDS: Geography.

**Pacific ocean.** See PACIFIC OCEAN: Geographical description.

**Philippine islands.** See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features and natural resources.

**Russia.** See RUSSIA: Climate.

**Scandinavia.** See NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries.

**Spain.** See SPAIN: Geography of the Iberian peninsula.

**United States.** See U. S. A.: Historical geography.

**Influence upon language.** See PHILOLOGY: 11.

**GEOK TEPE**, fortified town in the province of Transcaspia on the Transcaspian railway. It was besieged and captured by the Russians in 1881. See RUSSIA: 1859-1881.

**GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, United States.** See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE.

**GEOLOGY.** See SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Geology.

**Relation to evolution.** See EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

**GEOMORI**, or Gamori.—"As far as our imperfect information enables us to trace, these early

oligarchies of the Grecian states, against which the first usurping despots contended, contained in themselves more repulsive elements of inequality, and more mischievous barriers between the component parts of the population, than the oligarchies of later days. . . . The oligarchy was not (like the government so denominated in subsequent times) the government of a rich few over the less rich and the poor, but that of a peculiar order, sometimes a Patrician order, over all the remaining society. . . . The country-population, or villagers who tilled the land, seem in these early times to have been held to a painful dependence on the great proprietors who lived in the fortified town, and to have been distinguished by a dress and habits of their own, which often drew upon them an unfriendly nickname. . . . The governing proprietors went by the name of the Gamori, or Geomori, according as the Doric or Ionic dialect might be used in describing them, since they were found in states belonging to one race as well as to the other. They appear to have constituted a close order, transmitting their privileges to their children, but admitting no new members to a participation. The principle called by Greek thinkers a Timocracy (the apportionment of political rights and privileges according to comparative property) seems to have been little, if at all, applied in the earlier times. We know no example of it earlier than Solon."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 9.

**GEONIM.** See GAON.

**GEORGE I** (1660-1727), king of England, 1714-1727. First of the Hanoverian or Brunswick line. See ENGLAND: 1714-1721.

**George II** (1683-1760), king of England, 1727-1760. See ENGLAND: 1727-1741.

**George III** (1738-1820), king of England, 1760-1820. See ENGLAND: 1760-1763; 1765-1768; 1776-1778; 1783-1789; 1806-1812; 1816-1820; U. S. A.: 1774 (May-July); 1776 (January-June): King George's war measures; NORTH CAROLINA: 1775-1776.

**George IV** (George Augustus Frederick) (1762-1830), king of England, 1820-1830. See ENGLAND: 1816-1820; 1830: Death of George IV.

**George V** (1865- ), king of England, since 1910. First monarch of the House of Windsor. See ENGLAND: 1910; 1916 (December); AUSTRALIA: 1900 (September-December); 1901 (May); BRITISH MUSEUM: 1880-1916; ULSTER: 1921; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 40; 41; WINDSOR, HOUSE OF.

**George I** (1845-1913), king of Greece, 1863-1913. Second son of King Christian IX of Denmark, and was called Prince William of Denmark; ascended the throne of Greece as George I with the consent of the Great Powers, 1863; assassinated at Salonika, March 19, 1913. See GREECE: 1830-1862; 1864-1893; 1913: Assassination of King George; TURKEY: 1897-1899; WORLD WAR: 1914: III, Balkans: b.

**George II** (1890- ), king of Greece since 1922. See GREECE: 1922 (September-October).

**George**, "the Bearded" (1471-1539), duke of Saxony. See SAXONY: 1180-1553.

**GEORGE, David Lloyd.** See LLOYD GEORGE, DAVID.

**GEORGE, Henry** (1839-1897), American economist. In his most famous work, "Progress and Poverty," published 1879, he popularized and gave body to the economic proposition later known as the Single Tax. His book has been translated into many languages and circulated in all parts of the world; nominated for mayor of New York, 1886, but defeated; again nominated by the labor element, 1897, but died suddenly three days before the

election.—See also SINGLE TAX: History of the idea.

GEORGE, Stefan (1868- ), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

GEORGE, William Reuben (1866- ), founder of the George Junior Republic. See PRISON REFORM: George Junior Republic.

GEORGE, Fort: Its capture. See U. S. A.: 1813 (April-July).

GEORGE FREDERICK, prince of Waldeck. See WALDECK, GEORG FREDRICH.

GEORGE WILLIAM (1597-1640), elector of Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1630-1634.

GEORGIA, southern state of the United States and one of the original thirteen states of the Union. On the north it is bounded by Tennessee and North Carolina; on the west by Alabama; on the east by South Carolina and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the south by Florida. The area is 59,265 square miles, of which 540 square miles are water. The population, according to the census of 1920, aggregated 2,895,832 inhabitants. Georgia ranks second among the cotton producing states of the Union. Among her other agricultural products are corn, oats, wheat, rice and sugar cane. The fisheries, particularly the oyster and shad fisheries, as well as the mineral resources of the state, are of great importance. See U. S. A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See APALACHEE INDIANS.

1539-1542.—Traversed by Hernando de Soto. See FLORIDA: 1528-1542.

1629.—Included in the Carolina grant to Sir Robert Heath. See AMERICA: 1629.

1663.—Included in the Carolina grant to Monk, Clarendon, and others. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

1732-1739.—Oglethorpe's colony.—“Among the members of Parliament during the rule of Sir Robert Walpole was one almost unknown to us now, but deserving of honour beyond most men of his time. His name was James Oglethorpe. He was a soldier, and had fought against the Turks and in the great Marlborough wars against Louis XIV. In advanced life he became the friend of Samuel Johnson. Dr. Johnson urged him to write some account of his adventures. ‘I know no one,’ he said, ‘whose life would be more interesting: if I were furnished with materials I should be very glad to write it.’ Edmund Burke considered him ‘a more extraordinary person than any he had ever read of.’ John Wesley ‘blessed God that ever he was born.’ Oglethorpe attained the great age of ninety-six, and died in the year 1785. . . . In Oglethorpe's time it was in the power of a creditor to imprison, according to his pleasure, the man who owed him money and was not able to pay it. It was a common circumstance that a man should be imprisoned during a long series of years for a trifling debt. Oglethorpe had a friend upon whom this hard fate had fallen. His attention was thus painfully called to the cruelties which were inflicted upon the unfortunate and helpless. He appealed to Parliament, and after inquiry a partial remedy was obtained. The benevolent exertions of Oglethorpe procured liberty for multitudes who but for him might have ended their lives in captivity. This, however, did not content him. Liberty was an incomplete gift to men who had lost, or perhaps had scarcely ever possessed, the faculty of earning their own maintenance. Oglethorpe devised how he might carry these unfortunates to a new world, where, under happier auspices, they might open a fresh career. He obtained [1732] from King George II. a charter by which the country between the Savannah and the Alatamaha, and stretching westward to the Pacific, was erected into

the province of Georgia. It was to be a refuge for the deserving poor, and next to them for Protestants suffering persecution. Parliament voted £10,000 in aid of the humane enterprise, and many benevolent persons were liberal with their gifts. In November the first exodus of the insolvent took place. Oglethorpe sailed with 120 emigrants, mainly selected from the prisons—peniless, but of good repute. He surveyed the coasts of Georgia, and chose a site for the capital of his new State. He pitched his tent where Savannah now stands, and at once proceeded to mark out the line of streets and squares. Next year the colony was joined by about a hundred German Protestants, who were then under persecution for their beliefs. . . . The fame of Oglethorpe's enterprise spread over Europe. All struggling men, against whom the battle of life went hard, looked to Georgia as a land of promise. They were the men who most urgently required to emigrate; but they were not always the men best fitted to conquer the difficulties of the immigrant's life. The progress of the colony was slow. The poor persons of whom it was originally composed were honest but ineffective, and could not in Georgia more than in England find out the way to become self-supporting. Encouragements were given which drew from Germany, from Switzerland, and from the Highlands of Scotland men of firmer texture of mind—better fitted to subdue the wilderness and bring forth its treasures. With Oglethorpe there went out, on his second expedition to Georgia [1736], the two brothers John and Charles Wesley. Charles went as secretary to the Governor. John was even then, although a very young man, a preacher of unusual promise. . . . He spent two years in Georgia, and these were unsuccessful years. His character was unformed; his zeal out of proportion to his discretion. The people felt that he preached ‘personal satires’ at them. He involved himself in quarrels, and at last had to leave the colony secretly, fearing arrest at the instance of some whom he had offended. He returned to begin his great career in England, with the feeling that his residence in Georgia had been of much value to himself, but of very little to the people whom he sought to benefit. Just as Wesley reached England, his fellow-labourer George Whitefield sailed for Georgia. . . . He founded an Orphan-House at Savannah, and supported it by contributions—obtained easily from men under the power of his unequalled eloquence. He visited Georgia very frequently, and his love for that colony remained with him to the last. Slavery was, at the outset, forbidden in Georgia. It was opposed to the gospel, Oglethorpe said, and therefore not to be allowed. He foresaw, besides, what has been so bitterly experienced since, that slavery must degrade the poor white labourer. But soon a desire sprung up among the less scrupulous of the settlers to have the use of slaves. Within seven years from the first landing, slave-ships were discharging their cargoes at Savannah.”—R. Mackenzie, *America: History*, bk. 1, ch. 10.—See also U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

ALSO IN: T. M. Harris, *Biographical memorials of James Oglethorpe*, ch. 1-10.—R. Wright, *Memoir of General James Oglethorpe*, ch. 1-9.—G. White, *Historical collections of Georgia*, pp. 1-20.

1733-1735.—Laws against liquor. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1607-1775.

1734.—Settlement of the Salzburghers.—“As early as October the 12th, 1732, the ‘Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge’ expressed to the Trustees a desire ‘that the persecuted Salzburghers should have an asylum provided for them in Georgia.’ . . . These Germans belonged to the

Archbishopric of Salzburg, then the most eastern district of Bavaria; but now forming a detached district in upper Austria, and called Salzburg from the broad valley of the Salzer, which is made by the approximating of the Norric and Rhetian Alps. Their ancestors, the Vallenges of Piedmont, had been compelled by the barbarities of the Dukes of Savoy, to find a shelter from the storms of persecution in the Alpine passes and vales of Salzburg and the Tyrol, before the Reformation; and frequently since had they been hunted out by the hirings and soldiery of the Church of Rome. . . . The quietness which they had enjoyed for nearly half a century was now rudely broken in upon by Leopold, Count of Firmian and Archbishop of Salzburg, who determined to reduce them to the Papal faith and power. He began in the year 1729, and ere he ended in 1732, not far from 30,000 had been driven from their homes, to seek among the Protestant States of Europe that charity and peace which were denied them in the glens and fastnesses of their native Alps. More than two-thirds settled in the Prussian States; the rest spread themselves over England, Holland, and other Protestant countries. Thrilling is the story of their exile. The march of these Salzburgers constitutes an epoch in the history of Germany. . . . The sympathies of Reformed Christendom were awakened on their behalf, and the most hospitable entertainment and assistance were everywhere given them." Forty-two families, numbering seventy-eight persons, accepted an invitation to settle in Georgia, receiving allotments of land and provisions until they could gather a harvest. They arrived at Savannah in March, 1734, and were settled at a spot which they selected for themselves, about thirty miles in the interior. "Oglethorpe marked out for them a town; ordered workmen to assist in building houses; and soon the whole body of Germans went up to their new home at Ebenezer."—W. B. Stevens, *History of Georgia*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: F. Shoberl, *Persecutions of popery*, v. 2, ch. 9.—E. B. Speirs, *Salzburgers (English Historical Review, Oct., 1890)*.

1735.—First Moravian settlement. See MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN: IN SAXONY AND AMERICA.

1735-1749.—Slavery question.—Original exclusion and subsequent admission of negro slaves.—Among the fundamental regulations of the trustees was one prohibiting negro-slavery in the colony. "It was policy and not philanthropy which prohibited slavery; for, though one of the trustees, in a sermon to recommend charity, declared, 'Let avarice defend it as it will, there is an honest reluctance in humanity against buying and selling, and regarding those of our own species as our wealth and possessions'; and though Oglethorpe himself, speaking of slavery as against 'the gospel as well as the fundamental law of England,' asserted, 'we refused, as trustees, to make a law permitting such a horrid crime'; yet in the official publications of that body its inhibition is based only on political and prudential, and not on humane and liberal grounds; and even Oglethorpe owned a plantation and negroes near Parachucla in South Carolina, about forty miles above Savannah. . . . Their [the trustees] design was to provide for poor but honest persons, to erect a barrier between South Carolina and the Spanish settlements, and to establish a wine and silk-growing colony. It was thought by the trustees that neither of these designs could be secured if slavery was introduced. . . . But while the trustees disallowed negroes, they instituted a system of white

slavery which was fraught with evil to the servants and to the colony. These were white servants, consisting of Welch, English, or German, males and females—families and individuals—who were indentured to individuals or the trustees, for a period of from four to fourteen years. . . . On arriving in Georgia, their service was sold for the term of indenture, or apportioned to the inhabitants by the magistrates, as their necessities required. . . . Two years had not elapsed since the landing of Oglethorpe before many complaints originated from this cause; and in the summer of 1735 a petition, signed by seventeen freeholders, setting forth the unprofitableness of white servants, and the necessity for negroes, was carried by Mr. Hugh Sterling to the trustees, who, however, resented the appeal as an insult to their honour. . . . The plan for substituting white for black labour failed through the sparseness of the supply and the refractoriness of the servants. As a consequence of the inability of the settlers to procure adequate help, the lands granted them remained uncleared, and even those which the temporary industry of the first occupants prepared remained uncultivated. . . . There accumulated on the trustees' hands a body of idle, clamorous, mischief-making men, who employed their time in declaiming against the very government whose charity both fed and clothed them. . . . For nearly fifteen years from 1735, the date of the first petition for negroes, and the date of their express law against their importation, the trustees refused to listen to any similar representations, except to condemn them," and they were supported by the Salzburgers and the Highlanders, both of whom opposed the introduction of negro slaves. But finally, in 1749, the firmness of the trustees gave way and they yielded to the clamor of the discontented colony. The importation of black slaves was permitted, under certain regulations intended to diminish the evils of the institution. "The change in the tenure of grants, and the permission to hold slaves, had an immediate effect on the prosperity of the colony."—W. B. Stevens, *History of Georgia*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 9.

1735-1750.—Methods of laying out grants.—Savannah.—Georgia towns and New England towns.—"It is an interesting fact that Georgia was largely settled in communities or towns somewhat resembling those of New England. This was the result of the policy . . . of making trust deeds for several thousand acres to be laid out and subdivided among the settlers sent over by the Trust. There were in all eight of these large tracts, varying in size from twenty-five hundred to ten thousand acres; and most of the people of the province were located in one of the towns or villages that developed from these trust deeds. Savannah was the first of the towns to be established, and it served as a model for the later ones. Since this is true, it may be worth while to study the general plan of Savannah as a type of the Georgia towns. It was laid off for two hundred and forty freeholds, the quantity of land necessary being twenty-four square miles or fifteen thousand three hundred and sixty acres. Of this land, twelve thousand acres were used for actual grants to settlers while the remainder was used for roadways, streets, Trust reserves, commons, and the like. The town proper was laid off into wards of forty building lots each, and these wards were subdivided into tithings of ten lots each. Wide streets and numerous squares for market purposes were left; and in every ward was left one large square to accommodate people from the country if these should ever need to seek the protection of the town. Around the residence and business portions of the town were the com-

mons which were planned for grazing cattle and for recreation. The building lots were each sixty by ninety feet, fronting two streets. Each owner of such a lot would have a garden plot beyond the town commons, and this was large enough to make the combined area of lot and garden amount to five acres as planned by the Trustees. As a rule, adventurers would not have their lands laid off within the limits of one of these especially assigned tracts, but they were given estates adjoining the towns or villages, though not infrequently they were allowed a building lot within the town for a residence only. While the general arrangement of the Georgia villages, with Savannah as a type, was something like that of Massachusetts, or other New England colonies, there were several points of difference that should be noted. In general appearance, the Georgia villages were much more compact, due to the small building lots, though the streets and squares were perhaps wider than the average ones in New England towns. This compactness was due to the fact that Georgia was designed as a buffer Colony against the Spanish; and each town was therefore considered, and to a degree arranged, as a garrison. In respects other than appearance, the settlements in Georgia were still more unlike the New England towns. The latter owned all the land within their limits and could prescribe what should be done with it, while in Georgia all vacant land was owned by the Common Council, three thousand miles away. Again, a town in Massachusetts was to a considerable extent self-governing and could regulate entirely its internal affairs, while no Georgia village ever enjoyed this privilege under proprietary rule. There were some decided disadvantages in laying out lots and farms so regularly. Much of the land in Georgia was not well adapted to cultivation; and it was impossible to find large tracts of it that would all be good. As a result, when towns were laid out and when the various divisions were distributed, some settlers would surely get poor land either for their gardens or for their farms or for both."—J. R. McCain, *Georgia as a proprietary province*, p. 273.

1738-1743.—War with the Spaniards of Florida.—Discontent in the colony.—"The assiento enjoyed under the treaty of Utrecht by the English South Sea Company, the privilege, that is, of transporting to the Spanish colonies a certain number of slaves annually, . . . was made a cover for an extensive smuggling trade on the part of the English, into which private merchants also entered. . . . To guard against these systematic infractions of their laws, the Spaniards maintained a numerous fleet of vessels in the preventive service, known as 'guarda costas,' by which some severities were occasionally exercised on suspected or detected smugglers. These severities, grossly exaggerated, and resounded throughout the British dominions, served to revive in England and the colonies a hatred of the Spaniards, which, since the time of Philip II., had never wholly died out. Such was the temper and position of the two nations when the colonization of Georgia was begun, of which one avowed object was to erect a barrier against the Spaniards, among whom the runaway slaves of South Carolina were accustomed to find shelter, receiving in Florida an assignment of lands, and being armed and organized into companies, as a means of strengthening that feeble colony. A message sent to St. Augustine to demand the surrender of the South Carolina runaways met with a point blank refusal, and the feeling against the Spaniards ran very high in consequence. . . . Oglethorpe . . . returned from his second visit to England [September, 1738], with

a newly-enlisted regiment of soldiers, and the appointment, also, of military commander for Georgia and the Carolinas, with orders 'to give no offense, but to repel force by force.' Both in Spain and England the administrators of the government were anxious for peace. . . . The ferocious clamors of the merchants and the mob . . . absolutely forced Walpole into a war [see ENGLAND: 1739-1741]. Travelling 300 miles through the forests, Oglethorpe held at Coweta, on the Chatahoochee, just below the present site of Columbus, a new treaty with the Creeks, by which they confirmed their former cessions, acknowledged themselves subject to the King of Great Britain, and promised to exclude from their territories all but English settlers. After finishing the treaty, Oglethorpe returned through the woods by way of Augusta to Savannah, where he found orders from England to make an attack on Florida. He called at once on South Carolina and the Creeks for aid, and in the meantime made an expedition, in which he captured the Fort of Picolata, over against St. Augustine, thus securing the navigation of the St. John's, and cutting off the Spaniards from their forts at St. Mark's and Pensacola. South Carolina entered very eagerly into the enterprise. Money was voted; a regiment, 500 strong, was enlisted, partly in North Carolina and Virginia. This addition raised Oglethorpe's force to 1,200 men. The Indians that joined him were as many more. Having marched into Florida, he took a small fort or two, and, assisted by several ships of war, laid siege to St. Augustine. But the garrison was 1,000 strong, besides militia. The fortifications proved more formidable than had been expected. A considerable loss was experienced by a sortie from the town, falling heavily on the Highland Rangers. Presently the Indians deserted, followed by part of the Carolina regiment, and Oglethorpe was obliged to give over the enterprise. . . . From the time of this repulse, the good feeling of the Carolinians toward Oglethorpe came to an end. Many of the disappointed Georgia emigrants had removed to Charleston, and many calumnies against Oglethorpe were propagated, and embodied in a pamphlet published there. The Moravians also left Georgia, unwilling to violate their consciences by bearing arms. Most unfortunately for the new colony, the Spanish war withdrew the Highlanders and others of the best settlers from their farms to convert them into soldiers."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 25.—"After the late incursion into Florida, the General kept possession of a southern region which the Spaniards had claimed as their own; and, as they had taken encouragement from the successful defence of St. Augustine, and the well-known dissensions on the English side, it was to be expected that they would embrace the earliest opportunity of taking their revenge. . . . The storm, which had been so long anticipated, burst upon the colony in the year 1742. The Spaniards had . . . fitted out, at Havana, a fleet said to consist of 56 sail and 7,000 or 8,000 men. The force was probably not quite so great; if it was, it did not all reach its destination," being dispersed by a storm, "so that only a part of the whole number succeeded in reaching St. Augustine. The force was there placed under the command of Don Manuel de Monteano, the Governor of that place. . . . The fleet made its appearance on the coast of Georgia on the 21st of June"; but all its attempts, first to take possession of the island of Amelia, and afterwards to reduce the forts at Frederica, were defeated by the vigor and skill of General Oglethorpe. After losing heavily in a fight

called the Battle of the Bloody Marsh, the Spaniards retreated about the middle of July. The following year they prepared another attempt; but Oglethorpe anticipated it by a second demonstration on his own part against St. Augustine, which had no other result than to disconcert the plans of the enemy.—W. B. O. Peabody, *Life of Oglethorpe (Library of American biography, 2d series, v. 2, ch. 11-12)*.—"While Oglethorpe was engaged in repelling the Spaniards, the trustees of Georgia had been fiercely assailed by their discontented colonists. They sent Thomas Stevens to England with a petition containing many charges of mismanagement, extravagance, and speculation, to which the trustees put in an answer. After a thorough examination of documents and witnesses in committee of the whole, and hearing counsel, the House of Commons resolved that 'the petition of Thomas Stevens contains false, scandalous, and malicious charges'; in consequence of which Stevens, the next day, was brought to the bar, and reprimanded on his knees. . . . Oglethorpe himself had been a special mark of the malice and obloquy of the discontented settlers. . . . Presently his lieutenant colonel, a man who owed everything to Oglethorpe's favor, re-echoing the slanders of the colonists, lodged formal charges against him. Oglethorpe proceeded to England to vindicate his character, and the accuser, convicted by a court of inquiry of falsehood, was disgraced and deprived of his commission. Appointed a major general, ordered to join the army assembled to oppose the landing of the Pretender, marrying also about this time, Oglethorpe did not again return to Georgia. The former scheme of administration having given rise to innumerable complaints, the government of that colony was intrusted to a president and four counselors."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v. 2, ch. 25*.

ALSO IN: C. C. Jones, *History of Georgia, v. 1, ch. 17-22*.

1743-1764.—Surrender to the crown.—Government as a royal province.—"On Oglethorpe's departure [1743], William Stephens, the secretary, was made President, and continued in office until 1751, when he was succeeded by Henry Parker. The colony, when Stephens came into office, comprised about 1,500 persons. It was almost at a stand-still. The brilliant prospects of the early days were dissipated, and immigration had ceased, thanks to the narrow policy and feeble government of the Trustees. An Indian rising, in 1749, headed by Mary Musgrove, Oglethorpe's Indian interpreter, and her husband, one Bosomworth, who laid claim to the whole country, came near causing the destruction of the colony, and was only repressed by much negotiation and lavish bribes. The colony, thus feeble and threatened, struggled on, until it was relieved from danger from the Indians and from the restrictive laws, and encouraged by the appointment of Parker, and the establishment of a representative government. This produced a turn in the affairs of Georgia. Trade revived, immigration was renewed, and everything began to wear again a more hopeful look. Just at this time, however, the original trust was on the point of expiring by limitation. There was a party in the colony who desired a renewal of the charter; but the Trustees felt that their scheme had failed in every way, except perhaps as a defence to South Carolina, and when the limit of the charter was reached, they turned the colony over to the Crown. . . . A form of government was established similar to those of the other royal provinces, and Captain John Reynolds was sent out as the first Governor." The administration of Reynolds produced

wide discontent, and in 1757 he was recalled, being "succeeded by Henry Ellis as Lieutenant-governor. The change proved fortunate, and brought rest to the colony. Ellis ruled peaceably and with general respect for more than two years, and was then promoted to the governorship of Nova Scotia. In the same year his successor arrived at Savannah, in the person of James Wright, who continued to govern the province until it was severed from England by the Revolution. The feebleness of Georgia had prevented her taking part in the union of the colonies, and she was not represented in the Congress at Albany. Georgia also escaped the ravages of the French war, partly by her distant situation, and partly by the prudence of Governor Ellis; and the conclusion of that war gave Florida to England, and relieved the colony from the continual menace of Spanish aggression. A great Congress of southern Governors and Indian chiefs followed, in which Wright, more active than his predecessor, took a prominent part. Under his energetic and firm rule, the colony began to prosper greatly, and trade increased rapidly; but the Governor gained at the same time so much influence, and was a man of so much address, that he not only held the colony down at the time of the Stamp Act, but seriously hampered its action in the years which led to revolution."—H. C. Lodge, *Short history of the English colonies in America, ch. 9*.

ALSO IN: A. D. Candler, *Colonial records of the state of Georgia*.

1754-1776.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1621-1776.

1760-1775.—Opening events of the Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1760-1775, to 1775.

1775-1777.—End of royal government.—Constitutional organization of the state.—"The news of the battle of Lexington reached Savannah on the night of the 10th of May, 1775, and produced intense excitement among all classes. On the night of the 11th, Noble Wimberly Jones, Joseph Habersham, Edward Telfair, and a few others, impressed with the necessity of securing all military stores, and preserving them for colonial use, took from the King's magazine, in Savannah, about 500 pounds of powder. . . . Tradition asserts that part of this powder was sent to Boston, and used by the militia at the battle of Bunker Hill. . . . The activity of the Liberty party, and its rapid increase, . . . gave Governor Wright just cause for alarm; and he wrote to General Gage, expressing his amazement 'that these southern provinces should be left in the situation they are, and the Governors and King's officers, and friends of Government, naked and exposed to the resentment of an enraged people.' . . . The assistance so earnestly solicited in these letters would have been promptly rendered, but that they never reached their destination. The Committee of Safety at Charleston withdrew them from their envelopes, as they passed through the port, and substituted others, stating that Georgia was quiet, and there existed no need either of troops or vessels." The position of Governor Wright soon became one of complete powerlessness and he begged to be recalled. In January, 1776, however, he was placed under arrest, by order of the council of Safety, and gave his parole not to leave town, nor communicate with the men-of-war which had just arrived at Tybee; notwithstanding which he made his escape to one of the King's ships on February 11. "The first effective organization of the friends of liberty in the province took place among the deputies from several parishes, who met in Savannah, on the 18th January, 1775, and formed



what has been called 'A Provincial Congress.' Guided by the action of the other colonies, a 'Council of Safety' was created, on the 22d June, 1775, to whom was confided the general direction of the measures proper to be pursued in carrying out resistance to the tyrannical designs of the King and Parliament. William Ewen was the first President of this Council of Safety, and Seth John Cuthbert was the Secretary. On the 4th July, the Provincial Congress (now properly called such, as every parish and district was represented) met in Savannah, and elected as its presiding officer Archibald Bulloch. This Congress conferred upon the 'Council of Safety,' 'full power upon every emergency during the recess of Congress.'" Soon finding the need of a more definite order of government, the Provincial Congress, on the 15th of April, 1776, adopted provisionally, for six months, a series of "Rules and Regulations," under which Archibald Bulloch was elected president and commander-in-chief of Georgia, and John Glen, chief justice. After the Declaration of Independence, steps were taken toward the settling of the government of the state on a permanent basis. On the proclamation of President Bulloch a convention was elected which met in Savannah in October, and which framed a constitution that was ratified on February 5, 1777.—W. B. Stevens, *History of Georgia*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 2, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 1.—See also U. S. A.: 1776-1779.

Also in: L. B. Evans, *History of Georgia*.—A. D. Candler, *Revolutionary records of the state of Georgia*.—G. White, *Historical collections of the state of Georgia*.

1776-1778.—War in the North.—Articles of Confederation.—Alliance with France. See U. S. A.: 1776 to 1778.

1776-1787.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1776-1787.

1778-1779.—Savannah taken and the state subjugated by the British.—Unsuccessful attack on Savannah by the French and Americans. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779; War carried into the South; 1779 (September-October).

1780.—Successes of the British arms in South Carolina. See U. S. A.: 1780 (February-August).

1780-1783.—Greene's campaign in the South.—Lafayette and Washington in Virginia.—Siege of Yorktown and surrender of Cornwallis.—Peace. See U. S. A.: 1780 (February-August) to 1783 (September).

1787-1864.—Suffrage qualifications. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1787-1800; 1800-1864.

1788 (January).—Adoption of the federal constitution. See U. S. A.: 1787; 1787-1789.

1793-1794.—Chisholm case. See CHISHOLM vs. GEORGIA, CASE OF.

1795.—Case of Fletcher vs. Peck. See FLETCHER vs. PECK.

1802.—Cession of western lands claims to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1781-1786; MISSISSIPPI: 1798-1804.

1813-1814.—Creek War. See U. S. A.: 1813-1814 (August-April).

1816-1818.—First Seminole War. See FLORIDA: 1812-1819; SEMINOLES.

1825-1838.—Removal of the Creek and Cherokee Indians from the state.—In 1825 the Creek Indians by treaty with the federal government agreed to exchange their lands in Georgia for equivalent territory beyond the Mississippi. The authority of this treaty, however, was disputed and the attempt of the state government to extend its jurisdiction to the former Indian lands led to conflict between state and federal government.

The Creeks were finally expelled in 1832. In 1835 the Cherokees ceded all of their disputed territory to the United States and in 1838 removed from the state.

1850.—Nashville convention. See U. S. A.: 1850 (June).

1860.—Occupation of Forts Pulaski and Jackson. See U. S. A.: 1860-1861 (December-February).

1860.—Resignation of Howell Cobb, secretary of the treasury.—On December 6, 1860, Howell Cobb, of Georgia, secretary of the treasury, addressed "To the People of Georgia" a statement of his views opposing the "Black Republicans" and asserting the right and necessity of secession. On December 8, he sent his resignation as secretary of the treasury to President Buchanan, who accepted it two days later.

1861.—Secession from the Union.—On January 16, 1861, a convention called by act of the state legislature met to consider the question of secession. On January 19 the convention passed the ordinance of secession by a vote of 208 to 89. Alexander Stephens was strongly opposed to it, but when secession became an accomplished fact, he gave it his support, helped to form the new government and was elected vice president of the Confederacy.—See also U. S. A.: 1861 (January-February); (February): Adoption of a constitution for "The Confederate States of America."

1861 (October-December).—Savannah threatened.—Union forces in possession of the mouth of the river. See U. S. A.: 1861 (October-December: South Carolina-Georgia).

1862 (February-April).—Reduction of Fort Pulaski and sealing up of the port of Savannah by the national forces. See U. S. A.: 1862 (February-April: Georgia-Florida).

1862 (April-May).—Railroad raid. See U. S. A.: 1862 (April-May: Alabama).

1864 (May-September).—Sherman's campaign against Atlanta.—Capture of the city. See U.S.A.: 1864 (May: Georgia); (May-September: Georgia).

1864 (September-October).—Military occupation of Atlanta.—Removal of the inhabitants.—Hood's raid to Sherman's rear. See U. S. A.: 1864 (September-October: Georgia).

1864 (November-December).—Destruction of Atlanta.—Sherman's march to the sea. See U. S. A.: 1864 (November-December: Georgia).

1865 (March-May).—Wilson's raid.—End of the rebellion. See U. S. A.: 1865 (April-May).

1865-1872.—Reconstruction in its economic, social, and political aspects.—"The industrial revolution of the reconstruction period was almost wholly confined to agriculture, which still remained the great economic interest of the state, despite the cataclysm following upon emancipation. The growth in other interests, manufacturing, trade, the expansion of railroads, except the great work of repair which the devastation of war occasioned, was merely a normal continuation of the process of development begun before 1860. Textile manufacturing, with the utilization of white labor from the mountain and Piedmont region, belongs to a later period of the industrial development of Georgia. Since the economic changes of 1865-1872 were mainly agricultural and had grown out of emancipation, these changes were most marked where there were the greatest number of slaves to be freed, and where the large plantation was the industrial unit. Central Georgia, the cotton-belt from the southwest diagonally across the state, with the fringe of coast counties, experienced a much greater degree of economic

reconstruction than North Georgia or the pine barrens of the southeast. The grain-producing area of Northwest Georgia, after it had once recovered from the blight of Sherman's army, progressed markedly in the later years of reconstruction. Having comparatively few negroes to begin with, this section was not vitally disturbed by emancipation in its agricultural production. While economic disturbance was less, social disorder was greater in the section where negroes were less numerous. It was here that jealousy and rivalry were most acute, when slavery was abolished, leaving only race as a barrier between the poor white and the poor black. The race problem, one of the greatest problems which reconstruction aroused and bequeathed to a later generation, began further back than reconstruction. It began with the landing of the first negroes brought to the Colony of Virginia, but the institution of slavery, while not settling the problem, at least provided a method of adjustment whereby the negro passed from barbarism to some measure of civilization. Emancipation itself was enough to generate race antagonism between some classes of whites and blacks. But Republican reconstruction extended and intensified this racial antagonism a hundredfold. This was the most important and enduring contribution of Congressional Reconstruction. The political results of reconstruction were, in the long run, the least important of all in the later history of Georgia. The greatest influence of Republicanism was its reaction on social relations and on economic conditions. While the Republican government for three years was both extravagant and corrupt, Georgia managed to recover rather easily from its financial abuse and mismanagement. In this respect, Georgia was decidedly less hard pressed than other Southern states in reconstruction, and it was certainly more fortunate than states where such influence as the Tweed Ring was in control. The 'undoing of reconstruction,' applies merely to politics, for the social and economic reconstruction of Georgia after the war continues to-day. Politically, the greatest work of reconstruction was to constitute the negro a voter, and to make the government Republican in party politics. In 1872, the state government was completely in control of the Democratic party. To make this political reversal possible, many negroes, by intimidation, persuasion, in some cases by their own indifference, ceased to be voters, and gradually the negro became of less and less importance in politics. Thus the greatest political achievement of Congressional Reconstruction was undone. But it was not entirely undone, for the whites, in removing the political rights from the negroes, also limited their own political freedom. The Southern white had no freedom of choice—he had to be a Democrat, whether or no. In its largest sense, Reconstruction in Georgia meant a wider democratization of society. Before the war, however, Georgia was far from being in the control of the 'slave oligarchy,' such as is frequently pictured. The yeoman of moderate means, who might own a few slaves, was not a negligible factor in anti-bellum life. Alexander H. Stephens was one of this class, and Joseph E. Brown, one of the most potent leaders ever known in Georgia, was distinctly one of the 'plain people.' The change that came by reconstruction was one of degree rather than of kind. When former leaders were set aside by the terms of Presidential and Congressional Reconstruction, the way was opened to the middle class. The weakening of the economic supremacy of the planter class also meant that other kinds of wealth than land and slaves

became the basis of social prestige. The reconstruction period was followed by shifting, not only in class dominance, but also in sectional dominance. The center of influence moved further to the uplands, with growing importance of the Piedmont region at the expense of the cotton-belt. The rocket-like rise of Atlanta in the Piedmont is in part illustrative of these new forces that reconstruction brought into action."—C. M. Thompson, *Reconstruction in Georgia*, pp. 398-401.—See also U. S. A.: 1865 (May-July) to 1868-1870: Reconstruction complete.

ALSO IN: U. B. Phillips, *Georgia and state rights*.—A. D. Candler, *Confederate records of the state of Georgia*.—E. C. Woolley, *Reconstruction in Georgia*.

1870-1872.—Democrats gained legislature and governorship.—In 1870 a Democratic legislature was elected. Shortly thereafter Governor Bullock, Republican, resigned, fearing impeachment. In 1872 a Democratic governor was elected and the Republican régime of the reconstruction period was ended.

1876-1890.—Grady and the "New South."—"When Georgia, with the rest of the Southern States, had passed safely through the reconstruction period, the people . . . found themselves facing new conditions and new possibilities. Slavery had been abolished utterly and forever; and wise men breathed freer when they saw that a great obstacle to progress and development had been abolished with it. Instinctively everybody felt that here was cause for congratulation. A few public men, bolder than the rest, looking out on the prospect, thanked God that slavery was no more. They expected to be attacked for such utterances, but they were applauded; and it was soon discovered, much to the surprise of everybody, that the best sentiment of the South was heartily glad that slavery was out of the way. Thus, with new conditions, new prospects, and new hopes,—with a new fortune, in fact,—it was natural that some lively prophet should lift up his voice and cry, 'Behold, the New South!' And it was and is the new South,—the old South made new by events; the old South with new channels, in which its Anglo-Saxon energies may display themselves; the old South with new possibilities of greatness, that would never have offered themselves while slavery lasted. After these hopes, and in pursuit of these prospects, Georgia has led the way. Hundreds of miles of new railroads have been built in her borders since the dark days of reconstruction, hundreds of new factories have been built, immense marble beds and granite quarries have been put in operation, new towns have sprung into existence, and in thousands of new directions employment has been given to labor and capital. In short, the industrial progress the State has made since 1870 is more than double that of the previous fifty years. It was natural, that, out of the new conditions, new men should arise; and, as if in response to the needs of the hour and the demands of the people, there arose a man who, with no selfish ends to serve and no selfish ambition to satisfy, was able to touch the hearts of the people of both sections, and to subdue the spirit of sectionalism that was still rampant long after the carpetbag governments in the South had been overthrown by the force of public opinion. That man was Henry Woodfin Grady [1851-1889]. He took up his public work in earnest in 1876, though he had been preparing for it since the day that he could read a school history. In that year he became one of the editors of the 'Atlanta Constitution,' and at once turned

his attention to the situation in which his State had been left by the war. . . . Whether he used his tongue or pen, the public soon found out that he had control of that mysterious power which moves men. . . . From first to last he could never be induced to use this great gift for his personal advancement, nor could he be induced to accept a political office. With a mind entirely sincere and unselfish, he addressed himself to the work of restoring unity between the North and South, and to putting an end to the sectional strife which the politicians were skillfully using to further their own schemes. He was asked to be a United States senator, and refused; he was asked to be a congressman, and refused. For the rest, he could have had any office within the gift of the people of Georgia; but he felt that he could serve the State and the South more perfectly in the way that he had himself mapped out. He felt that the time had come for some one to say a bold and manly word in behalf of the American Union in the ear of the South, and to say a bold and manly word in behalf of the South in the ear of the North. He began this work, and carried it on as a private citizen; and the result was, that, though he died before he had reached the prime of his life, he had won a name and a popularity in all parts of the country, both North and South, that no other private citizen had ever before succeeded in winning. It was Henry Grady that gave the apt name of 'The New South' to the spirit that his tireless energy and enthusiasm had called from the dark depths of reconstruction. Of this spirit, and the movement that sprang from it, he was the prophet, the pioneer, the promoter. He saw the South poor in the midst of the most abundant resources that Providence ever blessed a people with, and he turned aside from politics to point the way out. He saw the people going about in deep despair, and he gave them the cue of hope, and touched them with his own enthusiasm. He saw the mighty industrial forces lying dormant, and his touch awoke them to life. He saw great enterprises languishing, and he called the attention of capital to them. Looking farther afield, he saw the people of two great sections forgetting patriotism and duty, and reviving the prejudices and issues that had led to the war, and that had continued throughout the war, and he went about among them, speaking words of peace and union,—appealing to the spirit of patriotism which held the Northern and Southern people together when they were building the Republic, when they stood side by side amid the sufferings of Valley Forge, and when they saw the army of a mighty monarch surrender to the valor of American soldiers at Yorktown. With the enthusiasm of a missionary and the impetuous zeal of an evangelist, he went about rebuking the politicians, and preaching in behalf of peace, union, and genuine patriotism. Such was the mission of Henry W. Grady, and the work that he did will live after him. 'The New South' will cease to be new, but the people will never cease to owe him a debt of gratitude for the work that he did in urging forward the industrial progress of this region, and in making peace between the sections. He was the builder, the peacemaker."—J. A. Harris, *Stories of Georgia*, pp. 312-314.

1881-1895.—Exposition.—The International Cotton, Piedmont, and Cotton States International expositions were held in Atlanta, 1881, 1887, and 1895 respectively. The inception of the first was due to the desire to improve the cultivation and manufacture of cotton. The chief purpose of the third was the presentation of the agricultural man-

ufacturing and mineral resources of the southern states.

1889.—Lynching statistics. See LYNCH LAW: Origin.

1891.—Segregation of the races.—An act was passed requiring separate public traveling conveyances for white people and for negroes.

1909.—Railroad strike. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1905-1921.

1913. Tax Equalization Act. See DUE PROCESS OF LAW: Judicial decisions.

1914-1915.—Frank case.—Attitude of Governors Slaton and Harris.—"It devolved upon Governor Slaton, in the closing hours of his administration [June, 1915] to speak the final word in the most celebrated murder trial on record in Georgia—the trial of Leo M. Frank, a Jew, charged [in 1914] with the murder of . . . fourteen-year-old Mary Phagan. . . . Every effort to secure for Frank a new trial had been exhausted. New lawyers to plead the defendant's case on constitutional grounds before the Supreme Court of the United States had been retained; but without avail. . . . The fact that Frank was a Jew brought to his support, in an ever increasing circle, the members of his race not only in Georgia but throughout the country. . . . There was probably little anti-Semitic feeling at the time of the trial. Popular indignation vented itself rather against the crime itself, an atrocious act of brutality. . . . [However] throughout the country there was a widespread criticism of the courts of Georgia for refusing to accord Frank a new trial; and not only individuals of prominence but corporate bodies of great influence . . . [begged] for clemency, on Frank's behalf, in the name of an outraged civilization. . . . It must be said, in sheer justice to Frank, that no prisoner ever possessed such advocates. Nor can it be denied that doubt as to his guilt was entertained by every tribunal before which his case was reviewed. . . . Thus the matter stood when Governor Slaton was called upon to act as the final arbiter in this celebrated case. . . . [He] finally resolved the problem by granting a commutation of the prisoner's sentence from death to life imprisonment. . . . On the day following Frank's commutation an excited mob, threatening violence to Governor Slaton, assembled on the steps of the capitol. . . . It is only fair to the great State of Georgia to say that the mob spirit . . . was not representative of the better element of the state's population; though the governor's action in commuting Frank's sentence was criticized by thousands of good men who believed that the prisoner was guilty and that the sentence of the court should have been executed. . . . On the night of Monday, August 16, 1915, between 10 and 11 o'clock, a mob, presumably numbering twenty-five men, overpowered the officers on duty at the prison farm, near Milledgeville, made direct for the quarters in which Leo M. Frank was confined. [He was taken from the prison and lynched.] . . . Governor Harris [who had succeeded Slaton], boldly denounced the lawlessness which had brought reproach upon the fair name of Georgia, and he also published a proclamation in which he offered substantial rewards for the arrest of the guilty parties, with evidence to convict."—L. L. Knight, *Standard history of Georgia and Georgians*, v. 2, pp. 1165-1167, 1169, 1171-1180, 1189.—Thomas E. Watson, who conducted a press campaign against Frank, stated that after the commutation of the death-penalty, "the people rose and carried into effect the legal sentence." The *Marietta Journal* published a similar defense of the deed: "The people demanded that the ver-

dict of the court be carried out, and saw to it that it was. We insist they were, and are, law-abiding citizens of Georgia."

1915-1921.—Reorganization of the Ku Klux Klan. See **KU KLUX KLAN**: 1921.

1916.—Election of Governor Dorsey.—Measures passed by the legislature.—Early in the spring of 1916 opposition to Governor Harris as a candidate for reelection began to crystallize. The candidate for whom the people were calling at this time was Hugh M. Dorsey, of Atlanta, the prosecutor in the celebrated Frank case. His zeal in the handling of this case had tended to make him a popular idol. "With the approach of the state primary election on September 12th, the contest for governor became increasingly warm; but long before its results were registered at the ballot box the election of Mr. Dorsey was clearly indicated by the political wind currents. When the returns were finally tabulated, his popular vote totalled 106,680 against 70,908 for Governor Harris, 26,693 for Dr. Hardman, and 7,148 for Mr. Pottle. . . . The brilliant young solicitor-general not only swept the state but gathered more than 100 counties under his victorious banner."—L. L. Knight, *Standard history of Georgia and Georgians*, v. 2, p. 1211.—Hugh M. Dorsey served from 1917 to 1921.

"Women may now practice law in Georgia upon the same conditions as men. This is one of the few measures of importance passed by the legislature just adjourned [1916]. A compulsory-education law also was placed upon the statute books, but it is weak. [See below: 1919.] It provides that children between eight and fourteen shall attend school or be taught at home for at least four months in the year. The Highway Commission law, rushed through at the last minute, leaves it doubtful whether the State will be able to claim the \$2,000,000 which, under certain arrangements, it might receive from the Federal appropriation for good roads. The Constitutional amendment exempting college endowments from taxation was defeated; a majority of House and Senate favored it, but the necessary two-thirds could not be obtained. The capital will remain at Atlanta."—*Nation*, Aug. 31, 1916.—See also **DUE PROCESS OF LAW**.

1916-1917.—Migration of negroes.—Its suppression. See **RACE PROBLEMS**: 1905-1921.

1917.—Primary election law passed.—Primary elections for certain offices by the county unit system were provided for by an act of the legislature.

1918.—Part played in the World War.—Prohibition amendment ratified.—Budget system provided.—The state furnished 79,000 soldiers or 2.3% of the whole force. A national army camp, Camp Gordon, was located near Atlanta; National Guard camps, Hancock and Wheeler, were located at Augusta and Macon respectively; a motor transport camp at Atlanta; and a medical camp at Fort Oglethorpe. Georgia ratified the eighteenth federal (liquor prohibition) amendment on July 22, being the thirteenth state. A budget system was provided by legislative act.

1919.—Ratification of woman suffrage amendment defeated.—New school code.—The legislature defeated ratification of the nineteenth federal (woman suffrage) amendment on July 24, 1919. In this year a new school code was passed which required attendance through the seventh grade, and allowed only temporary exceptions.

1920.—Workmen's compensation. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE**: Details for various countries: United States: 1920.

1920.—Presidential vote.—Georgia's vote for

president was divided as follows: Harding (Republican), 41,089; Cox (Democratic), 107,162; Debs (Socialist), 465; Watkins (Prohibitionist), 8. Thomas W. Hardwick ran for governor and was elected.

ALSO IN: R. P. Brooks, *History of Georgia*.—L. B. Evans, *History of Georgia*.—C. C. Jones, *History of Georgia*.—H. M'Call, *History of Georgia*.—W. J. Northen, ed., *Men of mark in Georgia*.—U. B. Phillips, *Georgia's local archives*.—L. L. Knight, *Reminiscences of famous Georgians*.—A. M. Arnett, *Populist movement in Georgia*.

**GEORGIA, Republic of: Geographical position.—Area and population.**—Georgia was one of the three independent republics which came into existence after the dissolution of the Transcaucasian Diet, on May 26, 1918. The official title is "The Fraternal Soviet Republic of Georgia." It is situated in Transcaucasia, between the Black and Caspian seas, where the Georgians "and their kindred races practically occupy the entire Transcaucasian coast on the Black Sea. In the south they adjoin the Armenians. In the east their neighbors are the Tartars. The Caucasus range is north of them."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, p. 292.—Its area is about 30,000 square miles, to which may be added some additional territory still in dispute with the neighboring republics of Erivan and Azerbaijan. The latest statistics available, 1915, give the population as 3,053,345.—See also **EUROPE**: Modern: Political map.

**Ethnology.—Language.—Culture.**—"The Georgians belong to the Aryan family. They settled in their present country thousands of years ago, arriving from the great Iranian plateau."—*Ibid*, p. 293.—"They are divided into a number of separate tribal stocks, each of which has its peculiar customs and in some cases its distinct language. The principal groups are Georgians proper, Mingrelians, Osietines, Hevsurs, Abbasians, and Emertines. Of these the Emertines constitute the largest racial group and have more energy and executive ability than the other tribes."—*Supplement to Commerce Reports*, Nov. 10, 1920.—In recent years there has been a fusion among the various Georgian tribes, resulting in the adoption of one literary language. "Their civilization is the oldest in the Caucasus, if not in the entire world. . . . [The aristocratic class is] highly educated, and even among the common people illiteracy is low. It has been said that proportionately the Georgian nation has more men of letters, journalists, poets and dramatists than any other race in the world."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, pp. 293, 298.—See also **PHILOLOGY**: 23; **IBERIANS, EASTERN**.

**B.C. 323-A.D. 19th century.—Summary of its history.**—"The history of Georgia as an independent State goes back to biblical times. According to Georgian tradition, their kingdom was founded by a descendant of Noah. It was only during the third century B. C., however, that Georgia became identified with recorded history."—*Ibid*, p. 293.—"The Georgian kingdom lasted over two thousand years, from 323 B. C., when it was conquered by Alexander of Macedon, to 1801 A. D., when it was confiscated by Alexander of Russia. The Georgians thus have been in a subjection to Russia only a little over a century and we ought to count out of that the period 1836-1864, when they were in revolt. By the treaty of 1783 Georgia came under the 'protection' of Russia and it was stipulated that the Georgians should retain their king, that they should have self-government, that their church should be independent, that no more than 6,000 Russian troops should be quartered there, that Georgians should not be conscripted for the

Russian army and that the Georgian language should be used in schools and administration. Needless to say the Russian Government kept none of these promises. Georgia lost its king. It was ruled by the Russian bureaucracy. The Georgian church was brought under the Holy Synod of St. Petersburg and its property, amounting to \$350,000,000, was confiscated."—E. Slosson, *From Baluchistan to Baku* (Independent, August 31, 1918).

1080-1383.—Reforms of David III.—Of Queen Tamara. See CAUCASUS: 1080-1303.

15th century.—Persian domination. See CAUCASUS: 1400-1737.

1736-1799.—Rule of Irakli II.—Friendship with Persia.—Treaty with Russia. See CAUCASUS: 1736-1799.

1799.—Becomes a Russian province. See CAUCASUS: 1801-1877.

1800-1918.—Revolutionary movement.—Gurian Republic.—Declaration of Independence.—“Georgian nationalism, however, was not suppressed by the Russian policy. With the growth of a revolutionary movement throughout Russia there also developed one in Georgia. At first it took a national turn only, fostered by the aristocratic classes. . . . Toward the end of the nineteenth century Socialism began to spread in Georgia, making remarkable headway. It aimed primarily at the semi-feudal landlords, as well as the limited industrial plants which had developed in Georgia in recent years. The Socialists became a great force in Georgia, embracing in their ranks the peasants, workers and intellectuals. . . . The Socialist elements practically controlled the destinies of the country during the revolutionary year of 1905. . . . [The aristocratic class] strove for separation from Russia, advocating complete independence for Georgia. However, the Socialists stood for union with democratic Russia, some of them claiming autonomy in an all-Russian federation. All Georgians were united in their opposition to monarchism. All desired the republican form of government. It was from the midst of the Socialists that there sprang into being the so-called Gurian Republic, which attracted international attention in the year of 1905. . . . They began with refusing to pay their annual taxes to the Russian authorities; they proceeded to boycott the government officials and set up a communistic administration; they established native schools in which Socialism was taught and introduced popular tribunals in place of the corrupt Russian courts. The whole economic, political and social status of the race was modeled after the latest socialistic theories. . . . The ‘Gurian Republic’ became the target of the reactionary government. Cossacks and infantry were sent to suppress it, causing terrible bloodshed. It was finally wiped out and thousands of Georgians were jailed and exiled.”—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, pp. 208-209.—See also CAUCASUS: 1801-1917.—“For more than a century, namely, up to the beginning of the twentieth century, Georgians, as a rule, were proud to pass as Russians and be identified as members of the Russian Orthodox Church. The ideal of their landed aristocracy, which formed about six per cent. of the entire population of Georgia, and their middle classes, was to get some Russian education and then enter the State service and the Caucasian army; while the mass of their peasantry was still being kept in a condition of feudal semi-slavery. Their great poet of recent years, Agagi Tsereteli, contrasted in one of his popular songs the vanity of the average Georgian . . . with his Armenian neighbour, who was ‘push-

ing’ to acquire the larger share in the economic and political activities in Trans-Caucasia. . . . When revolution broke out in Russia in 1905 and the Caucasus was thrown into a state of anarchy, the Georgians proclaimed the independent Republic of Kutais, which a few months later, however, was smothered in blood and smoke by the Alikhanov Don Cossacks, who were sent down by the Tsar to re-establish ‘order’ in Trans-Caucasia. This bloodshed at Kutais roused the Georgian people from the depths of the torpor in which they had been sunk for more than a century. Since then their regeneration had assumed a distinctly nationalist character. Schools were founded in most villages, educational societies were formed to spread learning among their people, and claims against Russian oppression grew louder as their national self-consciousness yearly obtained fresh energy. . . .

“As a result of their geographical and ethnographical position, Georgian leaders—their Social-Democrats in particular—had been in close touch with Germany and Turkey even before the [World] War. . . . ‘While in 1915-16 the Georgian members in the State Duma were rendering lip-service to the cause of Russia,’ said, recently, the *Zaria Rossi*, the Moscow Cadet paper, ‘there is evidence that the same members, Chkhengelli, Chkheidze and others, were in secret communication with our enemies, who, since the beginning of the war, and before it, have tried their utmost to paralyze Russia and encourage by all means the centrifugal forces in our country.’ The revolution of March, 1917, gave a fresh impetus to Georgian nationality. With the coming of the revolutionary storm the aristocracy, the clergy and the State officials, who had been the mainstay of the Russian régime among Georgians, suddenly disappeared from the scene, and their place was occupied either by Nationalist leaders or by Social-Democrat Mensheviks claiming the leadership of the Georgian people. This outburst of Nationalism first took a religious shape. From the first day of the downfall of Tsarism, the Georgians insisted on the establishment of the autocephaly of their Church and on the hierarchical independence of their clergy from the jurisdiction of the Petrograd Synod. In defiance of the definite orders from Kerenski and the Synod at Petrograd, the Georgians proclaimed, in May, 1917, the spiritual independence of their Church amid scenes of great enthusiasm and ceremony. This first success made the Georgians more outspoken in regard to their political claims and national pretensions. For many months, after the Revolution, Georgian leaders were discussing the natural frontiers of Georgia, the conditions of strategic defence and the economic development of their country. The weaker Russia became under the Kerenski Government, the more violent grew the anti-Russian feeling among Georgians. In spite of the threats of Kerenski they seized the Church and school properties, with large endowments, which, after the fusion of the two Churches in 1801, had been considered as Russian. In June, 1917, the solemn consecration of Kiron II. as the supreme spiritual head of Georgia as against the Exarch of Georgia, appointed by the Synod at Petrograd, brought about almost a break-up of Russo-Georgian relations. At the same time they were developing all manifestations of their national life: in conjunction with Armenians they nationalized the State secondary schools (gymnasias), they established a Georgian University at Tiflis, and gathered funds for promoting research in their history, philology and folk-lore. In November (1917) Georgian

leaders met at a national conference to examine the attitude they should adopt in regard to the new situation . . . [consequent to the Bolshevik ascendancy in Russia]. There is reason to believe that throughout the conflict with Turkey, since November, 1917, Georgians never meant to fight, notwithstanding all the declarations of their leaders in favour of the common defence of the Caucasus. During March and April . . . [1918], when the Armenian delegates in the Trans-Caucasian Diet were urging the necessity of joining hands and defending the Caucasus against the Turks, Chkhen-gelli and Gegechkori excused themselves on the plea that the Bolshevik movement and propaganda had made havoc in Georgian troops that they could in no way rely even upon their national battalions to fight the Turk. . . . The Georgians argue that the Armenian troops were no less demoralized than their own, as had been proved in the half-hearted defence of Erzerum in the middle of last March [1918]. Between November, 1917, and June, 1918, during the various negotiations for peace or war with the Turks, the Georgian National Council maintained a correct attitude in regard to the cession of Batum and Ardahan. Various German missions had already made their appearance in Tiflis as early as last January (1918). These Germans are reported as having considerably influenced the course of Georgian politics during those critical months. Efforts made by the Georgian Socialist-Federalist Party to organize a volunteer corps for defending Batum, as well as the whole-hearted sacrifices of the peasants of Gouria, were all in vain on account of the resolve of the Georgian Council to comply with the peace terms of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty."—*Independent republic of Georgia (New Europe, Feb. 27, 1919, pp. 153-156)*.—"When, however, by the Brest-Litovsk treaty, the Bolsheviks agreed to surrender to Turkey large portions of Russian Armenia and Georgia, the Georgians, Armenians, and Tartars of the Caucasus united for their own defense. A temporary Government composed of representatives of the three races was called, with Chkhenkeli, a Georgian, as President, and in April, 1918, an independent federated republic of the Caucasus was declared. This republic did not endure. Racial enmities were too strong. . . . As a matter of fact it lasted less than five weeks. On May 26, 1918, Georgia, depending on aid from Germany, declared herself an independent republic. Two days later the Tartars declared the republic of Azerbaidjan; and the same day, May 28, 1918, Russian Armenia declared herself as an independent Armenian Republic, with Erivan as its capital."—*New York Times Current History, Jan., 1920, pp. 141-142*.—"On 26 May last [1918], two hours after the dissolution of the Trans-Caucasian Diet, the Georgian National Council at Tiflis met in the 'White Hall' of the palace which used to be the residence of the Viceroys of Caucasus and proclaimed the political independence of Georgia, amid the demonstrations of their people. Mr. Noé Jordania, the President of the Georgian Council, read the following Act of Independence:

"For centuries past Georgia had existed as a free and independent State; but towards the end of the eighteenth century, being hard pressed by enemies, Georgia merged herself into the Russian State so as to get the latter's protection against foreign enemies. . . . The present movement imperatively demands that Georgia should organize herself as a separate State in order to defend the country against the enemy and lay foundations for free development. . . . Consequently the National Council of Georgia, elected on 22 Novem-

ber 1917, at the National Conference of the Representatives of Georgia, now declares to the people that Georgia is henceforth a sovereign independent State. . . . The democratic republic of Georgia will try to maintain friendly relations with all members of the Society of Nations and particularly with certain peoples and States. It will secure all civil and political rights to everyone living within its frontiers without any distinction of religion, nationality, or social position. The democratic republic of Georgia will afford wide scope in its territory to all peoples for free development."—*New Europe, Feb., 1919, pp. 151-153*.—Noé Jordania assumed the presidency of the Provisional Government, with a Ministry responsible to the National Council. The new government disclaimed at once reactionary and Bolshevik interests.—See also CAUCASUS; 1918-1920.

1918.—*Turkish-Georgian Treaty*.—Part played by Georgia in World War.—When Turkey invaded Transcaucasia to carry out the provisions of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, "the Georgians were compelled to seek protection in Berlin. Perhaps it was due to Germany's influence that Turkey finally consented to conclude peace with Georgia. The Turkish-Georgian treaty was a direct violation of the Brest-Litovsk pact. Turkey, in addition to the territory obtained by the latter agreement, now wrested from weak Georgia the Achalkalaki district of the Tiflis province."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations, p. 302*.—South of Georgia the Turks invaded Armenia, occupied Ardahan and Kars, and encroached on Georgia. By the peace terms with the Turks, initialled at Batum on 3 June, 1918, the Georgians had to sign away the coast strip of Batum, including the town and the whole district of Akhaltsikh, except the town of Abastuman. "In regard to the alleged treaty between Georgia and Turkey said to have been found in the archives of Talaat Bey in Constantinople by the High Commission of the Allies, Constantin J. Djakelly, in denying its authenticity, demonstrates for the first time what the Georgians have done in the great war: The Georgians have fought on all Russian fronts in a greater proportion to their number than that of any other nationality save perhaps Serbia. Georgian public opinion has well understood the meaning of this war and the principles involved, and it was a Georgian leader—Tserethelli—who, after his return from Siberia during the first months of the revolution, visited the Russian western front and . . . appealed to the Russian armies to continue to fight, warning them and the revolutionaries that the conclusion of a separate peace with Germany would mean a great blow to the cause of mankind and an irreparable disaster for Russia. As to Georgia's relationship with Turkey, it was the unfortunate lot of Georgia to have to fight this restive and insatiable neighbor for many centuries from the very day they approached her frontiers until today. Besides having sent regular soldiers to fight the enemies of the Entente on different fronts, Georgia formed a legion of volunteers, not to fight on the side of the Turks, but against the Turks, and the legion fought so well that its commander . . . was made Colonel by the late Emperor Nicholas and attached to the person of the Grand Duke Nicholas. After the signature of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, when a great majority of the Georgian regular soldiers were still scattered along the Russian western front, before they had time to return to Georgia, that country had to continue to fight the Turks, and . . . in spite of insufficient arms and ammunition, . . . prevented further penetration of the Turkish Army in Georgian terri-

tory. One of the first acts of the Georgian government was to issue a proclamation saying that Georgia had three enemies—the Bolsheviks, the Turks, and the anti-revolutionists.”—*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1919, p. 40.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b, 3.—Although the Allies after the armistice took possession again of Batum and other Transcaucasian lands for a time, they failed to take sufficient precautions to get Turkish administrators and soldiers out of Asia Minor east of Taurus; and Pan Turanianism revived.

1919.—Refusal to take part in the proposed Prinkipo conference.—The republic declined to take part in the proposed conference at the Princes' islands (see RUSSIA: 1919), “not because it was not in sympathy with the endeavors of the Paris Peace Conference to restore law and order in Russia, but because it no longer considered itself a part of that empire, but a fully independent State conscious of its proclaimed and established rights.”—*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1919, p. 40.

1919-1920.—Relations with Armenia and Azerbaijan.—“During 1919 the Georgian Government succeeded in maintaining friendly relations with Azerbaijan and Armenia in spite of many territorial disputes, and exercised a careful neutrality between Soviet Russia and its enemies.”—*Supplement to Commerce Reports*, Nov. 10, 1920.—There were, however, reports of boundary clashes between Georgia and the Tatar republic in 1920, which were brought to an end by an armistice on May 19.

1920.—Recognition by the Soviet government.—Batum.—By a treaty signed at Moscow on the night of May 7-8, and ratified on June 12, the Soviet government recognized the independence and sovereignty of Georgia, and renounced all interference in the internal affairs of the new republic. Batum, which falls within the national boundaries of Georgia, was turned over to the latter on July 8 by the Entente, which had occupied it. The Supreme Council, however, decided that the port of Batum should be internationalized and made a common outlet for Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan.

1920.—Economic conditions.—“Since her independence began Georgia has found herself in a very difficult economic and financial position; for she was, economically, undeveloped and lacked the necessary material resources. She has now enjoyed independence for over two years, but her economic condition has not improved. . . . [The state of affairs in Georgia grew steadily worse until it became necessary to summon a conference at] Tiflis to decide the guiding principles in accordance with which the economic life of the State should be regulated. . . . After hearing a number of reports the Conference made numerous proposals for the reconstruction of the economic life of the country, and expressed the wish that all the estates of the realm and the towns should take the initiative in this matter without, however, destroying private enterprise.”—*Basler Nachrichten*, Jan. 6, 1921, in *Review of the Foreign Press (Economic Review)*, Jan. 21, 1921).

1920.—Guaranteed free passage to the Black sea by Treaty of Sévres. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part XI., Ports, waterways and railways.

1920.—Foreign relations.—“Georgia, however, after the Turco-Bolshevist junction, was left isolated, . . . unable to intervene actively on behalf of Armenia. The policy of Georgia was shown in a memorandum presented to the Assembly of the

League of Nations by M. Guegetchkori, the Foreign Minister, and his fellow-delegates on November 15 [1920]. In this memorandum Georgia asked for admission to the League, pointing out the important rôle which she was politically and geographically destined to play in the stabilizing of conditions in the Caucasus area, so torn by strife and beset by international problems of all kinds.”—*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1921, p. 73.—“Georgia, which for so many months had steered a perilous course through the dangers of Transcaucasus politics, and managed, by skillful maneuvering, to maintain both its neutrality and its independence, found itself in stormy waters after the Bolshevik seizure of Armenia. . . . The hostility between Georgia and the Soviets was brought to a head by the drastic measures adopted by the Georgian Government during the first two weeks in December [1920] in tracking down and arresting a large number of Communist agitators in its territory. The Bolshevik régime, in retaliation, arrested Georgian representatives in Baku and Erivan, and cut off shipments of oil and other fuel into Georgia, thereby disorganizing the latter country's transportation system. . . . The Soviet representative in Tiflis, however, on December 20, received instructions to co-operate with the Bolshevik Government of Baku in overthrowing the Georgian Government. Meanwhile, the Tenth Bolshevik Army was concentrated on the Georgian frontier, and received orders to march into Georgia and assist the Georgian communists in carrying out their project of transforming Georgia into another Soviet dependency.”—*Red rule in the Caucasus (New York Times Current History)*, Feb., 1921, pp. 340-341).

1921.—*De jure* restoration by the Allies.—Occupied by Turkish and Bolshevik forces.—“The Georgian Foreign Minister, early in January, protested to the Soviet Government against the seizure of its oil supplies, the massing of Bolshevik troops upon its frontier, the erection of military works upon its territory, and the raiding and looting of its frontier population. It extended its protest to the whole civilized world.”—*Red rule in the Caucasus (New York Times Current History)*, Feb., 1921, pp. 340-341.—“At the reparations conference in Paris on January 29 [1921], the four principal powers—England, France, Italy and Japan—granted what the little Caucasus Republic of Georgia, struggling to stem the Bolshevik tide, most ardently longed for, viz: *de jure* recognition as an independent and sovereign State. The efforts of M. Guegetchkori, Georgian Minister of Foreign Affairs, to induce the powers to take this long-deferred step thus were crowned with success. . . . The Bolshevik invasion planned at the end of January did not occur; . . . the Georgian Government discovered the plot in time and nipped it in the bud by wholesale arrests of the communist agitators who were working to make the Russian armed invasion a triumphal march. . . . The Moscow plotters, however, continued their plans to add Georgia to their list of subjugated Caucasian territories. . . . Three divisions of the Bolshevik Eleventh Army, including the whole of the available Russo-Armenian Army and a considerable number of Azerbaijan Tartars, had fallen upon Georgia simultaneously from the north and the southeast, one army advancing from Sochi and Gagra, on the Black Sea; the other, advancing in Azerbaijan, had captured Salakllu, south of Tiflis, on Feb. 16. The Georgian troops soon gave evidence of being outnumbered. Tiflis was occupied by the Red cavalry of General Budenny, after severe street fighting, on Feb. 25. Thou-

sands of refugees fled to Kutais, where the Georgian Government set up provisionally its shattered rule. . . . The Georgian Government vainly tried to rally its demoralized forces, to mobilize new troops and to requisition supplies. The Bolsheviks were temporarily driven out of Tiflis, but reentered the city and there established themselves firmly. Soviet troops were pouring in on all railroads and highways leading to Tiflis. Meanwhile, the French destroyers cruising along the eastern coast of the Black Sea opened fire on the Bolsheviks at Gagri, inflicting severe losses. The Russo-Armenians remained in possession of Bortchalu [which had been taken possession of by the Georgians in the preceding year]. The next effort of the Bolsheviks was to gain possession of the important Black Sea port of Batum. Despite the fire of the French fleet, they captured Sukhum Kale, on the coast, and marched swiftly down toward Batum. At this juncture, however, the Nationalist Turks, fearful that the capture of this port by the Reds would make the Turkish occupation of Armenia impossible, ordered the Turkish Army under Kazio Kaarbekir, commander of the Fifteenth Army, already on the outskirts of Batum, to take the city, the capture of which was reported on March 10. . . . The Turks declared martial law in Batum and began a general disarmament of the Georgian troops and of the population. . . . Despite the fact that a Turko-Russian treaty had been concluded on March 16, under which Turkey engaged to cede Batum back to Georgia, the Russians on March 19 sent a virtual ultimatum to the Turks in Batum ordering them to evacuate within forty-eight hours. In the fighting which promptly followed, the Georgian troops made common cause with the Red soldiers, and after an artillery battle and street fighting the Turks were ousted, except from a small part of the town. A Soviet Government was promptly established in Batum, which, it was said, would probably coalesce with that already set up at Tiflis. . . . The Kemalists continued to occupy part of Batum as late as March 23, despite the Georgians' efforts to dislodge them; the town was suffering from disorder and lack of food. Finally, on March 25, it was announced that the Kemalists troops had withdrawn altogether, in accordance with an agreement arranged between them and the Georgians by the Russian Bolshevik command."—*Speedy end of the Caucasus republic (New York Times Current History, May, 1921, pp. 264-265)*.—In February the Caucasus states were taken over by Soviet Russia.

1922 (March-April).—Revolt against Bolshevik rule.—Protest against Soviet occupation at Genoa conference.—"The revolt in Georgia, the Sovietized Caucasus republic, against the Bolshevik rule in that country, which began on March 15, progressed through March and April to the point where the Soviet officials admitted it to be extremely serious. The Bolshevik forces, at the end of April were preparing for a strong offensive against the insurgents concentrated in the rocky fastnesses of Svanethia. The Soviet commander in this region sent a report to the Staff Headquarters at Tiflis on April 22, saying that the offensive had been stopped on account of the difficulties of the position, adding that the spokesmen of the Georgians had declared their struggle to be purely national and political and had demanded that Georgia be evacuated by the Russian invaders. Besides sending out a vigorous protest against the Bolshevik occupation of Georgia, addressed to all the labor elements of the world, the exiled Georgian Government sent a special delegation to

Genoa to protest *viva voce* against the present situation. The Georgian spokesmen made this protest before the Economic Commission on April 23. They denied the right of the Russian Soviet delegation to speak at Genoa for their country, and maintained that the Russians had seized Georgia only to control its vast oil resources. M. Chenkelli, a member of the former Russian Duma, stated the situation thus: Georgia was recognized *de facto* in January, 1920, and *de jure* in January, 1921, not only by the Entente, but also by the enemy States. A fortnight after the *de jure* recognition, Georgia was invaded by both the Bolsheviks and the Mussulmans, who thus established direct communication. . . . When she presented her case at the Paris Near East Conference, it had been decided to leave the Georgian question open."—*New York Times Current History, June, 1922, pp. 536-537*.

1922 (April-May).—Bolshevik rule unpopular.—Georgian aspirations to independence.—Soviet rule proved highly unsatisfactory to the Georgians, who complained, together with the people of Azerbaijan, against Russian bureaucratic tyranny and the disastrous economic policy of Bolshevism. Fear of the Turk kept Armenia silent; Russian protection compensated for Russian maladministration. A statement issued by Georgian labor leaders at the end of April appeared in a Vienna journal in May as follows: "At a time when the entire Georgian people is undergoing a fearful trial under the domination of the Red imperialistic troops and under the agents sent here by the Bolsheviks, who call themselves the Georgian Government, we are convinced through this fraternal gift that the Georgian working class has not been abandoned to its fate. It inspires us with the hope that the European proletariat—the defender of all oppressed peoples—will now raise its voice against Russian imperialism and save the workers and peasants of Georgia from physical annihilation." The "fraternal gift" mentioned in the statement referred to medicines and hospital stores donated by Austrian workers.

**GEORGIAN LANGUAGE:** History and distribution. See **PHILOLOGY:** 23.

**GEORGIAN PERIOD IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.** See **ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920**.

**GEOUGEN, or Jwen-Jwen,** Mongolian tribe of northern China, to whom a branch of the Turks were under subjection prior to the sixth century. See **TURKEY:** 6th century.

**GEPIDAE, or Loiteres,** Germanic tribe, a branch of the Goths. See **GOTHIS: Origin; HUNS; LOMBARDS: Early history; AVARS; EUROPE: Ethnology:** Map showing barbaric migrations.

**GERALDINES.**—The Geraldines of Irish history were descendants of Maurice and William Fitzgerald, two of the first among the Anglo-Norman adventurers to engage in the conquest of Ireland, 1160-1170. (See also **ULSTER: 1190-1260**.) Their mother was a Welsh princess, named Nest, or Nesta, who is said to have been the mistress of Henry I of England, and afterwards to have married the Norman baron, Gerald Fitz Walter, who became the father of the Fitzgeralds. "Maurice Fitzgerald, the eldest of the brothers, became the ancestor both of the earls of Kildare and Desmond; William, the younger, obtained an immense grant of land in Kerry from the McCarthys. . . . As time went on the lordship of the Desmond Fitzgeralds grew larger and larger, until it covered nearly as much ground as many a small European kingdom. Nor was this all. The White Knight, the Knight of Glyn, and the Knight of



Kerry were all three Fitzgeralds, all descended from the same root, and all owned large tracts of country. The position of the Geraldines of Kildare was even more important, on account of their close proximity to Dublin. In later times their great keep at Maynooth dominated the whole Pale, while their followers swarmed everywhere, each man with a G. embroidered upon his breast in token of his allegiance. . . . [Their strength grew apace during the Wars of the Roses, and by] the beginning of the 16th century their power had reached to, perhaps, the highest point ever attained in . . . [the British Isles] by any subject. Whoever might be called the Viceroy in Ireland it was the Earl of Kildare who practically governed the country."—E. Lawless, *Story of Ireland*, ch. 14.—Thomas Earl of Desmond, was actual deputy of Ireland from 1463-1467 when he was superseded by the Earl of Worcester, who had both him and Kildare attainted for coyne and livery. (See IRELAND: 1413-1467.) Thereafter the Kildare branch of the family became more powerful. Garret (Gerald) the eighth earl became deputy in 1496, and on his death in 1513 was succeeded by his son Garret Oge, but the rebellion of "Silken" Thomas, the son of Garret Oge in 1535, brought about the ruin of his house. Only one of Garret's sons was left, young Gerald Fitzgerald, who was sent to the continent, and lived there until by submission to Queen Mary, he was enabled to return. He conformed to the Protestant faith under Elizabeth, and his successors became loyal upholders of the English crown. Meanwhile James Earl of Desmond carried on intrigues with France and with the emperor, which, but for his death, in 1529, might have brought him to the block. (See IRELAND: 1520-1540.) His successors were fully occupied for some time with family affairs; but Earl James practically ruled Munster from 1540 until his death in 1558 and held it quiet. After his death, renewed family disputes about the succession, and quarrels with the Butlers created strife which caused the imprisonment, in the Tower, of Earl Gerald, who had been confirmed in the title by Elizabeth, and his brother John Desmond, both of whom were held in durance from 1567 to 1673. During the absence of the earl his cousin James Fitzmaurice Fitzgerald formed the Geraldine League from which came the Geraldine rebellion, the destruction of the house of Desmond, and the confiscation of its great territories. (See IRELAND: 1559-1603.) The Viceroyship came into the Kildare family again in 1756, when the earl was made deputy. Ten years later he was created duke of Leinster. This title still remains in his family; but under the Land Purchase Act of 1883 the great estates which had been held from the period of the Anglo-Norman conquest passed into the possession of their tenants.—See also IRELAND: 1485-1509.

**GERALDINES**, League of the. See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

**GERAN ELECTIONS ACT (1911)**. See NEW JERSEY: 1911-1913.

**GERARD**, Balthasar (1558-1584), French religious fanatic, the assassin of William of Orange. See NETHERLANDS: 1581-1584.

**GERARD**, Etienne Maurice, Count (1773-1852), marshal of France. Minister of war during reign of Louis Philippe. See FRANCE: 1830-1840.

**GERARD**, James Watson (1867- ), American jurist and diplomat. Associate justice of the supreme court of New York, 1908-1913; United States ambassador to Germany, 1913-1917; author

of "My Four Years in Germany" and "Face to Face with Kaiserism." See U. S. A.: 1917 (February-April); WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 39; 40.

**GERBA**, or Jerba, Disaster at. See BARBARY STATES: 1543-1560.

**GEREFA**.—"The most general name for the fiscal, administrative and executive officer among the Anglosaxons was Gerefa, or as it is written in very early documents geroefa; but the peculiar functions of the individuals comprehended under it were further defined by a prefix compounded with it, as scirgerefa, the reeve of the shire or sheriff; tungerefa, the reeve of the farm or bailiff. The exact meaning and etymology of this name have hitherto eluded the researches of our best scholars."—J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 5.—See also SHERIFF; SHIRE; EALDORMAN; COURTS: Early Teutonic.

**GERGESENES**, one of the tribes of the Canaanites, whose territory is believed by Lenormant to have "included all Decapolis and even Galilee," and whose capital he places at Gerasa, now Djerash, in Perea.—F. Lenormant and E. Chevallier, *Manual of ancient history*, v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 1.

**GERGITHIANS**, an early tribe of western Asia Minor. See TROY; ASIA MINOR: B.C. 1100.

**GERGOVIA OF THE ARVERNI**.—"The site of Gergovia of the Arverni is supposed to be a hill on the bank of the Allier, two miles from the modern Clermont in Auvergne. The Romans seem to have neglected Gergovia, and to have founded the neighbouring city, to which they gave the name Augustonemetum. The Roman city became known afterwards as Civitas Arvernorum, in the middle ages Arverna, and then, from the situation of its castle, clarus mons, Clermont."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, v. 2, p. 20, footnote ch. 12.—For an account of Caesar's reverse at Gergovia of the Arverni, see GAUL: B.C. 58-51.

**GERIZIM**.—"The sacred centre of the Samaritans is Gerizim, the 'Mount of Blessings.' On its summit a sacred rock marks the site where, according to their tradition, Joshua placed the Tabernacle and afterwards built a temple, restored later by Sanballat, on the return of the Israelites from captivity."—C. R. Conder, *Syrian stone lore*, ch. 4.

**GERLACHE**, Adrien de (de Gommery) (1866- ), Belgian scientist and explorer. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1897.

**GERLAND**, Georg Karl Cornelius (1833- ), German ethnologist and geographer. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Scope of study.

**GERM THEORY IN DISEASE**: Origin and development. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Introduction of the microscope in medicine.

**GERMAN AFRICA**: At outbreak of World War. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914.

**GERMAN AFRICAN COMPANY**: Formation (1878). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.

**GERMAN ANATOLIAN RAILWAY COMPANY**. See TURKEY: 1914.

**GERMAN ANNALS**. See ANNALS: French, German, etc.

**GERMAN ATROCITIES**: During World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.; also XI. Devastation: c.

**GERMAN BAPTISTS**. See DUNKARDS.

**GERMAN BLOC**. See BLOC: German bloc.

**GERMAN COLONIAL SOCIETY: Formation** (1882). See *AFRICA: Modern European occupation*: Later 19th century; 1884-1899.

**GERMAN EAST AFRICA.** See *TANGANYIKA TERRITORY*.

**GERMAN EAST AFRICA COMPANY: Formation** (1885). See *AFRICA: Modern European occupation*: Later 19th century; also Upper Nile, etc.

**GERMAN FEDERATED STATES, Conference of** (1918). See *GERMANY: 1918* (November).

**GERMAN FLATS,** township of Herkimer

county, New York, settled by Palatinate Germans about 1725.

**1765.—Treaty with the Indians.** See *U. S. A.: 1765-1768*.

**1778.—Destruction by Brant.** See *U. S. A.: 1778* (June-November).

**GERMAN INDIANS.** See *INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area*.

**GERMAN LANGUAGE.** See *PHILOLOGY: 9; 11*.

**GERMAN LEAGUE: Origin of Pan-German League.** See *PAN-GERMANISM: Doctrine defined*.

## GERMAN LITERATURE

**Introduction.—Points of development.**—"The fundamental conception which underlies the following account of the development of German literature is that of a continual struggle between individualistic and collective tendencies, between man and society, between personality and tradition, between liberty and unity, between cosmopolitanism and nationality,—a struggle which may be said to be the prime motive power of all human progress. The first appearance of Germanic tribes in the foreground of European history, the influx of the Northern barbarians into the decaying civilization of the Roman Empire, is marked by a dissolution of all social bonds. Severed from their native soil, thrust into a world in which their ancestral faith, customs, institutions have no authority, the Teutons of the era of the migrations experience for the first time on a grand scale the conflict between universal law and individual passion. The Germanic epic with its colossal types of heroic devotion, greed and guilt, is the poetic embodiment of this tragic conflict."—Francke, *History of German literature as determined by social forces, Introduction, p. 3*.—"Historically regarded, German literature admits of a natural division into three epochs, each of which is distinguished by special linguistic characteristics: an old High German period, in which the dialects of South Germany retained the wide range of vowel sounds to be found in all the older Germanic languages; a middle High German epoch, beginning about 1050, in which that diversity of vowel sounds and grammatical forms had in great measure disappeared; and, lastly, a New High German or Modern German period, which began about the middle of the fourteenth century. During the second of these periods, the High German dialects gained an ascendancy over those of the North and of Central Germany, while, in New High German times, German literature is practically restricted to High German."—J. G. Robertson. *History of German literature, Introduction, p. xvi*.—"These three culminating points of development [600, 1200, 1800 A.D.] imply a struggle to reach these points, an ascent followed by a descent. As far as we can judge, the tenth and sixteenth centuries were the times of deepest depression in German literature. Literary culture was then at its lowest ebb. . . . The poetry of these periods was not entirely wanting in creative genius; it had vast materials at its disposal, and even created certain moral types of great grandeur, though they were mostly the offspring of hatred or rude jest. . . . The times of deepest depression are likewise separated from each other by 600 years. The course of our history of literature may therefore be reduced to the simplest scheme: three great waves, trough and crest in regular succession. . . . Both the second and the third of the classical periods

are marked by a spirit of free criticism which triumphs over all prejudices. Respect for foreign nations increases, regardless of political differences. Men are liberal enough to feel that appreciation of foreign merits is no sin against national pride. Thus it was that the more developed sense of form, characteristic of the Romanic nations, exercised a beneficial influence on the Germans, purified their taste, incited them to imitation, yet withal developed their originality. . . . the dialectal separation between South and North German, which must have [been] begun about the year 600. Then arose the still existing difference between High- and Low-German dialects, and there was no educated language, no literary speech to bridge over the gulf. Two German languages were formed, and those who spoke them might easily have separated into two nations. . . . This separation of High German has exercised a momentous influence in German literature and German history. To it may be attributed in great measure the difficulty which the Germans have found in creating a united national literature and culture."—W. Scherer, *History of German literature, v. 1, pp. 17-18, 35-36*.

**A.D. 1st-9th centuries.—Intellectual conditions of the Germans in Roman times.—Oldest remains of poetry.—Wessobrunner Gebet.**—"In the winter of 98-99 the historian Tacitus collected all that was known about them [Teutons] in his celebrated *Germania*. . . . Tacitus appears to have had abundant material before him, drawn from immediate observation, and but slightly coloured by his own opinions. . . . The Germans were formerly a small tribe of a great race, sometimes called the Indo-Germanic race, but which we may designate by the name, probably used by themselves, of Aryan. . . . Before their dispersion the primitive Aryas had already passed out of the lowest stage of civilisation. . . . Their poetry was truthful, graphic, and full of imagery, and contained the germs of a connected view of things. . . . Personifications and allegories arose quite naturally, and explanations of remarkable phenomena or events in nature were drawn from the analogy of human experience. Peculiarities in animals were accounted for by fables, and remarkable occurrences in nature, both regular and irregular such as the alternation of day and night, the change of the seasons, or tempests, were explained in the same manner. These men saw a reflection of their own simple life in all that surrounded them, and in this naive way tried to account for whatever they could not understand. They created a rich mythology, reflecting the main incidents of a pastoral life, such as feuds caused by the capture of cattle or women, or raids upon rich owners."—W. Scherer, *History of German literature, v. 1, pp. 2-4*.

"This I heard as the greatest marvel among men, that once there was no earth, nor heaven above, the bright stars gave no light, the sun shone not, nor the moon, nor the glorious sea." With some such words as these begins a literary relic of the eighth or ninth century, ending in a prayer, the so-called 'Wessobrunner Gebet.' It is the beginning of a Saxon poem, written down in Bavaria. . . . The first line of the Bavarian Manuscript runs thus:—'Dat gafreġin ih mit firahim ġiriwiwo meġstá.' If these words are read aloud, the three f's at once strike the ear. The three similar initial letters serve to ornament and bind together the eight feet of the line. This alliteration may be regarded as an indispensable element of versification in all old German poetry. It gives to the verse not melody, but a characteristic sound; it does not beautify it, but makes it compact and strong. Such alliteration results from a tendency early found in the Germanic nature, which renders all art difficult to us—a tendency, namely, to prize originality more than beauty, substance more than form. This feature has even stamped itself on our language. . . . Apart from its alliteration and the changes which language has undergone, German poetry remains at this epoch essentially Aryan. It has the same technical means at its disposal, and is moulded in the same forms. The chorus in which the multitude takes part is still the leading type. Individuals are subordinate to the whole body of singers. . . . Choral songs played an important part on all the great occasions of private and public life. . . . Choral poetry is not the only kind of poetry at this period. The other Aryan forms of poetry also continue to exist. The maiden greets her lover thus: 'I wish thee as much joy as there is foliage in spring; I wish thee as much love, as the birds find delight and food; I wish thee as much honour as the earth bears grass and flowers.' At social gatherings riddles were set, founded on simple observation of nature. . . . But above all, it was the principles which regulated life, and underlay morality and law, that were embodied in poetic form. . . . All solemn legal proceedings were accompanied by poetry. Oaths were sworn in alliterative verse. The sentence of banishment was uttered in alliterative language. . . . Indeed, all legal formulas were full of alliteration. And some expressions uniting two terms each having the same initial letter, remain even in our time, such as house and home, spick and span, weal and woe, hand and heart, stock and stone, kith and kin, bed and board, wind and weather."—*Ibid.*, pp. 10-15.

350-9th century.—Bible of Ulfilas.—Rise and development of the German hero-legend.—Classification.—"The highest ideal known to declining Rome in the intellectual sphere was Christianity, and the possession of the Bible has the same significance in the intellectual and religious sphere that the possession of Italy and Rome has in the political. The former, Ulfilas [311-383] by one effort secured to the Visigoths. He was master of three languages: he preached in Greek, Latin, and Gothic; and he devoted this gift to the noblest purpose. [Ulfilas has been called the father of Teutonic literature.] He is reported to have translated the whole Bible, only omitting the Books of the Kings as likely to encourage the warlike propensities of his people. This translation he effected for those who were till then destitute of the first beginnings of a written literature. Nay, till he taught them, the Goths did not even know what reading meant, and Ulfilas had to translate the word by 'singing.' He created a style of writing which could be painted on parchment

for a people who till then had only scrawled single signs, or a few consecutive words on wood or stone. He formed his alphabet by supplementing the Runes from the Greek alphabet, or the Greek alphabet from the Runes. The translation is a literal reproduction in Gothic of the Greek text. . . . No German of Catholic persuasion ever attempted anything like it. Wycliffe in England, and Luther in Germany, are the first who can be compared with him. . . . What we possess in the Gothic language besides the Bible is insignificant. It consists of an interpretation of St. John's Gospel founded on Greek commentaries, a fragment of a Gothic Calendar, a few documents, attested by Gothic priests in Gothic, a Gothic toast in a Latin epigram, and a few isolated words in Latin writings."—W. Scherer, *History of German Literature*, v. 1, pp. 30-31.—"About the year 600 A.D. . . . a date, which should only be taken approximately . . . the Germanic national Epic attained its highest development. . . . About the year 1200, as we have already said, the half-forgotten stories of the hero-legends appear again, and are embodied in the well-known poems, the Nibelungenlied and Gudrun. The same period produced lyric and epic poets of the first order, whose artistic training was at least in part based on French models. Such are Wolfram von Eschenbach, Gottfried von Strassburg, and Walther von der Vogelweide. About the year 1800 . . . the old heroic songs revived again, the Nibelungen legend acquired new fame, new poets made use of the old materials, and the brothers Grimm became the leaders of a new science, which sought to recover for the present the vanished creations of the past. . . . The historical consciousness of the Germans dates from their great migration, which also gave life and substance to their heroic poetry. The rich legends which form the material of great national epics always owe their origin to gigantic national convulsions. . . . The only organ of tradition was unwritten poetry, handed down by memory. But in their poetry they follow an idealising method, and make it general and mythological. The characters and incidents receive a typical form, often far removed from reality. The poets wandered from place to place, taking the songs with them, and the story became more vague the further it was transplanted from home. . . . The traditions of German heroic poetry extend over more than 300 years, and are drawn from various German tribes. . . . These wonderful transferences of power, and this rapid founding of new empires, furnished the historical background of the German hero-legends. . . . The oldest mythical legends, dating from a period before the emigration, give us the typical hero Siegfried, frank and bold, cut off in the bloom of his youth by his wicked and perfidious enemy Hagen. The oldest historical legends, down to about the middle of the fifth century, show us nothing but repulsive characters, drawn doubtless from the life of those rough times. . . . German heroic song begins with the Goths, and ends with the nations of the Frankish kingdom. The poets who first sang the epic songs to their harps belonged to the court. Wandering minstrels spread abroad the praise of princes, and were the teachers of the community. . . . Charlemagne caused [songs of Ermanaric, Attila, and Theodoric] . . . to be written down, as Pisistratus did the Homeric epics. But the next generation had already forgotten them. In the ninth century we come again on traces of them, after which they drop quite out of sight. We must give up the collection of Charlemagne as lost for ever: this most important record of the German national

epics is destroyed, and we are reduced to guess-work. . . . We possess in Germany itself but one poor literary fragment from the whole of this first classic period of epic legend and poetry; this fragment is the song of Hildebrand. . . . The Merovingian period, which brought German popular heroic song to perfection, cannot point to a single literary document in the German language. . . . In the first half of the fifth century St. Patrick brought Christianity to the Irish from Scotland, and the Irish monasteries became a centre of civilisation and Christian missions, independent of Rome. . . . They sent forth Columbanus, . . . [who] wrote in old Greek metre, and was well versed in classical literature and mythology. . . . This Columbanus became in the seventh century the Apostle of the Alemanni. His disciple, Gallus, founded the monastery of St. Gall. They were followed by many others of their countrymen. . . . In the matter of poetic form, Germany was indebted to the *Romanic* nations; it was from them that German poetry received the ornament of rhyme. We find the first traces of rhyme in Germany in the ninth century; but then it is already used to adorn Christian hymns which were meant to supplant the popular songs. . . . As epic poetry with its stately alliterative verses gradually disappeared, rhyme came more and more into fashion. But it first found its way to Germany from outside. . . . We find it first of all on the Upper Rhine, from whence it spread over the rest of Germany. . . . This points to a distinguishing feature of the first classical period of German literature, and one which recurs again in the second and third classical periods,—it was the *Romanic* nations who shaped the æsthetic sense of the Germans.”—*Ibid.*, v. I, pp. 16-17, 19-25, 33-35.—“The authors or compilers who first put these poems into writing are unknown, and they seem to have written the poems just as they existed, without adding any of their own personality or their own judgments. Each of the German tribes or nations had its own particular cycle of these poems, all of which centered for the most part around the memory of its most renowned national hero. The most important of these hero-songs can, in a general way, be classified as follows:—1. The saga-cycle of the lower Rhine, of which SIEGFRIED of Xanten is the hero. 2. The Burgundian cycle, whose chief characters are GUNTHER, HAGEN, and KRIEMHILD. Their court and home is at Worms on the Rhine. 3. The cycle of THEODORIC or Dietrich of Bern, the founder of the East Gothic kingdom in Italy. His great vassal is HILDEBRAND. 4. The cycle of ETZEL or Attila, the powerful king of the Huns. Among his vassals, RÜDIGER is the most renowned. His home is at Etzelburg on the Danube, probably the modern Budapest. The personages appearing in these saga-cycles take a leading part in the *Nibelungenlied*, which unites these four cycles in the greatest production of the Middle Ages. 5. Another cycle, which is the background of the second important poem of this epoch, is called the *Norman-Saxon*. The location of the legends is along the coast and on the islands of the North Sea. The hero is HETEL, and his daughter, GUDRUN, is the heroine of the poem named for her. The first four of these saga-cycles are merged together in the *Nibelungenlied*, which is composed of thirty-nine cantos, arranged under two heads:—(1) Kriemhild's Love, I-XIX. (2) Kriemhild's Revenge, XX-XXXIX.”—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 25-26.

750-1050.—Old High German period.—Early pagan poetry.—Heroic sagas.—Coming of Chris-

tianity.—Early religious literature.—“The history of German literature, as a connected account of writings that have literary interest and are extant in the German languages, begins about the year 800. It is true that for many centuries prior to that time Germans had been producing poetry in abundance, but it is not written down, and only one late fragment of it has been preserved. A system of alphabetic writing, the so-called *runes*, may possibly have been in use among the High Germans, but if so, the letters were always cut on wood, metal, or stone, and were not employed for what would now be called literary purposes. It was not until Christianity came in, bringing the Latin alphabet and a class of men acquainted with the use of pen, ink, and parchment, that anything of literary value was written down in German.”—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, p. 1.—“Under Charlemagne (768-814), who succeeded in uniting both politically and religiously all tribes of German origin, arose the first prose literature. The Gospel of Matthew was translated, and to this were added baptismal vows and confessions of faith. The great emperor took an active personal interest in cultivating the German language and German literature. He took great pains to have collected and written down the old songs in which the deeds and wars of the old heroes were celebrated. It was his purpose to hand them down to posterity, but they all disappeared after his death. . . . Two Messianic poems of the ninth century have been preserved. The first, *HELIAND*, was written in Low German about 830. [The poem consists of between five and six thousand alliterating verses.] Its purpose was doubtless to make the Bible known to the Saxons, whom Charlemagne had recently converted to Christianity. . . . The best portion is probably that devoted to the Sermon on the Mount, where Christ, like a German king, surrounded by his knights and vassals, gives instruction, settles controversies, and decrees justice. The poem closes with Christ's ascension. The second, Otfried's *EVANGELIENBUCH* (Gospels), appeared about 870. Its author was a learned monk of Weissenburg, the first German poet known by name. The subject is treated in five books, divided into chapters with Latin headings. It differs from the *Heliand* in that the latter is German and popular, while the former is intended to be a learned work throughout, and its purpose was to convert the barbarians to the teaching of the church. *MUSPILLI*, another poem of the same period, was probably written on the margins of a book by Louis the German. The author sets forth as well as he can the doctrines of the church, and tries to make them attractive to the nobles. . . . The *LUDWIGSLIED*, a historical poem [of fifty-nine verses], celebrates the victory of Louis III over the Normans at Saucourt in 881. . . . After the extinction of Charlemagne's line, the Saxons became the leaders in Germany. Both externally and internally the Saxon emperors raised Germany to a free and independent position. Otto the Great (936-973) really made Germany the leader of Western Christianity. With the conquering of Italy, came Southern culture; but with it came also a foreign manner and a foreign language. Although German was the official language, yet in literature, cultivated almost solely by the clergy, Latin was predominant. At the court, in the monasteries and nunneries, the old classics were studied; and the literature of the period, even if treating of native history and legend, appeared in a foreign garb. *WALTHARIUS*, a Latin poem written by Ekkehard, a monk of

St. Gall, about 930, is the most important production of this class. Scheffel has used this in his novel *Ekkehard*. . . *RUODOLP*, another Latin epic of the eleventh century, probably originated in Bavaria, but it has been preserved in fragments only."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 17-20.

1050-1350.—Classical period.—Middle High German literature.—Ballads and epics.—*Nibelungenlied* and *Gudrun*.—Romantic poets and lyricists.—"From the end of the twelfth century onwards High German is the dominant literary language of the German races, and the literary renaissance of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries was especially High German. The period is marked by the Annolied, ca. 1130, which may be regarded as the beginning of the epic. In this category may also be included the *Kaiserchronik* ca. 1130-1150; *König Rother* 1100; all of these poems were the result of monastic reform. In the court epic we have *Konrad's Rolandslied*, ca. 1135; and *Eilhart's Tristrant*, ca. 1170-1173. We find the beginnings of the *Minnesang* with men like *von Kurenberg*, *Dittmar von Aist*, *Burggraf von Regensburg* and *Menloh von Sevelingen*. The traditional ballad of the German people, the materials out of which their national epic was to be formed, had, as we have seen, been kept alive through the dark ages by wandering *Spielleute*. With the awakening of more ideal interests under the influence of the Crusades in the twelfth century, the popular epic entered, however, upon a new phase of development. . . . Under the influence of the serious literary tastes of the aristocratic classes, the traditions of *Siegfried*, of *Attila* and the *Nibelungs*, of *Dietric* and *Ermanarich* [*Spielmann poetry*] were welded into epics of primeval grandeur."—J. G. Robertson, *History of German literature*, p. 59.—"Growing ever more self-conscious, more national, through the closing years of the twelfth century, German poetry greets us on the threshold of the thirteenth with the '*Nibelungenlied*,' its *Iliad*, an epic second only to that masterpiece, and soon to be followed by '*Gudrun*,' a veritable German *Odyssey*."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, p. 11.—"The *Nibelungenlied* is the representative national epic of the Germans; it is national in the sense that it mirrors not the idea of a single poet, but of a whole race. Its theme was a common possession of that race; its ideals of loyalty, of nobility, of knightly virtue, its scorn of treason and deceit and its firm faith in the implacableness of rightful vengeance,—all this is flesh and blood of the Germanic peoples.—The *Nibelungenlied* is, in such respects primitive, but it is not barbaric, nor is it . . . without lyric beauty."—J. G. Robertson, *History of German literature*, p. 71.—"The subject matter of the epic is much older than its present form, which dates from the first part of the thirteenth century. It is based on two general sources,—mythological characters and the tales belonging to very remote, prehistoric periods, and historical persons and events from the time of the Migrations, as they are described in the early hero-songs. In the *Edda* [an earlier epic] the legend appears ruder in form and more savage in character than in the *Nibelungenlied*. Into the interweaving of the historical and mythical elements, there has come the influence of Christianity and Chivalry, giving the harsh and passionate characters of the earlier legend gentler and more refined qualities. The poem was known and loved among the people until the sixteenth century. With the seventeenth it seems forgotten. About the middle of the eighteenth, Professor *Bodmer*, of

Zurich, found at *Hohenems* in Switzerland two bulky manuscripts which proved to be the *Nibelungenlied*. From that time until to-day [1906], it has been subjected to careful study; has been translated several times into modern German, and into all modern tongues. . . . The authorship of the poem is a disputed question; some maintaining that it is a loose collection of popular songs strung together, others that it is originally the work of a single poet. The truth probably lies between the two."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 31-33.—See also *NIBELUNGENLIED*.—"Though the '*Nibelungenlied*' is the greatest, it is by no means the only epic formed from songs in High German. There is one that tells of the death of the great Gothic king, *Ermenrich*, of the race of the *Amalungs*, to which *Theodorich* also belonged, though many generations later. . . . Another group of High German legends gathers about the *Vandal brothers*, *Ortnit* and *Wolfdietrich*. . . . A third group shows as clearly its Low German origin. . . . In this group the place of the '*Nibelungen*' is taken by the story of '*Gudrun*.' The legend has a peculiar interest to Englishmen, for the time and the local color is that of the raids of Danes and Northmen on the coasts of England and Ireland."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, pp. 14-75.—"*Gudrunlied*, the second national epic, embodies the legends of the North Sea. Already known at the beginning of the twelfth century, it was worked over into its present form about 1210, by some now unknown poet. Probably he was from the South, and traveling northward, found these legends, which he transferred to parchment. . . . The poem is handed down in a single manuscript which, prepared at the order of Emperor *Maximilian I* (1493-1519), was found at the castle of *Ambras* in the *Tyrol*, just 300 years after *Maximilian's* death. It is now in *Vienna*. Like the *Nibelungenlied*, various editions and numerous translations of it have been published. The poem, composed of thirty-two cantos, called adventures, is divided into three sections, of which the first two serve as an introduction to the third."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 33-34.—"In both parts of the '*Gudrun'saga*' magnanimity overcomes vengeance. It represents a higher moral development, a more Christian standard, than could be found in the '*Nibelungen*.' And as this would lead one to expect there is more thoughtfulness and a deeper insight into the mixed feelings of complex human nature. . . . The '*Gudrun*,' then, is truer to the culture of the thirteenth century, and shows greater psychological insight than the '*Nibelungen*,' but it was less popular in High Germany, the section which was coming more and more to have the literary pre-eminence."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, pp. 16-17.—"The first quarter of this century [thirteenth] is to give us also the philosophical epics of *Wolfram von Eschenbach*, the less thoughtful but more popular epic tales of *Hartmann von Aue*, and the exquisite songs of *Walther von der Vogelweide*, surrounded by the melodious chorus of the '*Minnesangsfrühling*,' the '*Springtime of the songs of love*,' as this period has been poetically named. The whole makes up one of the most remarkable phenomena of the intellectual life, to be compared to 'the spacious times of great Elizabeth,' and, like this, finding its cause and explanation in the political life and aspirations of the people. . . . The masterpieces of this wonderful generation fall almost wholly between 1190 and 1220. They may be divided broadly into popular and courtly epics, while the lyrics take a middle

ground."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, pp. 11-12.—"Court epics are quite different from the national epics. They are the product of chivalry, dealing not with matters of national importance, but with court etiquette and social decorum. They treat not of native popular lore, but abound in foreign traditions. . . . Heinrich von Veldeke, the 'father of court poetry,' was the first man to apply to verse strict measurement and exact rhyme, and he was the first prominent representative of the court epic. He came from a family of knights in the Netherlands, but of his early life almost nothing is known. Later we find him as a poet at the court of Cleve. Here he had written over ten thousand verses of his *Eneid* (1184), when the manuscript was stolen from him. . . . The poem is based on Virgil's *Eneid*, but the heroic deeds are treated very briefly, while the love scenes are carried out to great length. . . . Wolfram von Eschenbach, the greatest German poet of the Middle Ages, was a Bavarian, and takes his name from the town of Eschenbach, where he was born between 1170 and 1175. He was trained in all that pertained to the calling of a knight. . . . Here it was that about 1207, according to tradition, he took part in the *Sängerkrieg* (poets' contest). While here he composed many short poems, and also *Parzival*. . . . In *Parzival* two saga-cycles are united: (1) The Legend of King Arthur; (2) The Legend of the Holy Grail. . . . Besides these two elements, a third is worked into the poem,—that of the Evil Spirit, working ruin and destruction. . . . Gottfried von Strassburg, of whom very little is known, flourished at the close of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth century. The material for his best work, *Tristan und Isolde*, was drawn from French sources, and it abounds in French expressions. . . . Hartmann von Aue, a Swabian by birth, and a contemporary of Gottfried, attended a cloister school in his youth, and became so well versed in Latin and French as to be able to call himself learned. Among his contemporaries he was regarded as the master of court poetry, and was noted for his moderation. His style is clear, and his verse moves along with pleasing purity. His material is drawn largely from Latin and French sources. Two of his poems, *Erec* (much resembled by Tennyson's *Eneid*) and *Iwein*, are named after Knights of the Round Table, and they, becoming popular, added much to the glory of Arthur. *Der arme Heinrich* is his best production. . . . Alongside of the few authors of court epics, there arose a number of writers of lyric poetry. To this class of writing, existing in various forms and treating of numerous subjects, the common name *Minnesong* is given. . . . Of the numerous manuscript collections of these poems that have come down to us, the most important is the Large Heidelberg Manuscript. This remarkable book, containing the songs of one hundred and forty poets from the twelfth to the fourteenth century, is a magnificent folio, bound in red leather, and adorned with the French royal coat of arms embossed in gold. It contains 429 leaves of strong parchment, upon which the songs are written in a beautiful, uniform, and legible hand. . . . By whom the manuscript was prepared, and where it was first kept, is unknown. Toward the end of the sixteenth century, it was found carefully preserved at a castle in the valley of the upper Rhine. In 1607, it was purchased for the library in Heidelberg. During the Thirty Years' War, in some unknown manner, it was taken to Paris, where for two centuries, under the title of *Paris Manuscript*, it formed one

of the treasures of the National Library. In 1888, thanks to the Emperors William I and Frederick III, it was restored to the library in Heidelberg, and is now called the *Large Heidelberg Manuscript*. Walter von der Vogelweide, the greatest of the Minnesingers, was born in the Tyrol between 1165 and 1170, and was from a family of the lower nobility. . . . Among his spiritual songs, the one addressed to the Trinity is the best."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 37, 38, 40-41, 42-45.—"The chief characteristic of Middle High German literature, regarded as a whole, is its simplicity; no other period is so free from complex developments. . . . Except for the utilitarian writings of preachers and law-givers, prose virtually did not exist, and apart from ecclesiastical performances. . . . there was no drama. Thus only three main categories of verse—romance, lyric and satire—are left, and each of these falls again into two divisions, corresponding to the two literary classes, namely the *Spilleute* and the court poets. On the other hand, the *Spielmann* drew upon the popular sagas and traditions for his romances; he retold in the humorous, careless way peculiar to him, the stories of the German past. The court singer, on the other hand, preferred the romances of the Arthurian cycle, which, early in the twelfth century, had received an aristocratic stamp in France. The German national epic itself, as represented by the *Nibelungenlied* and *Gudrum*, had arisen, as we have seen, under the influence which the tastes of the higher classes exerted over the *Spilleute*."—J. G. Robertson, *History of German literature*, p. 140.

1250-1650.—Transition period.—Early New High German literature.—Changes incident to the Reformation.—Luther and the German Bible.—"Even in the thirteenth century, the decline of literature had begun, and the two following centuries completed the decadence. The emperor and the princes paid no attention to literature and art, but were fighting among themselves for their own aggrandizement. . . . Among the clergy things were no better. . . . In the fourteenth century, the poetical inheritance which for two centuries had been cherished by the knight passed into the hands of the middle class."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, p. 46.—"The fate of this lyric poetry was similar to that of the epic. It suffered first from artificiality, then from vulgarization. Ulrich von Lichtenstein typifies the first stage, Neidhart von Reuenthal the second. . . . Ulrich was pathetically serious; Neidhart is a satirist. His gay dance-songs hit noble and peasant alike, but especially the latter, with a humor that is often coarse, but always delicious. And Neidhart's poetry has a social significance that should not be overlooked. Satire, to have point, must have some basis of truth. Neidhart's verses assume a prosperity among the German peasants in the thirteenth century that has never been witnessed among them since. The fundamental assumption of his wit is that the peasants have wealth without culture, and the nobles culture without corresponding wealth. The incongruousness of these conditions is his standing theme. . . . This shifting of the literary center is marked by a new name, 'Meistersänger.'"—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, pp. 27-28.—"The mastersong was cultivated in societies or guilds, into which the artisans of the cities organized themselves, that they might cultivate music and poetry. Mayence is regarded as the first city in which this art was cultivated; but in most of the important cities of southern Germany, the master-

ong flourished."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, p. 46.—"Nuremberg was the chief centre of this artificial literary life, which aimed to apply to poetry the commercial and economic spirit that had given the free cities their political recognition. The natural result was a stagnant lake of mediocrity, prolific only in the lowest forms of life. One might be disposed to make an exception for Hans Sachs, whose genuine poetic genius was cramped by his traditions and surroundings."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, p. 29.—The dramatic gift of Hans Sachs is at its best in the shrovetide plays, of which he wrote eighty-five. "The degeneracy of the times, especially the roughness of the nobility and the corruption in the church, had long been calling for energetic reform. This found a poetic expression in numerous didactic poems, largely satirical in nature. The most important of these [and Germany's first real contribution to world literature] is the *Narrenschiff* (1494), by Sebastian Brant (1458-1521), who lived most of his life at Strassburg."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, p. 49.—Prose is represented by local chronicles, sermons, stories of Til Eulenspiegel, and the writings of the fourteenth century mystics. "Meantime legal books had appeared in German, while sermons, treatises on medicine, and summaries of popular science were soon to abound, as was to be expected when we consider that seven additional universities had been founded during the fifteenth century. . . . In general it grows clear that the Reformation was not the work of one man nor of one generation. . . . From the political and economic standpoint a reformation was a necessity, and probably this Reformation, with all its errors and bitter injustice, was the best practicable one. . . . In the midst of this literary stagnation the Reformation produced a work of crucial importance from a philological standpoint, —*Luther's translation of the Bible*. Not as though the Scriptures had not been translated and printed in German before his day. There had been eighteen earlier printed editions, and translations in manuscript had circulated freely from early times. But from a literary point of view all these had been lame efforts. Luther gave in his Bible a literary model to Germany comparable only to our own Authorized Version. Begun about Christmas, 1521, the New Testament was printed before the close of 1522, the whole Bible in 1534, and a revision in 1541, and this has remained essentially the German Bible until our own day. Men may differ in their moral judgment of the German Reformation; none can close their eyes to the vast gain to literature and culture that sprang from this book, the foundation of the new German language."—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*, pp. 31, 33.—"Thus in the best sense, Luther's translation of the Bible is a work of creative genius, the greatest German book produced within a period extending over at least three centuries. No other work has played so important a rôle in the history of the language as this Bible, for it gave the nation a normal language in place of the many dialects that had been in use for literary purposes during the preceding centuries."—J. G. Robertson, *History of German literature*, p. 173.—See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: 14th-16th centuries; PAPACY: 1521-1522.—"On the other hand, Luther's part in shaping the conditions out of which a new national literature was to evolve, was extremely important; . . . what he really did was to use the language of the people as he had learned it, in the course of his long sojourn at Eisenach and Erfurt. By so doing he was able

to address the people of the Midlands and the Southeast in a language which was readily intelligible. . . . Before the end of the sixteenth century the victory of Luther's German was virtually complete in all the northern regions. In the South progress was much slower. . . . Switzerland was the last to fall into line."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 127, 137-138.

1600-1750.—Period of Renaissance and Pseudo-classicism.—Opitz and Gottsched.—Simplicissimus.—Leibnitz and the Aufklärung.—Gellert, Klopstock, and Wieland.—The Hainbund.—"The Renaissance cannot be said to have set in before the first years of the seventeenth century, and what good effects it might have had were, in a great measure, thwarted by the thirty years' war. Thus, for the intellectual life of the German people as a whole this movement had, and could have, but little importance, and the lessons which German poetry might have learned from it had practically all to be learned over again at the beginning of the eighteenth century."—J. G. Robertson, *History of German literature*, p. 203.—"In the early years of the seventeenth century educated Germans began to feel with a degree of shame that their country's vernacular literature was in a backward state as compared with that of Holland, France and Italy. The increasing recognition of this unpleasant fact led presently to a new literary movement."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, p. 165.—See also HISTORY: 23.—"Two men who were the dictators of literary taste in Germany, the one during the larger part of the seventeenth, the other during the first part of the eighteenth century, may be considered as the most complete types and the most trustworthy interpreters of this school of inanity and pretension [Pseudo-classicism]. Opitz (1597-1639) and Gottsched (1700-66). Both men had undoubtedly the cause of German literature at heart. Opitz through his connections among the nobility, Gottsched through the dignity of his Leipzig professorship, helped to raise the social standing of authors as a class. Both worked to the best of their ability for a purification of the German language, for the establishment of a normal standard of literary correctness. And although Opitz, by advocating the imitation of the French writers of his time, put German poetry to the rack of the Alexandrine verse, while Gottsched, by adopting the same policy for his own time, forced the German drama into the strait-jacket of the 'three unities,' yet it is hard to see how, without the discipline afforded by the attempt to reproduce foreign models, or without the chastening influence of the refined elegance of French versification and composition, German literature could have attained even to the small degree of formal respectability which in those days had come to be considered as the supreme test of poetic genius."—K. Francke, *History of German literature*, p. 179.—"Grimmelshausen's *Simplicius Simplicissimus*"—Johann (or Hans) J. C. von Grimmelshausen (1625-1676)—is the one prose classic of the century. It is "thoroughly German and essentially original. It is the work of a virile realist who had lived much and was interested in life for its own sake; and while not free from the discursive pedantry in which the age delighted, it is at any rate, readable—the most readable prose of the century. . . . In the closing years of the seventeenth century the very name of poet fell into a certain disrepute. . . . The one poetic genius of the period was Johann Christian Gunther (1695-1723). His passionate verse, born of a genuine experience,

was worth more than volumes of satire and disquisition. But talent that falls much short of genius may sometimes render service by pointing the way to new vistas; and this was the fortune of Barthold Heinrich Brockes (1680-1747) a man greatly esteemed in his day as a poet of nature. . . . He was the first to cultivate intimacy with the works and moods of nature and describe them with great minuteness. He begat the generation of sentimental landscape poets who presently drew the fire of Lessing's Laocoön. . . . A stream of English influence was coming in by way of Switzerland. . . . In short, by the middle of the century the names of Milton, Addison, Pope, Thomson and Young were fairly well known in Germany, and the German mind had been prepared, as well as the English, for Richardson, Bishop Percy, Ossian and Sterne. But Shakespeare as yet was virtually unknown. . . . The most important of the landscape poets was Ewald von Kleist (1715-1750), author of Spring. Kleist was a Prussian soldier whose early experience predisposed him to pensive poetising."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 183, 191, 193-196, 199-200.—"The story of the German *Aufklärung*, or Illumination, . . . is partly outside the sphere of letters. We venture to anticipate the one and to trespass the other, in order to refer to the name of Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1646-1716), mathematician and philosopher, who shared with Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727), his contemporary, the throne of science in that age. They made so many discoveries in the region of the higher mathematics that they disputed who discovered which, and Leibniz's correspondence and intercourse with the master-minds of his day brought Germany back to modern Europe, and ushered in the new period of her culture which closed at the death of Goethe, 1832. Leibniz was a strenuous advocate of the revival of German speech and manners. In his idealism and mental grasp he is most like Plato among philosophers, and, deeply as his system of thought is in debt to the intellectual rationalism of France, England, and the Netherlands, he filled it with a Teuton consciousness and coloured it with personal optimism. Another early Illuminant was Dr. Samuel Pufendorf (1632-94), who taught international law at the University of Leipsic, where, doubtless, he knew young Leibniz, as the son of a professor in another faculty. Pufendorf's Latin writings were of immense service to the cause of the *Aufklärung*. His letters on the status of the German nation opened with the frank remark that 'Germany is an irregular body, *mouströ simile*, like a monster; and he sketched a new order of civil government, based on liberal principles of law."—L. Magnus, *General sketch of European literature in the centuries of romance*, pp. 360-361.

"The generation which grew up at the beginning of the eighteenth century; which lived through a succession of wars . . . became incapable even of moral indignation at the wretched condition of public life, and settled down to a contemptuous indifference to the whims and excesses of their rulers. What is best in German literature from the beginning of the eighteenth century to the time of Frederick the Great, is a record of the feelings of private individuals, confined to the sphere of domestic virtues, and absorbed in theoretical speculations about an ideal world. If we remember that this was the epoch which immediately preceded the beginnings of a literary revival the like of which modern civilization has not seen,—the great classic period of

German literature,—we are again led back to the main subject of this chapter: the consideration of the revolutionary forces which were at the bottom of German intellectual life during the long reign of absolutism from the days of Opitz to those of Lessing. That among these forces during the first half of the eighteenth century the influence of English poetry and fiction was one of the most important, there can be no question. . . . While Germany's best men in the seventeenth century consumed their energies in a hopeless struggle against petty surroundings, Shakspere and Milton were borne along by the majestic stream of English public opinion. When now, in the first half of the eighteenth century, Germany had sunk to the very lowest level of political misery, when her best men, instead of inveighing any longer against national abuses, turned to the quiet realm of moral and æsthetic observations, it was natural that their glance should have been attracted by the powerful literary development which meanwhile had taken place on the other side of the Channel. . . . He who reads the history of German literature in the seventeenth century with an unprejudiced eye cannot fail to be impressed with the fact that there ran through it a constant undercurrent of opposition against princely omnipotence, orthodox intolerance, and literary conventionalism. This same current, having failed to break through the solid rock of public indifference and apathy, now turned into another channel, and instead of vainly beating against hopeless social conditions, spent itself in widening, deepening, and intensifying the inner life of the individual. We are inclined nowadays to speak with a condescending smile of the weakly sentimentalism and shallow rationalism of the eighteenth century. But we must not forget that sentimentalism and rationalism were in the first half of the eighteenth century the only possible manifestations of that spirit of independence which had been kindled by the Reformation, and which more than a century of oppression had not been able to smother entirely. And if we are asked what it is that in the productions of that time appears to us as peculiarly indicative of a genuine inner life, we cannot help answering that it is just this sentimentalism, however weakly, or this rationalism, however shallow."—*Ibid.*, pp. 213-216.—"A century had passed after the close of the Thirty Years' War, and Frederick the Great, in 1740 became king of Prussia. In this shaker of kingdoms the German spirit asserted itself once more. It ceased to sleep as if the sleep of death. The fresh impulse felt was military and political, rather than literary or even intellectual; but the law of the conversion, or translation, of force works very widely, and the movement from Frederick, which began in war and in politics, went over also, transposed, into the world of the intellect and of literature. Besides, the new king was, in his way, a man of letters. True, he was, as it were, a foreign man of letters, despising the language to which he was born, and himself writing only in French. But there was at least light now where had been 'darkness visible' before; and a ray of light from the throne—much more, when the throne is that of Frederick the Great—becomes 'illustrious far and wide.' The royal example contributed at first to confirm the wretched tendency already then prevalent among Germans to imitate slavishly in literature the omnipotent French; but it also in the sequel incited some stronger, freer spirits, notably Lessing—that Luther of a literary reformation in Germany—to declare their intellectual





JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE



FRIEDRICH VON SCHILLER



HEINRICH HEINE



JEAN PAUL RICHTER



THEODOR KÖRNER



HERMANN SUDERMANN



JOHANN LUDWIG UHLAND



GERHART HAUPTMANN



independence. Even those German authors themselves, of Frederick's time, whose literary mission it was, as they conceived it, to practice and to teach obedience to French canons in the art of writing, were pricked with patriotic ambition to prove to the disdainful monarch of Prussia that native German genius, uttering itself in native German speech, was not so wholly to be despised. Gottsched was the chief of such; but it is creditable to Frederick that Gellert, a quite different writer, less aggressively French, succeeded better than Gottsched in making a favorable impression on the royal arbiter. As between these two writers, the general verdict has since confirmed the preference of Frederick."—W. C. Wilkinson, *Classic German course in English*, pp. 12-13.—"It is indeed hard to realize that there should have been a time when [Christian Fürchtegott Gellert (1717-69)] . . . in whose professorial make-up there was not a fibre of creative genius, was the foremost of German authors. . . . Yet, if Frederick the Great could call Gellert 'the most sensible' of German men of letters; if Goethe could say of his writings that about the middle of the eighteenth century they were the foundation of moral culture in Germany; if his popularity embraced all classes and ages, from kings and princes who visited Leipzig in order to attend his lectures . . . there must have been something in him which made him in a peculiar manner the representative of his age. Gellert combined in himself, more than any other writer of his time, those two tendencies which, as we have seen, had come to be the chief forms of the individualistic undercurrent of German literature after it had turned away from public life: rationalism and sentimentalism. . . . More emphatically than any other writer of his time, Gellert was a private individual. . . . Gellert, by making self-reflection and self-discipline the keynote of his life as well as his literary work, did more than any other man of his generation to cultivate that spirit which was to find its highest expression in Goethe's *Wilhelm Meister*."—K. Francke, *History of German literature*, pp. 223-224, 227.—"Whether or not it was some spirit breathing in the free air of Switzerland, there arose contemporaneously [with Gellert] in the Swiss city of Zurich a German literary school, with Bodner at their head, who waged open war on the French classicism of Gottsched and his fellows. The Zurich circle, however, in refusing to be French, did not after all become truly independent and German. They were only otherwise, perhaps more judiciously, dependent, and—English. Bodner published a German translation of Milton's *Paradise Lost*. This was a literary event of prime importance for Germany. It gave her the *Messiah* of Klopstock; and, with the publication of the *Messiah* of Klopstock, the long-arrested development of German literature began fairly to go forward again. Lessing, Herder, Wieland, Goethe, Richter, Schiller, and a score of names only less than these, now follow one another in rapid succession, or jostle each other in crowded simultaneous appearance. The firmament of German literature is suddenly full. It hazes with stars and with constellations."—W. C. Wilkinson, *Chautauqua course*, 1891-02; *Classic German course in English*, p. 13.

"It was in 1748, the same year in which Frederick, in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, achieved his first great political triumph, that Friedrich Gottlieb Klopstock (1724-1803), in the three opening cantos of his *Messias*, sounded that morning call of joyous idealism and exalted individualism which was to be the dominant note of the best

in all modern German literature. . . . Klopstock led German literature from the narrow circle of private emotions and purposes to which the absolutism of the seventeenth century had come near confining it, into the broad realm of universal sympathy. He was the first great freeman since the days of Luther. He did not, like Heller, content himself with the sight of an independent but provincial and primitive life, as afforded by the rural communities of Switzerland. He did not, like Gellert, turn away from the oppressed and helpless condition of the German people to a weakly, exaggerated cultivation of himself. He addressed himself to the whole nation, nay, to all mankind. And by appealing to all that is grand and noble; by calling forth those passions and emotions which link the human to the divine; by awakening the poor down-trodden souls of men who thus far had known themselves only as the subjects of princes to the consciousness of their moral and spiritual citizenship, he became the prophet of that invisible republic which now for nearly a century and a half has been the ideal counterpart in German life of a stern monarchical reality. No one perhaps has better expressed the limitations of Klopstock's genius than Schiller, when in trying to define his place among modern poets he says: 'His sphere is always the realm of ideas, and he makes everything lead up to the infinite. One might say that he robs everything that he touches of its body in order to turn it into spirit whereas other poets seek to clothe the spiritual with a body.' It is undoubtedly this lack of plastic power, this inability to create living palpable beings, which prevented Klopstock from attaining the high artistic ideal which his first great effusions seemed to prophesy. . . . Yet it is easy to see that it was precisely through this exaggerated and overstrained spirituality that Klopstock achieved the greatest of his work. He would never have produced the marvellous impression upon his contemporaries which he did produce, had he attempted to represent life as it is. . . . It was Klopstock's spirituality which enabled him to assume this threefold leadership, and the immeasurable services rendered by him in this capacity to the cause of religion, fatherland, and humanity may well make us forget the artistic shortcomings by which they were accompanied. None of Klopstock's works has been so much subjected to misleading and unappreciative criticism as his greatest religious poem, the *Messias*. . . . But what do all these criticisms mean? They simply mean that it was a mistake in Klopstock's admirers to call him a German Milton, and that the *Messias* ought not to be looked upon as an epic poem at all. Not Milton, but the great German composers of church music were Klopstock's spiritual predecessors; his place is by the side of Bach and Händel as the third great master of the oratorio."—K. Francke, *History of German literature*, pp. 233-236.—"Klopstock's bold example could not fail to call forth imitation. . . . The most important and by far the most enthusiastic disciples of Klopstock are to be found in the Hainbund (grove-league), a literary society composed of several Göttingen students who were his admirers. . . . The nominal head of the league was Christian Boie, whose *Musenalmanach* practically became the organ of the league. The real head, however, was Klopstock to whom the young 'Bards of the Hain' had attached themselves from the beginning. . . . The most important member of the 'Hainbund' was Johann Heinrich Voss (1751-1826). . . . While a student at the gymnasium, he gathered around him a number of his

schoolmates for private study of the classics and of German literature; he also studied Klopstock, and began to imitate him. At Göttingen he devoted his attention to ancient and modern languages, and joined in the organization of the 'Hainbund,' although he was more independent and free from Klopstock's influence than any of the others. . . . In all his works Voss shows himself a master of language, but his imaginative faculty was weak. A didactic and often combative tone frequently appears in his odes and songs, a fact that has prevented even those works which he wrote for the people from becoming popular. . . . His best production, however, is *Luise*, a poem composed of three idyls. . . . As a translator, Voss surpassed all his predecessors, and his best work in this line is the rendering of Homer. His version is natural and straightforward, and reproduces, to a reasonable extent, the style of the original; the Homeric formulas and epithets are successfully preserved, and the whole work is one of devoted industry and careful study. . . . Christoph Martin Wieland (1733-1813) was born at Oberholzheim, near Biberach. After careful and thorough training under the instruction of his father, he entered the Institute at Klosterberg near Magdeburg. While at school here Klopstock's great work appeared, and Wieland's own words tell us of the impression it made upon him: 'When I read the *Messias*, I thought that I for the first time had gained a knowledge of myself.' . . . His literary work was enormous, filling forty-two volumes. He is one of the foremost translators Germany has had. He was the first to make Shakespeare known in Germany, having translated twenty-two plays, all in prose except *Midsummer Night's Dream*, which is in the meter of the original. He did a similar work with the satires of Horace and the letters of Cicero. Among his own works several novels are prominent. Many of them are located in Greece, with classic design but modern in thought and color. Although his novels can not be called indecent, they frequently border on an undue indulgence of the amorous foibles of both sexes. Best among these is *Die Abderiten* (1774), which will ever remain one of the classic representations of the narrow life in a little German town of the eighteenth century, with all its self-importance, its insipidity, and humor. . . . His greatest work is the romantic poem *Oberon* (1780), which was everywhere regarded as a masterpiece. . . . *Oberon* was Wieland's last great work, and during the rest of his life he did little except edit his works, and make some translations from Latin. His last twenty-five years were spent in the leisurely contemplation of the development of the glorious period of German literature, which had its center in the quartet of writers in Weimar. He himself was the first one to come to the little 'Athens,' [Weimar], and it was he who had trained the young prince who afterward became the wise and liberal patron of poetry. His works were widely read when Herder began his critical studies. He had watched the beginning, the rise, and the early end of Schiller's career, and the whole broad expanse of Goethe's gigantic mind lay demonstrated before him. He was a student when Lessing's career began, and although his life was extended more than a quarter of a century beyond Lessing's, he belongs rather to an earlier period, and he has but little to do with the reforms that Lessing brought about. His service to German literature, however, is very great, and the chief points may be summed up as follows: (1) in place of Klopstock's exaggerated pathos

and stiffness, he imparted to the language ease, grace, and smoothness, so that the higher classes turned from French to their own language; (2) he restored rhyme, which Klopstock had despised, to its proper place; (3) he brought into favor German irony, wit, and humor; (4) he introduced romance into German poetry."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 76-79, 81-82, 84.

1700-1832.—New High German period.—Sturm und Drang.—Lessing, Herder, Goethe, and Schiller.—Richter and prose fiction.—"The dawn of the great era in German literature is coincident with the rise of Prussia as a military world-power. The coincidence is not accidental, though it is no doubt possible to make too much of it. Of the six most eminent writers of the century, Wieland and Schiller were Swabians, and Goethe was of the imperial city of Frankfurt. Herder and Klopstock were indeed born on Prussian soil, but they did not long remain Prussian subjects. None of the five concerned himself to any great extent with contemporary politics, and what they wrote might seemingly have been written if Friedrich the Great had never fought the Second Silesian War, or had been defeated. It was only Lessing who was greatly and directly affected by the struggle. Still, there is no room for doubt as to the fundamental rightness of Goethe's saying that it was the Seven Years' War which first brought real import into German literature."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, p. 206.—"Klopstock and Wieland, Lessing and Herder, opened up new fields of thought in the intellectual life of Germany. They inaugurated a movement which in the youth of the country led to a tumult, in which the young writers ran from one extreme to the other. The commotion passed throughout the cultured world; in all lands there was a revolt against the established principles of society and state, a longing to return to the natural state of mankind. The leader of the movement was without doubt the Genevese philosopher, Jean Jacques Rousseau, in whose writings the revolutionary principles are most abundant, most radical, and the most effective. . . . The height of the period was attained during the seventies and eighties of the last century. 'Originality and genius' was their watchword. In many of the writers these principles degenerated into pure license. In ridding themselves of the old laws that shackled art, they forgot those that regulated morals. . . . One of the leaders of this fantastic literature was Maximilian Klinger (1752-1831). He . . . wrote several dramas, in which he piles up horrors and regards them as everyday things. A few of them show observation and knowledge of society. The most characteristic and the best known among them is *Sturm und Drang*, the title of which soon became applied to the whole period."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 107-108.—"The literary revolution demanded emancipation from rules, and was, in its political aspect, a movement of opposition to established authorities; the religious revolution was directed against the so-called enlightened school, and was in this respect conservative. Both movements apparently failed. The poets were obliged to submit themselves again to the sway of rules, and their political declamations had not the slightest direct effect; on the other hand, the Illuminati only became bolder and more radical in their advances, and won back to their side a few of their most decided opponents. Yet the chief effect of the revolution was, after all, an extraordinary increase of poetic and scientific power, and the wide extension of

literary interests throughout Germany; many of the tendencies, too, which could not assert themselves for the present, remained dormant and awoke to fresh life in Romanticism. . . . German provinces which had as yet played little part in modern literature now sent forth their representatives, and some of the violent Shakespearians, such as Lenz, Klüger, and Wagner, belonged to the circle of Goethe's acquaintance in Strassburg and Frankfurt."—W. Scherer, *History of German literature*, pp. 114-115.

"Gotthold Ephraim Lessing (1729-81) is the first German example of a man of letters in the grand style. Of the poet's peculiar gift he had, as he himself clearly perceived and frankly admitted, but a small share. . . . The earliest writings of Lessing, consisting of prose comedies, epigrams, fables, anacreontics, and other poetic trifles in the reigning Saxon manner, contain but little that foretells the coming man. . . . The first work of Lessing that is historically important is Miss Sara Sampson, written in 1755. By way of accentuating the fact that it dealt with ordinary folk and not with sceptred kings, he called it a 'bourgeois tragedy.'"—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 226, 228-229.—"Lessing began his career as a literary critic by destroying what may be called Gottschedianism. . . . In . . . the *Briefe, die neueste Litteratur betreffend*, which, in common with Friedrich Nicolai and Moses Mendelssohn, he edited in 1759 and 1760, we have the first unmistakable indication of the way in which he was to lead modern German literature. . . . Gottsched was the first one to fall; he was followed by the whole school of Pseudo-classicism which now for more than two centuries had kept the genuinely classic out of sight. The discovery of true classic antiquity; the reconstruction of its real beauty and greatness; the reform of modern art and literature, not through a slavish imitation of its forms, but through an active assimilation and adaptation of its principles; in short, the reassertion and fuller development of the ideals for which in the beginning of the sixteenth century the Humanists had fought,—this was the second and decisive step in Lessing's critical career, marked by *Laokoon* (1766) and the *Hamburgische Dramaturgie* (1767). Goethe, in an often quoted passage of *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, has testified to the liberating influence which the *Laokoon* exercised upon his generation. 'One must be a youth,' he says, 'to realize the effect produced upon us by Lessing's *Laokoon*, which transported us from the region of petty observation into the free fields of thought. The "ut pictura poesis" so long misunderstood was at once set aside; the difference between art and poetry was made clear; the summits of both appeared separated, however near each other might be their bases. The artist was to confine himself within the limits of the beautiful; while to the poet, who cannot ignore whatever there is significant in any sense, it was given to roam into wider fields. The former labours for the external sense, which is satisfied only with the beautiful; the latter for the imagination, which may come to terms even with the ugly. As by a flash of lightning, all the consequences of this striking thought were revealed to us; all previous criticism was thrown away like a worn-out coat.' . . . While Lessing thus in the *Laokoon* brushed away the misinterpretations and arbitrary rules in which pseudo-classicism had buried the works of classic sculpture and poetry, bringing to light their true human outline and their true value for a regeneration of modern art and literature, he was at the same time preparing himself to rescue the

classic drama from a similar perversion and to bring about the final overthrow of pseudo-classicism on the German stage. . . . It would be shutting one's eyes to an apparent fact, not to see that Lessing was in equally close contact with another great movement which, . . . was intimately allied with the eighteenth-century struggle for freedom, and which was destined to become the dominant factor in the history of the nineteenth century; the movement for national consolidation. . . . Nowhere more forcibly than in his dramas has Lessing manifested this twofold quality of his work as standing both for cosmopolitan freedom and for national dignity. . . . In Klopstock we saw the poetic climax of Pietism, in Wieland the literary reflex of Rationalism; Lessing's place is above either of these movements. To put it in a word, he was in the domain of religion what Winckelmann was in the domain of art. He foreshadowed, if he did not fully develop that most powerful and most liberalizing of all modern ideas: the idea of organic growth. . . . During the last year of his life, Lessing formulated his religious views systematically in the inspiring little treatise *The Education of the Human Race* (1780). The fundamental thought of the theological polemics and of Nathan—the conviction that the value of a religion lies, not in its doctrines, but in its views of life; that in all positive religions there is something of the divine truth; that they are all stations, as it were, on the royal path toward the final ideal religion—finds here an expression still more precise and definite. Here the idea of organic growth, which was alluded to at the beginning of this discussion, is set forth, disguised, it is true, in theological language, yet clearly and unequivocally. . . . None of Lessing's works is so characteristic of his religious position, and indeed of his whole intellectual attitude, as this little essay. Lessing does not break loose from the traditional belief, he accepts its premises, he adopts its phraseology. Yet, under his very hands, the old seems to assume a new and different life; its meaning changes; and having started with the conception of an extra-mundane deity, he at last finds himself face to face with a living universe. The theist before our very eyes develops into a pantheist."—K. Francke, *Social forces in German literature*, pp. 265-266, 268-271, 274, 277-278, 287, 297, 298, 299.

"The most valuable part of what the Germans call their classical literature is unquestionably that which took the form of the drama in verse. Other genres flourished and good things were achieved in them; but just as in the Athens of Pericles, the England of Elizabeth and the France of Louis XIV, it is in the poetic drama that we find the form and pressure of the time most richly bodied forth. Lessing led the way with *Nathan the Wise* in 1779."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, p. 269.—See also DRAMA: 1700-1800.—At the time of Lessing, and influencing him greatly, was Johann Gottfried Herder (1744-1803). "He had imagination, learning, historical insight, intellectual acumen and prophetic vision: but he lacked literary skill of the humbler sort,—was not a good craftsman with the pen. But he was full of substance."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, p. 237.—"Herder was not a star, but a constellation," declared his friend Jean Paul Richter. 'He left no work behind him worthy of his genius, but he was himself one of God's masterpieces.' Though a far greater man than Wieland, he was less of a politician. . . . From the beginning to the end of his career, he

detested the iron rule of great military empires, the creation of force, and the enemies of individual self-realisation. Humanity was his religion, and he was its High Priest. . . . At the age of twenty-five Herder won the prize set by the Berlin Academy for an essay on the reciprocal influence of governments and the sciences. The best method by which the government can promote the intellectual life of a nation, he argues, is by granting liberty of thought, which he defines as 'the fresh air of heaven.' . . . He praises Republics, and states it as an axiom that 'the boldest thoughts of the human spirit are conceived and the fairest plans fulfilled in free States.' Next in merit comes legal and enlightened monarchy; and he frankly prefers the 'fixed laws of a mild monarchy to the average republic.' . . . The main occupation of the early years in Weimar, whither he was summoned at the instance of Goethe, was the 'Philosophy of History,' a panoramic study of the conditions and course of human development. The second volume of his masterpiece sharply attacked Kant's newly published essay on Universal History for its emphasis on the State. . . . He misunderstands Kant's noble conception of the State as organised freedom, and cries 'What an evil principle it is that man is an animal who needs a master and looks for his happiness to one or more of them. . . . His ultimate aim was as noble and his zeal for rational liberty as sincere as that of his old master; but he was incapable of thinking out the construction of a better political system. . . . Herder aged rapidly, and his powers began to flag when he was fifty. 'I am broken and empty,' he wrote to Gleim in 1796. . . . The gospel of the Revolution, *La Carrière ouverte aux talents*, expressed his life-long convictions. Though a man of letters, not a man of action, he realised and taught that the secret of political no less than intellectual progress lay in the ever-widening measure of ordered liberty."—G. P. Gooch, *Germany and the French Revolution*, pp. 160-162, 172-173.—"In [Herder's] work are found, along with much that is confused and erroneous, the germs of the whole literary movement that began with Goethe's *Götz von Berlichingen* and ended with the decadence of romanticism. He is the real father of the historical method. It was he who first expounded, in a large and impressive way, that idea that poetry is everywhere the evolutionary product of national conditions, and that the criteria for judging it should be sought in that fact rather than in abstract and universal canons."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 237-238.

"While so many men of genius were going to ruin through the 'Storm and Stress' influence, there arose a Poet-Pair who stand out alone in German literature and in world literature, in their clearness and in their influence, Goethe and Schiller."

—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 107-108.—Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832) "stands in German literature as the first and by far the greatest figure, and also one of the greatest in the literature of the world. His genius was universal, enabling him to work with ease and success in all kinds of literature; he unites more than any other person in perfect harmony, nature and art, life and poetry, form and content. In him the Classical period reached its height, and if we compare him with the other men of this period, we will see that in him were united Klopstock's ability to enrich the language, Lessing's clearness of vision and bold individuality, Wieland's elegance and grace, Herder's universality, and Schiller's rhythm and rhetoric. His works and his influence will endure as long as language lasts."

—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 162-163.—"In fiction . . . [Goethe] produced during the *Sturm und Drang* period [*Die Leiden des jungen Werthers* (1774)]. . . . *Werther* profoundly influenced the development of the German national novel, but it is not, strictly speaking, itself a link in that development. . . . The transition in Goethe's life from *Sturm und Drang* to classicism is a chapter which still awaits exhaustive and conclusive treatment at the hands of the poet's biographers. Goethe's decisive break with the literary ideals of his youth was, in the first instance, occasioned by the change in his life: at the close of 1775 the Duke of Saxe-Weimar invited him to his Court, where before very long the poet became not only the intimate friend, but also the adviser and minister of his patron. The new conditions brought with them more varied responsibilities; they meant a less self-centred life than Goethe had led in Frankfurt; he learned to look upon his own poetic production in a more objective and critical spirit. . . . Goethe's journey to Italy in the years 1786-8 was the central event of his life; it formed the culmination of his first classical period which must be clearly discriminated from the second period of classicism—that of *Hermann und Dorothea* and *Die natürliche Tochter*. In Italy, far removed from the atmosphere in which he had grown up, Goethe acquired for the first time that wonderful power of self-judgment which henceforward distinguishes him among the great poets of the world. . . . The serene greatness of the antique was interpreted by Winckelmann and its reflexion in the Italian art of the Renaissance, became in Goethe's mind not merely the art-canon of a definite age, but an intellectual dogma of universal application. He arrived at no conscious decision—as in his later classical period—in favour of a classical as opposed to a Romantic or German art; he was only firmly convinced that a truly great art should express, above all things, tranquillity of soul. In *Torquato Tasso* (1790) we find the quintessence of Goethe's reflexions on his own life and mission as a poet; in *Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre* (1795-6), which had been begun in the early years at Weimar, his ripe conclusions on the great problems of life and art. This novel—and it is not often regarded under this aspect—is the immediate product, the fullest summary, of Goethe's Italian experiences; neither in form nor in substance is it a 'classic' work, but it has in common with classic literature that calm optimism which henceforth Goethe prized above all else."—J. G. Robertson, *Literature in Germany (Cambridge modern history, v. 10, pp. 387, 389-390)*.—"As a poet, an artist, and a man, he [Goethe] was to Germany a possession of inestimable value, because he created and assured for his people their position of spiritual power in the nineteenth century. The poet Goethe and the philosopher Goethe may divide between them whatever of soul-stirring tragedy and wealth of thought is contained in *Faust*; his lyric poetry remains as young, fresh, and beautiful, as on the day when it was written, and opens our eyes to a world of beauty; through *Prometheus*, *Iphigenie*, and *Hermann und Dorothea*, he made accessible to us classical antiquity; in *West-östlicher Divan* he blended two worlds into one, in the universalistic spirit of Herder; he leads us back to Spinoza, like whom he was full of religion; and leads us forward to Darwin, and, in the realms of nature and history, opens for us a view of the whole as well as of the origin and development of the parts. Above all this hovers the idea of pure humanity, like a sun, which we

must not seek pedantically in the form of a systematic philosophy of the world, but in its reflected colour splendour, which shines out of all his poetical works, and, what is more, out of his whole personality."—A. Bielschowsky, *Life of Goethe* (tr. by W. A. Cooper), v. 3, pp. 307-308.—"After all due reservations have been made it remains true that Goethe must be regarded as the most important figure in the history of literature since Shakespeare. In arriving at an estimate we must consider not only height, but also breadth of endeavour and of attainment. Other modern poets have perhaps touched points as high as were ever touched by Goethe. No other poet, no other prose-writer, raised the 'pyramid of his existence,' to use Goethe's own image, so high from a basis so extended. As a lyrical poet, he is the first of his own country. In a certain enormity of lyrical genius and a vast resonance of voice he is, no doubt, surpassed by Victor Hugo, but he is not surpassed in spontaneity, in lucidity, in perfection of workmanship. And in his dramatic work Goethe is incomparably the greater of the two. No poet so eminent has been so vital, so sure, so complete, so creative a critic. No one else equally rich in wisdom concerning human life has been so distinguished through the divinations of science. No other student of the world of nature has offered us so valuable a store of observations on the conduct of life and the formation of character."—E. Dowden, *Goethe: His genius and intellectual development* (Bookman, Feb., 1904, p. 203).

"Taking up, . . . the particular departments of literary work in which [Johann Christoph Friedrich von] Schiller [1759-1805] employed himself, we shall find a variety almost as great as that of Göthe. That he might have become a skilful writer of romances is indicated by the incomplete story of the 'Ghost-seer.' He accomplished more in history, but his labors in this field, though important, were transitory. He was full of the aspiration to set free and help upward humanity, and the historical subjects he chose always had to do with the struggle of humanity toward something higher. The first work he ever projected, before the composition of 'The Robbers,' was a history of the most remarkable rebellions and conspiracies of the middle and modern ages. The works which he did complete were the story of the 'Revolt of the Netherlands,' and the 'Thirty Years' War. . . . Schiller had gifts which might have made him a speculative philosopher instead of a poet. The philosophical and poetical tendencies were at first about equally developed in him, and he was embarrassed between them. He says himself in a letter to Göthe: 'The poet in my youth overcame me when I ought to have philosophized, and the philosophical spirit when I wanted to write poetry. Still it often happens to me that the imagination disturbs my abstractions, and the cold understanding my poetry.' . . . He was also an admirable critic, often not sparing himself. 'The fine arts have no other end than to delight,' was one of his *dicta*,—a judgment in which he combated the view that one of the fine arts, poetry, should teach and exhort, and so pronounced his own condemnation; for his own poetry was always full of lessons and exhortations. He concluded his critical writings with the treatise, the most valuable of the series, . . . 'Upon Naïve and Sentimental Poetry.' His letters are said by Göthe to belong to his best work; he was magnificent in conversation, and, had circumstances afforded him the opportunity, might have become a splendid popular orator. . . . In his lyrics the

man himself constantly shines through; they are not such transcripts of impressions, from which personality has been removed, as we find in Göthe. His first lyrics are blamed as without poetic worth, having, to be sure, enough of passion and fancy, but extravagant and untruthful. Schiller himself afterward condemned them. . . . It seems almost irreverent to touch 'The Walk,' much more the 'Song of the Bell,' with criticism. Yet if we are to judge them by rigid art rules, they are defective. It was Schiller's own dictum that the function of the fine arts, and therefore of poetry, is to give pleasure. If it is made a channel for instruction, it is a perversion, and the perfect effect is in so far hindered. The didactic purpose of these poems is unmistakable. . . . Schiller had plans for great epics, which remained unfulfilled. Descriptive pieces of a shorter kind, romances and ballads, he produced abundantly, and they are among the treasures of German literature."—J. K. Hosmer, *Short history of German literature*, pp. 420-422, 424-425.

"In modern times, . . . Schiller can best stand as the representative German poet. No other is more thoroughly noble; no other so characteristically German. . . . The very limitations of Schiller, as compared with Göthe, make it more appropriate to select him as a typical poet of his race. In so far as Göthe was greater, he lifted himself into the region of the universal, standing for the world, and not a race of men. Schiller, less cosmic, is always the German, and mirrors the German soul. Where Schiller was strongest, as a dramatist, he was, if we except 'Faust,' Göthe's peer. Carlyle, the Diogenes of criticism, jeering and flouting the world from the rugged tub of his uncouth phrase,—so honest and so crabbed,—even Carlyle would hardly have dared to write at last what he once wrote in his youth: "'Faust' is but a careless effusion compared with 'Wallenstein.'" 'It is so great that there is nothing like it in existence.' For nobility of soul Schiller is supreme, and his nobleness is of a German type. . . . In his intellectual traits Schiller is even more thoroughly German than in his character. . . . Poetry was his life task; not because, like Göthe, he sought to reach in it an artistic result, but because he wanted to use it as a medium through which he might express his great ideas of human dignity and freedom. Art with him was a secondary matter, which he often sacrificed to what he felt to be greater. As Göthe was the artist, Schiller was a teacher and preacher. In Schiller the idealistic tendency was very marked. . . . His intercourse with Göthe, and study of Göthe and Homer, corrected his too great subjectivity, while at the same time his interest in his great inspiring ideas—human dignity and freedom—never diminished. His fancy was so creative, his judgment won such certainty, that at last he could create the most vivid pictures of outward nature,—even from the contemplation of phenomena subordinate and trifling, get a perfect sight of the sublimest. . . . Though he grew as an artist constantly greater, he never reached the mark of Göthe. The latter was like the sculptor who forms his statues carefully from living models, moulding, however, the particulars derived from them to the highest expression of bodily and spiritual beauty. Schiller, on the other hand, always proceeding from general ideas, striving to reach for them a corresponding form, was like a sculptor possessed by a thought in embodying which he neglects the study of actual living forms. . . . While Göthe, . . . became blended, as it were, with the world outside of himself, the spirit of Schiller always asserted

itself. 'Even in the best of his characters,' says a critic, 'we rarely see individual beings with sharp, clear-cut features; he expresses himself and his world of ideas; he himself continually *shines through* in his creations. As it is purely impossible to meet the man Göthe in his poems, Schiller, on the other hand, meets us in his personality out of every line he has written, clear and life-warm. Hence it follows that he comes so near to us.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 413-419.—'Goethe and Schiller stand to each other in a relation both of contrast and harmony, similar to that which we found to exist between Herder and Kant. Goethe's chosen field of study was nature and the human affections, Schiller's was history and human aspirations. Goethe's prevailing attitude was one of sympathetic contemplation, Schiller's was one of energetic activity. Goethe, like Herder, looked at life as an organic whole of natural causes and effects. To live one's self out to the full extent of one's faculties, to promote in others the unhampered growth of individuality, to recognise the unity and reasonableness of the whole order of phenomena—this seemed to him the first and most necessary task of civilized man. Schiller, like Kant, looked at life as a continuous struggle for perfection. The victory of mind over matter, of the inner law over outer conditions, of the human will over the inevitableness of fate—this seemed to him the great problem of existence. Goethe strove for aesthetic universality, Schiller strove for moral freedom. But in spite of these far-reaching differences of temper and genius, the mission performed by Goethe and Schiller for modern humanity was essentially the same. On the basis of the most complete intellectual freedom, unhampered by any bias of whatever kind, religious, social, or even national, they reared a structure of poetic symbols embodying the fundamental demands of all religion and bringing out the common ideals of all society and of every race.'—K. Francke, *Social forces in German literature*, p. 335.—'Mutually antithetic as the standpoints of Goethe and Schiller were, time gradually brought about an understanding between the poets. . . . *Über naive und sentimentalische Dichtung* is the key to the friendship of the two poets. It is Schiller's justification of a type of poet directly antithetic to that represented by the Greeks, Shakespeare, and Goethe—a sentimental or modern type of which he regarded himself, and rightly, as a characteristic example. . . . The friendship of Goethe and Schiller, that is to say the eleven years from 1794 to Schiller's death in 1805, represents the summit of German literary achievement, the culminating result in the long process of eighteenth century development towards classicism. As in all classical epochs, the dominant note of the time was one of conscious achievement; 'so herrlich weit,' and they doubted . . . the possibility of the younger generation advancing beyond them. What was written by the great German poets in these years was a ripe, not a ripening, literature; the nation was no longer in the position of Goethe's Iphigenia. . . . The land of the Greeks was found; Hellas was in Weimar.'—J. G. Robertson, *Literature in Germany* (Cambridge modern history, v. 10, pp. 391-393).

'It was a long time before the work of Goethe and Schiller at Weimar took on the glamour of classicity. [See also DRAMA: 1773-1832.] . . . In prose fiction the man of the hour was Jean Paul Friedrich Richter (1763-1825). In respect of literary affinity Richter was a child of the sentimental age; he owed but little to the new romanticism which began to make a stir as a militant

doctrine just as his popularity was culminating.'—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 307, 309.—'Jean Paul Friedrich Richter, better known under the name of Jean Paul (1763-1825), was reared under circumstances of privation. . . . In 1790 he struck his own field, the idyl, and *Das Leben des vergnügten Schulmeisterleins Wuz* (Life of the Little Contented Schoolmaster, Wuz), which is one of the most attractive of his works, appeared and founded the reputation that increased with his succeeding humorous novels. *Die Unsichtbare Loge* (The Invisible Lodge) made him at once popular, and opened the way for a life free from financial care. . . . His greatest novels, which at the time of their publication aroused much enthusiasm, are now almost forgotten. . . . Richter had a genuine gift of humor, a strong imagination, and a happy faculty of catching the poetical aspect of everything. His narrative is broad and animated, full of life and action, but his materials are seldom artistically joined together. He runs from one extreme of feeling to another, and incongruous subjects are jostled together in sentences lacking in elegance and grace. He abounds in metaphors, parentheses, and digressions. Although he did influence the humor of his time, and although his contemporaries honored him highly, and thought the twentieth century would rank him among the great men of literature, the present generation esteems him less than ever, and his work has influenced literature less than that of numerous men of inferior talent.'—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 163-164.

1798-1896.—Rise of the Romantic school.—Poetry of Körner and Heine.—Lyric verse.—Freitag and Heyse.—Novels and short stories.—Nietzsche the poet-philosopher.—'Romanticism—a most awkward and inadequate name for a literary, artistic, and philosophical movement of a highly composite character and most diversified ramifications—[was virtually founded by the publication of the *Athanaeum*, 1798 and] coincided, in point of time, with the deepest degradation of the German people under the Napoleonic rule, the formal dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire, the intellectual and moral regeneration of the Prussian state, the rising of the people against the foreign oppressor, the wars of liberation, Napoleon's downfall, the attempted re-establishment of a German federation on a purely dynastic basis, the political and religious reaction of the Holy Alliance, and the beginnings of the liberal struggle for constitutional government.'—K. Francke, *Social forces in German literature*, p. 401.—'Regarded as a whole, German Romanticism is reaction. Nevertheless, as an intellectual, poetico-philosophical reaction, it contains many germs of new development, unmistakable productions of that spirit of progress which, by remoulding the old, creates the new, and by altering boundaries gains territory. The older Romantics begin, without exception, as the apostles of 'enlightenment.' They introduce a new tone into German poetry, give their works a new colour, and, in addition to this, revive both the spirit and the substance of the old fairy-tale, Volkslied, and legend. They exercise at first a fertilising influence upon German science; research in the domains of history, ethnography, and jurisprudence, the study of German antiquity, Indian and Greek-Latin philology, and the systems and dreams of the *Naturphilosophie* all receive their first impulse from Romanticism. They widened the emotional range of German poetry, though the emotions to which they gave expression were more frequently morbid than healthy. As critics, they



originally, and with success, aimed at enlarging the spiritual horizon. In their social capacity they vowed undying hatred to all dead conventionality in the relations between the sexes. The best among them in their youth laboured ardently for the intensification of that spiritual life which is based upon a belief in the supernatural. In politics, when not indifferent, they generally began as very theoretical republicans; who, however, in spite of their cosmopolitanism, strove to elevate and strengthen German patriotism. Unfortunately, their pursuit of all these worthy aims ended in comparative failure. Of all that the German Romanticists produced, little will endure—some masterly translations by A. W. Schlegel [1769-1844], a few of Tieck's productions, a handful of Hardenberg's and another of Eichendorff's lyrics, some of Friedrich Schlegel's essays, a few of Arnim's and Brentano's smaller works [Arnim and Brentano were the leaders of the second or younger Romantic School], a select number of Hoffmann's tales, and some very remarkable dramas and tales from the pen of that eccentric but real genius Heinrich von Kleist. The rest of the life-work of the Romanticists has disappeared from the memory of the present generation."—G. Brandes, *Main currents in nineteenth century literature*, v. 2, pp. 4-5. —"Theodor Körner (1791-1813) will always remain one of the interesting figures in the history and in the poetry of the War of Liberation. . . . He began to write in imitation of Schiller. . . . While he was at the height of happiness, came the German call to arms. . . . While marching toward Leipzig, under Major von Lützow, he wrote his celebrated song, *Lützows wilde Jagd* (Wild Chase). His heroic career from the time he entered the army in March until he was killed in August, 1813, is made immortal in his poems and songs, which his father published under the title of *Leier und Schwert* (Lyre and Sword), in 1814. Some of his poems worthy of special mention are 'The Call,' 'Quick Up, My People! the Fire Signals are Smoking,' *Gebet während der Schlacht* (Prayer during Battle), and *Das Schwerthied* (Sword Song). . . . As a dramatist Körner is almost unknown, but his *Leier und Schwert* songs are familiar to the people. They sang them as they struggled against Napoleon in 1813, 1814, and 1815, and they sang them with the same vigor as they marched against Napoleon III in 1870 and 1871."—R. W. Moore, *History of German literature*, pp. 182-183.

The greatest poet of the era of romanticism which followed the Battle of Waterloo was Heinrich Heine (1797-1856.) "The names of Goethe and Heine must always be mentioned together in connection with German lyric poetry. Heine is one of the most fruitful among German song-writers, and among those who came after Goethe he may perhaps claim the first place as the poet who bears, as no other ever bore, a laughing tear in his scutcheon. His peculiar power lay in the blending of elegy with jest and satire, and his influence on the whole of Europe is not yet exhausted."—W. Scherer, *History of German literature*, p. 281.—"Among the other continuators of the romantic tradition in lyric verse, the most noteworthy are Morike, Storm, and Scheffel. Eduard Morike (1804-75) was a Swabian pastor who led a secluded life, taking little note of the outward turmoil and cleaving to the old poetic creed. . . . The savour of Theodor Storm (1817-88) is very like that of Morike, but with the difference that his verse is redolent of the north—of Schleswig-Holstein and the sea. . . . The prime distinction of Joseph Victor von Scheffel (1826-86) is his humour. [His Ekkehard is the most popular of Ger-

man historical novels.] . . . Gottfried Keller's (1819-90), the wizard story-teller of Zurich, books are on the whole the very best reading to be found in the whole range of nineteenth-century German-fiction. . . .

"Gustav Freytag (1816-95), in point of honours and emoluments one of the most successful German writers of the century, was a Silesian who set out in his youth to become a professional scholar, but gave up that career for letters and journalism. He had already written a number of plays, including the very successful *Journalists* (1852), when he won the memorable triumph of *Debit and Credit* (1854). . . . The great distinction of Paul Heyse (1830-1914) perhaps the most versatile German writer of his century, is to have created a new standard of style and artistic finish for the novelette. . . . His first collection of short stories was published in 1855, and contained the much praised *L'Arrabbiata*. . . . The war of 1870, which in a way realised the long cherished dream of national unity, was not followed by anything like a literary renaissance."—C. Thomas, *History of German literature*, pp. 359, 360, 364, 367, 368, 376.

"The effort to find new moral and spiritual values, . . . [is largely due to] one of the most commanding personalities of modern Europe—the great poet-philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900). For Nietzsche is not, in the narrower sense, a systematic thinker at all: his metaphysics are secondary both in importance and in influence. He is a seer, a proclaimer and a prophet. And the burden of his message which he has embodied in *Thus Spake Zarathustra* (1883-1891) in a form more enduring than brass, is that we recover a sense of the qualitative and save the noblest and most personal elements in human life from obliteration through the tribal instincts of an industrial democracy. . . . Nietzsche is the sworn enemy of all that is negative—mere shirking, mere conformity, mere worldly prudence in the face of valorous instincts. . . . From his despair not so much over the ways and institutions of men, as over their very minds and souls, Nietzsche proceeds, quite naturally, to his conception of the superman. He simply transfers the developmental view of modern biology from the physical to the psychical life and reaches the vision of a race that shall be strong, harmonious and capable of a constant largeness and intensity of experience. It is a popular error to suppose the superman a splendid barbarian astride the neck of his slaves. For, according to Nietzsche, all men, in that age, will be supermen. . . . Not some men but 'man is something that must be overcome—the superman is the meaning of the earth'; not some men but 'man is a rope suspended between animal and superman.' . . . *Thus Spake Zarathustra* . . . is Nietzsche's greatest work, it is the one which has had the widest influence, and also the one in which he spoke frankly as a poet and seer."—L. Lewi-son, *Spirit of modern German literature*, pp. 61-64, 66-67, 72.

18th-19th centuries.—Historical literature. See HISTORY: 23; 25; 27, to 30; 33.

1817-1871.—Drama of Grillparzer. See DRAMA: 1817-1871.

1900-1922.—Naturalism.—Hauptmann and Sudermann.—Poets: Dehmel, Rilke, George, Hofmannstahl, "Buddenbrooks," the culmination of the novel of pure naturalism.—Schnitzler.—Writers of the interpretative novel: Hesse, Böhlau, Huch.—Post-war publication.—"The influence of Nietzsche, though slow at first to gather force, spread rapidly in the early eighteen hundred and nineties. A period of social and economic re-

adjustment had produced the art of the naturalist—the art in which the creative imagination strives to identify itself wholly with the phenomenal world. In its pure form that art endures and must always endure. . . . But a counter-current set in and its swiftness grew under the new impulse which Nietzsche gave it.”—L. Lewisohn, *Spirit of modern German literature*, p. 75.—“A census taken at any time during the past decade or so to determine whom the present generation regards as the greatest living dramatist of Germany would result beyond a peradventure in the overwhelming triumph of Gerhart Hauptmann [1862- ]. . . . The specific nature of his prodigious lyric gifts, notably the lilting melody of his verse, which so often asserts itself triumphantly over the doctrinal veto, springs from a decadent predisposition. The much-abused word decadent is to be taken not at all in a sinister meaning, but to denote a state of overrefinement manifesting itself in a subtle yet sterile receptivity, brooding pensiveness. . . . With his peculiar mental and temperamental equipment he might well have become the foremost lyricist of his generation. When he leaves free rein to his poetic fancy (as here and there already in *Hannele* and throughout *Die Versunkene Glocke*) he gives being to poems of exquisite beauty, veritable asphodel blossoms, fragrant with a delicate and melancholy sweetness. More than that, there is a fine lyric quality in all of Hauptmann’s plays, a *Stimmungszauber* unmatched by any other modern dramatist; even the most crassly naturalistic among them, *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, contains one such scene of great beauty. In this power of drawing the spectator at will into the mood of the play lies Hauptmann’s real strength. It is not, however, for his lyric genius but as a dramatist pure and simple that Hauptmann is worshipped by his contemporaries.”—O. Heller, *Studies in modern German literature*, pp. 119, 123-125.—See also DRAMA: 1871-1921.—Hermann Sudermann’s (1857- ) “importance as a leader in the modern literary movement dates properly from the year 1887, when, besides a collection of short stories entitled *Im Zwielicht* (‘In the Gloaming’), he produced his first work of real significance, the novel *Frau Sorge* (‘Dame Care’), which revealed him at once as a writer of exceptional force and skill and also as a mature philosopher. . . . *Der Katzensteg* (in the English translation ‘Regina’) (1889) is a great book in nearly every sense. Among its many distinctive merits it teaches us to appreciate a profound historic sense in this true son of the modern era. . . . Sudermann’s next novel is neither romantic nor is it a ‘novel with a purpose.’ The breezy story of *Iolanthes Hochzeit* (‘The Wedding of Iolanthe’) (1892) is generally underrated, largely because narrative art is not in itself sufficiently appreciated by Germans (nor, for the matter of that, by Americans). Readers are apt to value a story wholly for the incident; and in this respect *Iolanthes Hochzeit* does not offer anything that is striking. . . . In judging of Sudermann’s next novel, *Es War* (‘Once upon a Time’) (1894), which in some respects is inferior to ‘Dame Care’ and ‘Regina,’ it ought to be remembered that it was written fully ten years before publication. It too, nevertheless, gives ample evidence of the author’s extraordinary faculties and forces, which have contributed in equal shares to its excellence. . . . His characters may fitly be divided into two classes: the active or potent, and the passive or impotent,—the driving and the drifting. To the former goes out the writer’s approval, regardless of fine moral distinctions; to the latter, his sympathy, pity, blame, or contempt. . . . The same idea is preached in

Sudermann’s plays even more emphatically and drastically than in his novels.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 14, 19, 23-25, 27-28.—See also DRAMA: 1871-1921.—The “struggle for liberation is illustrated by Richard Dehmel (b. 1803), one of the most remarkable though also one of the most unequal of modern poets. . . . In his first volume reflection predominates over passion and beauty. . . . The book was characteristically called *Redemptions* (1891). . . . In his . . . volume *The Transformations of Venus* he turned resolutely from the world of individual experience and sought to master his problem by a generalizing and symbolical representation. The attempt, despite the really magnificent *Venus Primitiva* and individual passages of high interest, is a failure. . . . Finally, however, he seems to have realized his frequent failure to render his experience concrete and objective in art and so proceeded to write *Two Souls* (1903). This is a remarkably interesting poem. It is one of the three of four existing experiments at telling a story of modern, civilized life in verse. . . . It was but natural that men of a happier temperament arose who achieved the liberation, the self-directingness, the harmony of the Nietzschean command. They had their struggle; nor were these struggles without dust and heat. But all the discordant notes have been hushed, and no cry of conflict breaks in upon the liquid grace of Rainer Maria Rilke (b. 1875) the majestic sweetness of Stefan George (b. 1868), the ample harmonies of Hugo von Hofmannsthal (b. 1874). I have named the three poets who chiefly represent the cult of pure beauty in the modern literature of the German tongue. . . . All the three poets in question have been reckoned among the symbolists. They transcend, I think, any such classification and seek their lineage among an older and larger order of poets. Beauty is to them the ultimate meaning and reality of things which they draw forth and render permanent in the forms of art, releasing the eternal from the transitory. Their renderings of nature, though often very exact, are always drenched with spirituality; from life they wring its soul of beauty. And always they deliver themselves into the power of the creative imagination, deliberately estranged from science, from formal philosophy, from all the activities of the ‘meddling intellect.’ . . . In their poems substance and form are neither divided nor divisible. Color and melody and rhythm interpenetrate their pure and serene substance and are interpenetrated by it. There is no such thing in their work as poetic ornament or decoration. . . . The poems of Rainer Maria Rilke are all quite brief. They express a mood of the poet, or of an historical or of an imaginary personality. But all, even the concretest in subject—*Songs of the Virgins*, *Charles XII of Sweden Rides Through the Ukraine*, *The Minstrel Sings to a Royal Child*—are raised into a timeless region of beauty. . . . With Stefan George we enter the region of a higher and austere art. . . . He is magnificently himself; he is indeed the leader and inspirer of this whole group. But he served his own apprenticeship under noble masters—Keats and Dante and Goethe. . . . He lends dignity and splendor to the simplest lyrical motives, and evokes in poems of astonishing brevity his personal imaginative experience of both Hellenic antiquity and the Middle Age. . . . The poems are short and written in firm, clear, serenely modulated blank-verse. Pictures and emotions are restrained and finite, seen and felt and then rendered with extraordinary precision. . . . And George’s poems are equally wrought throughout. There is no slovenly word, no weak line, no

flagging of that truly shaping imagination. . . . He has lyrics of Goethean charm and warmth, lyrics that Schumann would have chosen in his deepest and clearest moods; he has stanzas, especially in *The Fear of the Soul*, which are of a broad and rich, though always of an inviolably noble humanity. Hugo von Hofmannsthal is of a warmer, more impetuous nature than George. . . . His lyrics are few, but some of them move us more immediately, especially the matchless *Spring Passage*, a poem which renders the chill, ethereal magic of its scene as unsurpassably as the *Ode to the West Wind* renders the passionate longing and melancholy of Shelley's autumn stricken soul. Then, too, Hofmannsthal has not George's love of the untroubled. The beauty and expressiveness of human gesture and speech have delighted him more, and so he has projected his thoughts and moods in terms of movement and of action. Thus came into being those early one-act plays of his: *The Death of Titian*, *Yesterday*, *Death and the Fool*, which are not really drama at all, but project the conflicting forces, and fix in shadowy action the ideals, of the poet himself. Such methods presuppose a greater poetic copiousness, a longer breath than George's. And that is just what Hofmannsthal has. . . . The development of such a poet tended, of course, toward drama in the stricter sense. And we find him writing sparer, bolder, stormier verse when, as in *Electra* and *Œdipus and the Sphinx*, the figures of his imagination have detached themselves wholly from his personality and stepped out into the objective world. . . . It has been said that words are things. They are far more than that. They are the soul of beauty and meaning which the poet breathes into things. And that is what Rilke and George and Hofmannsthal have done."—L. Lewisohn, *Spirit of modern German literature*, pp. 76-77, 80, 86-88, 92-100.—"The culmination of the novel of pure naturalism in German literature . . . is represented by the most important book . . . *Buddenbrooks* (1901) by Thomas Mann. . . . It is a very long book, like the great novels of the older English school. . . . In its own medium and technique the book is as faultlessly built as the *Œdipus*. . . . The style is very rich and flexible, full of color and constantly just in expression. But there is no note of excess, even in beauty, for that would have been cloying in so long a book. . . . The story that Thomas Mann undertook to tell is that of the decay and extinction of a patrician family of Lübeck merchants. . . . What is new is that Thomas Mann does not seek to illustrate the interactions between men and historical and social changes. . . . We hear of the great events of the world only as they would be mirrored in the minds of this small group of men, not as the historian or the economist would see them. . . . In a word, Thomas Mann tells us the history of the souls and nerves of men from the July revolution to our own insistent and complex civilization. . . . If modern German literature had produced but this one book, it would not stand ignobly or ashamed among the modern literatures of the world. To illustrate . . . real feelings, to tell of the inexorable instincts of the inner man, veiled indeed but unimpaired by the conventions of the emotional life—this is the chief aim of the prose-writings of Arthur Schnitzler (b. 1862). . . . He has, very literally, the physician's union of ruthlessness and tenderness. . . . It is hard to select from among his stories. They differ somewhat, of course, in interest and power. They are equal in execution because that is always flawless. Perhaps the most arresting of them, the last word, too,

in psychological naturalism, is *Leutnant Gustl* (1901). In this story Schnitzler presents . . . a soul under the scientist's microscope. But Schnitzler's naturalism is neither polemic nor morbid. . . . It is difficult to formulate any final description of the rich, sad and yet so incisive art of *Mrs. Bertha Garlan*, *A Farewell*, *The Dead are Silent*, *The Stranger*, *The New Song*, *The Sage's Wife*. The style has an undertone of detachment, as though the stories were really written under the aspect of eternity. But its surface has a gentle glow, or, rather, a lovely and warm patina as on old statuary. The incidents are told and the characters drawn with the rarest insight, the keenest and most flexible intelligence, yet without a shadow of the merely clever. For Schnitzler is absorbed by the poignant beauty of life as it really is, as our true instincts bid us lead it, however we may strive and cry."—*Ibid.*, pp. 48-55.—"Among writers of the interpretative novel preëminence probably belongs to three: Hermann Hesse (b. 1877), Helene Böhlau (b. 1859), and Ricarda Huch (b. 1894). . . . I come now, however, to a book of a very different order, to a masterpiece as massive and complete in its very different way as Thomas Mann's *Buddenbrooks*. It is the high water mark of the achievement of the most gifted woman of modern Germany: *The Recollections of Ludolf Ursleu the Younger* (1893) by Ricarda Huch. . . . Ricarda Huch has a prose style of virile firmness and of the highest intellectual distinction. . . . 'Her spirit throbs continually like a fixed star: I prefer the calm and steady glow of the great planets.' And she has profound sayings which betray her participation in the light which Nietzsche shed upon the character of the moral world. 'This is the nature of genius: that it must not follow existing laws but that, through what it does, it gives laws to the world.'"—*Ibid.*, pp. 102, 104-106.—It is interesting to note that serious topics are engrossing the attention of the German people, and that a heavy historical volume such as Dr. Friedrich Spengler's "Der Untergang des Westens," has proved the most popular book of post-war publications.—See also DRAMA: 1871-1921.

ALSO IN: W. Bernhardt, *Deutsche Litteratur-Geschichte*.—K. Francke, *History of German literature*.—Idem, *Personality in German literature*.—F. H. Hedge, *Hours with German classics*.—K. Hillebrand, *German thought*.—I. Keller, *Bilder aus der deutschen Litteratur*.—G. Priest, *Brief history of German literature*.—L. L. Stroebe, and M. P. Whitney, *Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur*.—B. Taylor, *Studies in German literature*.—J. M. Brandes, *Romantic school in Germany (Main currents in nineteenth century literature, v. 2)*.—J. F. Coar, *Studies in German literature in the nineteenth century*.—R. M. Meyer, *Die deutsche Litteratur des 19 Jahrhunderts*.—G. E. B. Saintsbury, *Later nineteenth century*.—J. W. Scholl, *Friedrich Schlegel and Goethe*.—R. M. Wernae, *Romanticism and the romantic school in Germany*.—P. Pollard, *Masks and minstrels of new Germany*.—B. W. Wells, *Modern German literature*.—A. Bielschowsky, *Life of Goethe*.—P. H. Brown, *Life of Goethe*.—M. C. Crawford, *Goethe and his woman friends*.—G. H. Lewes, *Life of Goethe*.—T. Carlyle, *Life of Schiller*.—H. Düntzer, *Life of Schiller*.—C. Thomas, *Life and works of Friedrich Schiller*.

GERMAN NATIONS, Wandering of. See GOTHs; FRANKs; ALEMANNI; MARCOMMANTI; QUADI; SAXONS; ANGLES; BURGUNDIANS; VANDALS; SUEVI; LOMBARDS; BATAVIANS.

GERMAN ORGANISTS, school of music. See MUSIC: Modern: 1620-1722.

**GERMAN PARTIES:** In Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1899-1901.

**GERMAN SOCIETY.** See LEGAL AID: Origins.

**GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA.** See SOUTHWEST AFRICA.

**GERMAN TENANTS' ASSOCIATION.** See HOUSING: Germany: Convention of the League of German Tenants' Association.

**GERMAN WEST-AFRICA COMPANY:** Formation (1886). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

**GERMANIA.**—"The meaning of the name may be either 'good shouters' (Grimm), or, according to other writers, 'East-men,' or 'neighbours.'"—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, p. 17, note.

**GERMANIA SECUNDA:** Allotted to Burgundians. See BURGUNDIANS: Origin and early history.

**GERMANIC CONFEDERATION:** First. See GERMANY: 1814-1820; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; GERMANY: 1861-1866.

Second. See GERMANY: 1870 (September-December).

**GERMANIC DIET.** See DIET, GERMANIC.  
**GERMANICUS CAESAR** (B.C. 15-A.D. 19), Roman general and governor. See GERMANY: A.D. 14-16.

**GERMANISM.** See PAN-GERMANISM.  
**GERMANO-POLISH CONVENTION** (1921). See POLAND: 1921: Peace treaty with Russia.

**GERMANTOWN, Battle of.** See U. S. A.: 1777 (January-December).

## GERMANY

**Geographical description.—Location and physical features.**—Germany, or more properly speaking the German republic, lies in central Europe and forms a part of the great plain. Before the World War the German empire extended from 5° 52' to 22° 52' E. longitude and from 47° 16' to 55° 53' N. latitude, or 750 miles from east to west and 600 miles from north to south. It occupies a prominent place geographically, bounded as it is by seven countries, and holding a central position with regard to the great highways of Europe. One third of its entire frontage lies along the North and Baltic seas. In spite of this fact Germany has few good harbors and the Baltic ports are ice-bound a large portion of the year. The country falls naturally into three regions: the Alpine foreland, comprising the slopes of the true Alps and extending from lake Constance to the mouth of the Inn, the central highlands, covering the meadow region north of the Danube from the Carpathians to the middle Rhine, and the great northern plain, the lowest, flattest part of the country. Thus one third of Germany is lowland and two thirds highland. The most northerly of the mountain ranges runs east and west at right angles to the great southern range and divides middle Germany into two sections. Back of this northern range lies the Hessian upland and the Volsberg while among the outlying ranges are the famous Hartz mountains. The more southerly of these highlands include the Black Forest, the Swabian and Franconian Jura and the Bavarian forest. The great rivers of Germany flow for the most part towards the north west, and include the Rhine, the Weser, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula. The temperature of the country is not so varied as might be supposed. The Rhine lands are the warmest and the Baltic territories the coldest.

**Area.—Population.—Industry.**—Germany has varied in size throughout her history. Ancient Germany may be said to have been comprised of all the German speaking peoples, which included the inhabitants of Austria, parts of Switzerland and Holland. The German empire which came into being after 1871 was a union of the Northern Confederation (1815-1866) and the southern states exclusive of Austria. It contained twenty-six states: the four kingdoms of Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony and Württemberg, six grand-duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, three free towns and the territory of Alsace-Lorraine. In 1816 the population of Germany was 24,831,306. By the census of 1910 it was estimated to be 63,051,970 and the area 208,780 square miles. The population had

increased 47 per cent since 1871. But changes arranged for by the Treaty of Versailles make considerable difference in the area and population of Germany. Until the changes have been completed no accurate estimate can be given but the probable population of the present eighteen states of the Republic is 59,857,283 and the area 250,471 English square miles. The agricultural and industrial situation of Germany in the twentieth century shows a marked contrast to that of the nineteenth century. In the early part of the last century more than sixty per cent. of the population were engaged in tilling the soil, while by 1882 industry supported almost half the population. This falling off in agricultural pursuits has made Germany a large importer of foods and raw materials. On the other hand its extensive coal and iron beds have made mining an industry of prime importance, and its increased manufacturing has placed it second only to England in Europe. Before the war it was the second largest iron producer in the world and the third largest coal producer. Its iron is centered in Alsace, Prussia, Bavaria and Saxony, and most of its coal, covering an area of 2,800 square miles, lies in the basin of the Ruhr.

**Former colonies.**—Although Germany entered the race for colonial possessions over a hundred years after most of the European colonial empires had been established, it was remarkably successful in acquiring foreign territory. During the sixteen years of colonization (1884-1900) the Germans acquired 1,028,020 square miles of colonial territory, and in 1911 France ceded to Germany over 107,000 square miles of African Congo. At the opening of the World War Germany possessed, besides this section of French Congo, the following dependencies: Togoland; Cameroons; Southwest Africa; East Africa; Kiauchau; German New Guinea; Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, Bismarck Archipelago, Caroline islands, Palau islands, Marianne islands, Solomon islands, Marshall islands, etc.; and two of the Samoan islands. However, Germany lost all of her colonial possessions as a result of the war.

**Language.** See PHILOLOGY: 9.

**National name.**—"The nations of the Germania had no common name recognised by themselves, and were content, when, ages after, they had realised their unity of tongue and descent, to speak of their language simply as the Lingua Theotisca, the language of the people (theod). . . . Whence the name 'Deutsch.' Zeuss derives it rather from the root of 'deuten,' to explain, so that 'theotisc' should mean 'significant.' But the root of 'theod' and 'deuten' is the same. . . . The general name

by which the Romans knew them [Germani] was one which they had received from their Gallic neighbours."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, v. 1, ch. 3, and foot-note—"In Gothic we have 'thiuda,' people; 'thiudisks,' belonging to the people. . . . The High-German, which looks upon Sanskrit 't' and Gothic 'th' as 'd,' possesses the same word, as 'diot,' people; 'diutisc,' popularis; hence Deutsch, German, and 'deuten,' to explain, literally to Germanize.—F. Max Müller, *Lectures on the science of language*, 2nd series, lect. 5.—The account which Tacitus gives of the origin of the name Germany is this: "The name Germany . . . they [the Germans] say, is modern and newly introduced, from the fact that the tribes which first crossed the Rhine and drove out the Gauls, and are now called Tungrians, were then called Germans. Thus what was the name of a tribe, and not of a race, gradually prevailed, till all called themselves by this self-invented name of Germans, which the conquerors had first employed to inspire terror."—Tacitus, *Germany* (tr. by Church and Brodrick), ch. 2.—"It is only at the mouth of the Elbe that the Germany of the really historical period begins: and this is a Germany only in the eyes of scholars, antiquarians, and generalizing ethnologists. Not one of the populations to whom the name is here extended would have attached any meaning to the word, except so far as they had been instructed by men who had studied certain Latin writers. There was no name which was, at one and the same time, native and general. There were native names, but they were limited to special populations. There was a general name, but it was one which was applied by strangers and enemies. What this name was for the northern districts, we know beforehand. It was that of Saxones and Saxonia in Latin; of Sachsen and Sachsenland in the ordinary German. Evidence, however, that any German population ever so named itself is wholly wanting, though it is not impossible that some unimportant tribe may have done so; the only one so called being the Saxons of Ptolemy, who places them, along with several others, in the small district between the Elbe and the Eyder, and on three of the islands off the coast. . . . The Franks gave it its currency and generality; for, in the eyes of a Frank, Saxony and Friesland contained all those parts of Germany which, partly from their difference of dialect, partly from their rudeness, partly from their paganism, and partly from the obstinacy of their resistance, stood in contrast to the Empire of Charlemagne and his successors. A Saxon was an enemy whom the Franks had to coerce, a heathen whom they had to convert. What more the term meant is uncertain."—R. G. Latham, *Introduction to Kemble's "Hortæ Ferales."*—See also ALEMANNI: 213; TEUTONES.

**Tribal military organization and voting.** See COMMITATUS; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: A.D. 1st century.

**Early migrations.** See EUROPE: Introduction to historic period; Migrations.

As known to Tacitus.—"Germany is separated from the Galli, the Rhæti, and Pannonii, by the rivers Rhine and Danube; mountain ranges, or the fear which each feels for the other, divide it from the Sarmatæ and Daci. Elsewhere ocean girds it, embracing broad peninsulas and islands of unexplored extent, where certain tribes and kingdoms are newly known to us, revealed by war. The Rhine springs from a precipitous and inaccessible height of the Rhetian Alps, bends slightly westward, and mingles with the Northern Ocean. The Danube pours down from the gradual and gently

rising slope of Mount Abnoba, and visits many nations, to force its way at last through six channels into the Pontus; a seventh mouth is lost in marshes. The Germans themselves I should regard as aboriginal, and not mixed at all with other races through immigration or intercourse. For, in former times, it was not by land but on shipboard that those who sought to emigrate would arrive; and the boundless and, so to speak, hostile ocean beyond us, is seldom entered by a sail from our world. And, besides the perils of rough and unknown seas, who would leave Asia, or Africa, or Italy for Germany, with its wild country, its inclement skies, its sullen manners and aspect, unless indeed it were his home? In their ancient songs, their only way of remembering or recording the past, they celebrate an earth-born god, Tuisco, and his son Mannus, as the origin of their race, as their founders. To Mannus they assign three sons, from whose names, they say, the coast tribes are called Ingævones; those of the interior, Herminones; all the rest, Istævones. Some, with the freedom of conjecture permitted by antiquity, assert that the god had several descendants, and the nation several appellations, as Marsi, Gambriui, Suevi, Vandilii, and that these are genuine old names. The name Germany, on the other hand, . . . is modern and newly introduced."—Tacitus, *Germany* (tr. by Church and Brodrick), ch. 1-2.

**B.C. 12-9.—Campaigns of Drusus.**—The first serious advance of the Roman arms beyond the Rhine was made in the reign of Augustus, by the emperor's step-son, Drusus. Cæsar had crossed the river, only to chastise and terrify the tribes on the right bank which threatened Gaul. Agrippa, some years later, repeated the operation, and withdrew, as Cæsar had done. But Drusus invaded Germany with intentions of conquest and occupation. His first campaign was undertaken in the spring of the year 12 B. C. He crossed the Rhine and drove the Usipetes into their strongholds; after which he embarked his legions on transport ships and moved them down the river to the ocean, thence to coast northwards to the mouth of the Ems, and so penetrate to the heart of the enemy's country. To facilitate this bold movement, he had caused a channel to be cut from the Rhine, at modern Arnheim, to the Zuyder Zee, utilizing the river Yssel. The expedition was not successful and retreated overland from the Frisian coast after considerable disaster and loss. The next year, Drusus returned to the attack, marching directly into the German country and advancing to the banks of the Weser, but retreating, again, with little to show of substantial results. He established a fortified outpost, however, on the Lippe, and named it Aliso. During the same summer, he is said to have fixed another post in the country of the Chatti. Two years then passed before Drusus was again permitted by the emperor to cross the Rhine. On his third campaign he passed the Weser and penetrated the Hercynian forest as far as the Elbe.—the Germans declining everywhere to give him battle. Erecting a trophy on the bank of the Elbe, he retraced his steps, but suffered a fall from his horse, on the homeward march, which caused his death. "If the Germans were neither reduced to subjection, nor even overthrown in any decisive engagement, as the Romans vainly pretended, yet their spirit of aggression was finally checked and from thenceforth, for many generations, they were fully occupied with the task of defending themselves."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 36.

**B.C. 8-A.D. 11.—Campaigns of Tiberius.**—The work of Roman conquest in Germany, left

unfinished by Drusus, was taken up by his brother Tiberius (afterwards emperor) under the direction of Augustus. Tiberius crossed the Rhine, for the first time, 8 B. C. The frontier tribes made no resistance, but offered submission at once. Tiberius sent their chiefs to Augustus, then holding his court at Lugdunum (Lyons), to make terms with the emperor in person, and Augustus basely treated them as captives and threw them into prison. The following year found the German tribes again under arms, and Tiberius again crossed the Rhine; but it was only to ravage the country, and not to remain. Then followed a period of ten years, during which the emperor's step-son, dissatisfied with his position and on ill terms with Augustus, retired to Rhodes. In the summer of 4 A. D., he returned to the command of the legions on the Rhine. Meantime under other generals,—Domitius and Vinicius,—they had made several campaigns beyond the river; had momentarily crossed the Elbe; had constructed a road to the outposts on the Weser; had fought the Cherusci, with doubtful results, but had not settled the Roman power in Germany. Tiberius invaded the country once more, with a powerful force, and seems to have crushed all resistance in the region between the lower Rhine and the Weser. The following spring, he repeated, with more success, the movement of Drusus by land and sea, sending a flotilla around to the Elbe and up that stream, to a point where it met and co-operated with a column moved overland, through the wilderness. A single battle was fought and the Germans defeated; but, once more, when winter approached, the Romans retired and no permanent conquest was made. Two years later (6 A. D.), Tiberius turned his arms against the powerful nation of the Marcomanni, which had removed itself from the German mark, or border, into the country formerly occupied by the Boii—modern Bohemia. Here, under their able chief Marbod, or Maroboduus, they developed a formidable military organization and became threatening to the Roman frontiers on the Upper Danube. Two converging expeditions, from the Danube and from the Rhine, were at the point of crushing the Marcomanni between them, when news of the alarming revolt, in Pannonia and Dalmatia, called the "Batonian War," caused the making of a hasty peace with Maroboduus. The Batonian or Pannonian war occupied Tiberius for nearly three years. He had just brought it to a close, when intelligence reached Rome of a disaster in Germany which filled the empire with horror and dismay. The tribes in northwestern Germany, between the lower Rhine and the Elbe, supposed to be cowed and submissive, had now found a leader who could unite them and excite them to disdain the Roman yoke. This leader was Arminius, or Hermann, a young chief of the Cherusci, who had been trained in the Roman military service and admitted to Roman citizenship, but who hated the oppressors of his country with implacable bitterness. The scheme of insurrection organized by Arminius was made easy of execution by the insolent carelessness and the incapacity of the Roman commander in Germany, L. Quintilius Varus. It succeeded so well that Varus and his army,—three entire legions, horse, foot and auxiliaries,—probably 20,000 men in all,—were overwhelmed in the Teutoburger Wald, north of the Lippe, and destroyed. Only a few skulking fugitives reached the Rhine and escaped to tell the fate of the rest. This was late in the summer of 9 A. D. In the following spring Tiberius was sent again to the Rhine-frontier, with as powerful a levy of men and equipments as the empire could collect. He was

accompanied by his nephew, Germanicus, son of Drusus, destined to be his successor in the field of German conquest. But dread and fear were in the Roman heart, and the campaign of Tiberius, delayed another twelve months, until 11 A. D., was conducted too cautiously to accomplish any important result. He traversed and ravaged a considerable region of the German country, but withdrew again across the Rhine and left it, apparently, unoccupied. This was his last campaign. Returning to Rome, he waited only two years longer for the imperial sovereignty to which he succeeded on the death of Augustus, who had made him, by adoption, his son and his heir.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 36-38.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 1.—E. Creasy, *Fifteen decisive battles of the world*, ch. 5.—T. Smith, *Arminius*, pt. 1, ch. 4-6.

A. D. 14-16.—Campaigns of Germanicus.—Germanicus—the son of Drusus—was given the command on the Rhine at the beginning of the year 13 A. D. The following year, Augustus died and Tiberius became emperor; whereupon Germanicus found himself no longer restrained from crossing the river and assuming the offensive against Arminius and his tribes. His first movement, that autumn, was up the valley of the Lippe, which he laid waste, far and wide. The next spring, he led one column, from Mentz, against the Chatti, as far as the upper branches of the Weser, while he sent another farther north to chastise the Cherusci and the Marsi, surprising and massacring the latter at their feast of Tanfana. Later in the same year, he penetrated, by a double expedition,—moving by sea and by land, as his father had done before,—to the country between the Ems and the Lippe, and laid waste the territory of the Bructeri, and their neighbors. He also visited the spot where the army of Varus had perished, and erected a monument to the dead. On the return from this expedition, four legions, under Cæcina, were beset in the same manner that Varus had been, and under like difficulties; but their commander was of different stuff and brought them safely through, after punishing his pursuers severely. But the army had been given up as lost, and only the resolute opposition of Agrippina, the wife of Germanicus, had prevented the Roman commander at Vetera, on the Rhine, from destroying the bridge there, and abandoning the legions to their supposed fate. In the spring of 16 A. D., Germanicus again embarked his army, 80,000 strong, at the mouth of the Rhine, on hoard transports, and moved it to the mouth of the Ems, where the fleet remained. Thence he marched up the Ems and across to the Weser, and was encountered, in the country of the Cherusci, by a general levy of the German tribes, led by Arminius and Inguomerus. Two great battles were fought, in which the Romans were victorious. But, when returning from this campaign, the fleet encountered a storm in which so much of it perished, with the troops on board, that the disaster threw a heavy cloud of gloom over the triumph of Germanicus. The young general was soon afterwards recalled, and three years later he died,—of poison, as is supposed,—at Antioch. "The central government ceased from this time to take any warm interest in the subjugation of the Germans; and the dissensions of their states and princes, which peace was not slow in developing, attracted no Roman emissaries to the barbarian camps, and rarely led the legions beyond the frontier, which was now allowed to recede finally to the Rhine."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 42.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 1.—T. Smith, *Arminius*, pt. 1, ch. 7.

3rd century.—Beginning of the "Wandering of the Nations."—"Towards the middle of the third century, . . . a change becomes perceptible in the relations and attitude of the German peoples. Many of the nations, which have been celebrated in the annals of the classical writers, disappear silently from history; new races, new combinations and confederacies start into life, and the names which have achieved an imperishable notoriety from their connection with the long decay and the overthrow of the Roman Empire, come forward, and still survive. On the soil whereon the Sigambri, Marsi, Chauci, and Cherusci had struggled to preserve a rude independence, Franks and Saxons lived free and formidable; Alemanni were gathered along the foot of the Roman wall which connected the Danube with the Rhine, and had, hitherto, preserved inviolate the *Agri decumates* [territory north of the Danube and east of the Rhine conquered by the Romans from the Germans (See *AGRI DECUMATES*)]; while eastern Germany, allured by the hope of spoil, or impelled by external pressure, precipitated itself under the collective term of Goths upon the shrinking settlements of the Dacia and the Danube. The new appellations which appear in western Germany in the third century have not unnaturally given rise to the presumption that unknown peoples had penetrated through the land, and overpowered the ancient tribes, and national vanity has contributed to the delusion. As the Burgundians . . . were flattered by being told they were descendants of Roman colonists, so the barbarian writers of a later period busied their imaginations in the solitude of monastic life to enhance the glory of their countrymen, by the invention of what their inking of classical knowledge led them to imagine a more illustrious origin. . . . Fictions like these may be referred to as an index of the time when the young barbarian spirit, eager after fame, and incapable of balancing probabilities, first gloated over the marvels of classical literature, though its refined and delicate beauties eluded their grosser taste; but they require no critical examination; there are no grounds for believing that Franks, Saxons, or Alemanni, were other than the original inhabitants of the country, though there is a natural difficulty arising from the want of written contemporary evidence in tracing the transition, and determining the tribes of which the new confederacies were formed. At the same time, though no immigration of strangers was possible, a movement of a particular tribe was not uninfrequent. The constant internal dissensions of the Germans, combined with their spirit of warlike enterprise, led to frequent domestic wars; and the vanquished sometimes chose rather to seek an asylum far from their native soil, where they might live in freedom, than continue as bondmen or tributaries to the conqueror. Of such a nature were the wanderings of the Usipites and Teuchteri [Tenchteri] in Cæsar's time, the removal of the Ubii from Nassau to the neighbourhood of Cöln and Xanthen; and to this must be ascribed the appearance of the Burgundians, who had dwelt beyond the Oder, in the vicinity of the Main and the Necker. Another class of national emigrations, were those which implied a final abandonment of the native Germany with the object of seeking a new settlement among the possessions of the sinking empire. Those of the Goths, Vandals, Alans, Sueves, the second movement of the Burgundians, may be included in this category; the invasions of the Franks, Alemanni, and Saxons, on the contrary, cannot be

called national emigrations, for they never abandoned, with their families, their original birth-place; their outwanderings, like the emigrations of the present day, were partial; their occupation of the enemy's territory was, in character, military and progressive; and, with the exception of the Anglo-Saxon settlement in Britain, their connection with the original stock was never interrupted. In all the migrations of German peoples spoken of from Cæsar downwards, the numbers of the emigrants appear to be enormously exaggerated. The Usipites and Teuchteri are estimated by Cæsar at 430,000 souls. How could such a multitude find nourishment during a three years' wandering? If 80,000 Burgundian Wehrmen came to the Rhine to the assistance of Valentinian, as Cassiodorius, Jerome, and other chroniclers state, the numbers of the whole nation must have approached 400,000, and it is impossible to believe that such a mass could obtain support in the narrow district lying between the Alemanni, the Hermunduri, and the Chatti. In other cases, vague expressions, and still more the wonderful achievements of the Germans in the course of their emigrations, have led to the supposition of enormous numbers; but Germany could not find nourishment for the multitudes which have been ascribed to it. Corn at that period was little cultivated; it was not the food of the people, whose chief support was flesh. . . . The conquests of the barbarians may be ascribed as much to the weakness of their adversaries, to their want of energy and union, as to their own strength. There was, in fact, no enemy to meet them in the field; and their domination was at least, as acceptable to the provincial inhabitants as that of the imbecile, but rapacious ministers of the Roman government. . . . It was not the lust of wandering, but the influence of external circumstances which brought them to the vicinity of the Danube: at first the aggressions of the Romans, then the pressure of the Huns and the Slavonic tribes. The whole intercourse of Germany with Rome must be considered as one long war, which began with the invasion of Cæsar; which, long restrained by the superior power of the enemy, warmed with his growing weakness, and only ended with the extinction of the Roman name. The wars of the third, fourth, and fifth centuries, were only a continuance of the ancient hostility. There might be partial truce, or occasional intermission; some tribes might be almost extirpated by the sword; some, for a time, bought off by money; but Rome was the universal enemy, and much of the internal restlessness of the Germans was no more than the natural movement towards the hostile borders. As the invasion of northern Germany gave rise to the first great northern union, so the conquest of Dacia brought Goths from the Vistula to the south, while the erection of the giant wall naturally gathered the Suevic tribes along its limits, only waiting for the opportunity to break through. Step by step this battle of centuries was fought; from the time of Caracalla the flood turned, wave followed wave like the encroaching tide, and the ancient landmarks receded bit by bit, till Rome itself was buried beneath the waters. . . . Three great confederacies of German tribes, more or less united by birth, position, interest, or language, may be discerned, during this period, in immediate contact with the Romans—the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Franks. A fourth, the Saxons, was chiefly known from its maritime voyages off the coast of Gaul and Britain. There were also many independent peoples which cannot be enumerated among any of the political confederacies, but which acted for themselves, and pursued their individual

ends: such were the Burgundians, the Alans, the Vandals, and the Lombards."—T. Smith, *Arminius*, pt. 2, ch. 1.—See also ALEMANNI; ANGLES; BURGUNDIANS; FRANKS; GOTHIS; LOMBARDS; MARCOMANNI; NIBELUNGENLIED; QUADI; SAXONS; SUEVI; VANDALS.

ALSO IN: R. G. Latham, *Nationalities of Europe*.

277.—Invasion by Probus.—The vigorous emperor Probus, who, in the year 277, drove from Gaul the swarms of invaders that had ravaged the unhappy province with impunity for two years past, then crossed the Rhine and harried the country of the marauders, as far as the Elbe and the Neckar. "Germany, exhausted by the ill success of the last emigration, was astonished by his presence. Nine of the most considerable princes repaired to his camp and fell prostrate at his feet. Such a treaty was humbly received by the Germans as it pleased the conqueror to dictate." Probus then caused a stone wall, strengthened at intervals with towers, to be built from the Danube, near Neustadt and Ratisbon, to Wimpfen on the Neckar, and thence to the Rhine, for the protection of the settlers of the "Agri Decumates." But the wall was thrown down, a few years afterwards, by the Alemanni.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 12.

5th century.—Conversion of the Franks. See CHRISTIANITY: 496-800.

453.—Battle of Netad between Gotha and Huns. See HUNS: 453.

481-768.—Supremacy of the Franks.—Acquisitions under Clovis and his sons.—Decline of the Merovingian power.—The original dominions of Clovis, or Chlodwig—with whose reign the career of the Franks as a consolidated people began—corresponded nearly to the modern kingdom of Belgium. His first conquests were from the Romans, in the neighboring parts of Gaul, and when those were finished, "the king of the Franks began to look round upon the other German nations settled upon its soil, with a view to the further extension of his power. A quarrel with the Alemanni supplied the first opportunity for the gratification of his ambition. For more than a century the Alemanni had been in undisturbed possession of Alsace, and the adjoining districts; Mainz, Worms, Speyer, Strasburg, Basel, Constanz, Brengenz, lay within their territory. . . . The Vogesen [Vosges] range was a bulwark on the side of Gaul, waste lands separated them from the Burgundians, who were settled about the Jura and in the southwest part of Helvetia, and the Moselle divided them from the Ripuarian Franks. It is unknown whether they formed a state distinct from their brethren on the right of the Rhine; probably such was the case, for the Alemanni, at all times, were divided into separate tribes, between which, however, was generally a common union; nor is it certain whether the Alsatian Alemanni were under one or several Adelings; a single king is mentioned as having fallen in the battle with Chlodwig, who may have been merely an elected military leader. Equally obscure is the cause of their war with Chlodwig, though it has been assumed, perhaps too hastily, . . . that the Frank king became involved in it as an ally of the Ripuarians. The Ripuarian Franks were settled, as the name imports, upon the banks of the Rhine, from the Moselle downwards; their chief seat was the city of Cologne. It is probable that they consisted of the remains of the ancient Ubii, strengthened by the adventurers who crossed over on the first invasion, and the name implies that they were regarded by the Romans as a kind of limanean soldiery. For, in the common parlance of the Romans of that

period, the tract of land lying along the Rhine was called Ripa, in an absolute sense, and even the river itself was not unfrequently denominated by the same title. Ripuarii are Ripa-wehren, Hreop, or Hrepa-wehren, defenders of the shore. About the close of the fifth century these Ripuarii were under the government of a king, named Sigebert, usually called 'the lance.' The story told by modern writers is, that this Sigebert, having fallen into dispute with the Alemanni, called upon Chlodwig for assistance, a call which the young king willingly listened to. The Alemanni had invaded the Ripuarian territory, and advanced within a short distance of Cologne, when Chlodwig and his Franks joined the Ripuarii; a battle took place at Zulpich, about twenty-two English miles from Cologne, which, after a fierce struggle, ended in the defeat of the Alemanni. . . . Chlodwig was following up his victory over the Alemanni, perhaps with unnecessary ferocity, when he was stopped in his course by a flattering embassy from the great Theodorich [who seized the throne of Rome from Odoacer in 493 and founded the Kingdom of the Ostrogoths in Italy]. Many of the Alemanni had submitted, after the death of their chief, on the field of battle. 'Spare us,' they cried, 'for we are now thy people!' but there were many who, abhorring the Frank yoke, fled towards the south, and threw themselves under the protection of the Ostrogothic king, who had possessed himself of the ancient Rhætia and Vindelicia."—T. Smith, *Arminius*, pt. 2, ch. 4.—The sons of Clovis pushed their conquests on the Germanic as well as on the Gallic side of the Rhine. Theodorik, or Theuderik, who reigned at Metz, with the aid of his brother Clotaire, or Chlothar, of Soissons, subjugated the Thuringians, between 515 and 528. "How he [Theuderik] acquired authority over the Alemans and the Bavarians is not known. Perhaps in the subjugation of Thuringia he had taken occasion to extend his sway over other nations; but from this time forth we find not only these, but the Saxons more to the north, regarded as the associates or tributaries of the Eastern or Ripuarian Franks. From the Elbe to the Meuse, and from the Northern Ocean to the sources of the Rhine, a region comprising a great part of ancient Germany, the ascendancy of the Franks was practically acknowledged, and a kingdom was formed [Austrasia—Oster-rike—the Eastern Kingdom] which was destined to overshadow all the other Merovingian [dynasty of Clovis] states. The various tribes which composed its Germanic accretions, remote and exempt from the influences of the Roman civilization, retained their fierce customs and their rude superstitions, and continued to be governed by their hereditary dukes; but their wild masses marched under the standards of the Franks, and conceded to those formidable conquerors a certain degree of political supremacy." When, in 558, Clotaire, by the death of his brothers, became the sole king of the Franks, his empire embraced all Roman Gaul, except Septimania, still held by the Visigoths, and Brittany, but slightly subjected; "while in ancient Germany, from the Rhine to the Weser, the powerful duchies of the Alemans, the Thuringians, the Bavarians, the Frisons, and the Saxons, were regarded not entirely as subject, and yet as tributary provinces." During the next century and a half, the feebleness of the Merovingians lost their hold upon these German tributaries. "As early as the time of Chlothar II the Langobards had recovered their freedom; under Dagobert [621-638], the Saxons; under Sigebert II [638-656], the Thuringians; and now, during the late broils [670-687], the Alemans, the Bavarians and the



Frison." But the vigorous Mayors of the Palace, Pepin Heristal and Charles Martel, applied themselves resolutely to the restoration of the Frank supremacy, in Germany as well as in Aquitaine. Pepin "found the task nearly impossible. Time and again he assailed the Frisons, the Saxons, the Bavarians, and the Alemans, but could bind them to no truce nor peace for any length of time. No less than ten times the Frisons resumed their arms, while the revolts of the others were so incessant that he was compelled to abandon all hope of recovering the southern or Roman part of Gaul, in order to direct his attention exclusively to the Germans. The aid which he received from the Christian missionaries rendered him more successful among them. Those intrepid propagandists pierced where his armies could not. . . . The Franks and the Popes of Rome had a common interest in this work of the conversion of the Germans, the Franks to restrain irruptions, and the Popes to carry their spiritual sway over Europe." Pepin left these unfinished German wars to his son Charles Martel, and Charles prosecuted them with characteristic energy during his first years of power. "Almost every month he was forced into some expedition beyond the Rhine. . . . The Alemans, the Bavarians, and the Frisons, he succeeded in subjecting to a formal confession at least of the Frankish supremacy; but the turbulent and implacable Saxons baffled his most strenuous efforts. Their wild tribes had become, within a few years, a powerful and numerous nation; they had appropriated the lands of the Thuringians and Hassi, or Catti, and joined to themselves other confederations and tribes; and, stretching from the Rhine to the Elbe, offered their marshes and forests a free asylum to all the persecuted sectaries of Odhinn, to all the lovers of native and savage independence. Six times in succession the armies of Karl penetrated the wilderness they called their home, ravaging their fields and burning their cabins, but the Saxon war was still renewed. He left it to the energetic labors of other conquerors, to Christian missionaries, . . . to break the way of civilization into those rude and darkened realms." Charles' sons Pepin the short and Carloman crushed revolts of the Alemans, or Suabians, and the Bavarians in 742, and Carloman humbled the Saxons in a great campaign (744), compelling them in large numbers to submit to Christian baptism. After that, Germany waited for its first entire master—Charlemagne.—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, ch. 12-15.—See also EUROPE: Middle Ages: Rise of Frankish kingdom; FRANKS; AUSTRASIA.

ALSO IN: W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 2-6.

687-800.—Rise of the Carolingians and the empire of Charlemagne.—"Towards the close of the Merovingian period, . . . the kingdom of the Franks . . . was divided into four great districts, or kingdoms as they were called: Austrasia, or the eastern kingdom, from the river Rhine to the Meuse, with Metz as its principal city; Neustria, or the western kingdom, extending from Austrasia to the ocean on the west, and to the Loire on the south; Aquitaine, south of that river to the foot of the Pyrenees; and Burgundy, from the Rhone to the Alps, including Switzerland. These four kingdoms became, before the extinction of the Merovingian race, consolidated into two,—viz., Austrasia and Neustria, Eastern and Western Francia,—modern Germany and modern France, roughly speaking,—of which the first was to gain the pre-eminence, as it was the seat of the power of that race of Charlemagne which seized upon the kingdoms of the Merovingians. But in these kingdoms, while the family of Clovis occupied them, the

royal power became more and more feeble as time went on, a condition which is illustrated by the title given in history to these kings,—that of 'rois fainéants' ["do-nothing kings"]. . . . The most powerful officer of a Frankish king was his steward, or, as he was called, the mayor of his palace (q. v.). . . . In Austrasia the office had become hereditary in the family of Pepin of Landen (a small village near Liège), and under its guidance the degenerate children of Clovis in that kingdom fought for the supremacy with those equally degenerate in Neustria, at that time also under the real control of another mayor of the palace, called Ebroin. The result of this struggle, after much bloodshed and misery, was reached in the year 687 at the battle of Testry, in which the Austrasians completely defeated the Neustrians. . . . The Merovingian princes were still nominally kings, while all the real power was in the hands of the descendants of Pepin of Landen, mayors of the palace, and the policy of government was as fully settled by them as if they had been kings de jure as well as de facto. This family produced in its earlier days some persons who have become among the most conspicuous figures in history:—Pepin, the founder; Pepin le Gros, of Héristal; Charles, his son, commonly called Martel, or the Hammerer; Pepin le Bref, under whom the Carolingian dynasty was, by aid of the Pope, recognized as the lawful successor of the Merovingians, even before the extinction of that race; and, lastly, Charles, surnamed the Great, or Charlemagne, one of the few men of the human race who by common consent, have occupied the foremost rank in history. . . . The object of Pepin of Héristal was two-fold,—to repress the disposition of the turbulent nobles to encroach upon the royal authority, and to bring again under the yoke of the Franks those tribes in Germany who had revolted against the Frankish rule owing to the weakness of the Merovingian government. He measurably accomplished both objects. . . . He seems to have had what perhaps is the best test at all times of the claims of a man to be a real statesman: some consciousness of the true nature of his mission,—the establishment of order. . . . His son and successor, Charles Martel, was even more conspicuous for the possession of this genius of statesmanship, but he exhibited it in a somewhat different direction. He, too, strove to hold the nobles in check, and to break the power of the Frisian and the Saxon tribes; and he fought besides, fortunately for his fame, one of the . . . decisive battles in the history of the world, that of Poitiers [or Tours], in 732, by which the Saracens, who had conquered Spain, and who had strong hopes of gaining possession of the whole of Western Europe, were driven back from Northern France, never to return. . . . His son, Pepin le Bref, is equally conspicuous with the rest in history, but in a somewhat different way. He continued the never-ending wars in Germany and in Gaul with the object of securing peace by the sword, and with more or less success. But his career is noteworthy principally because he completed the actual deposition of the last of the Merovingian race, whose nominal servants but real masters he and his predecessors, mayors of the palace, had been, and because he sought and obtained the sanction of the Church for this usurpation. . . . The Pope's position at this time was one of very great embarrassment. Harassed by the Lombards, who were not only robbers, but who were also Arians, and who admitted none of the Catholic clergy to their councils,—with no succor from the Emperors at Constantinople (whose subject he nominally was) against

the Lombards, and, indeed, in open revolt against them because as bishop and patriarch of the West he had forbidden the execution of the decree against the placing of images in the churches,—for these and many such reasons he sorely needed succor, and naturally in his necessity he turned to the powerful King of the Franks. The coronation of Pepin le Bref [752], first by St. Boniface, and then by the Pope himself, was the first step in the fulfilment of the alliance on his part. Pepin was soon called upon to do his share of the work. Twice at the bidding of the Pope he descended from the Alps, and, defeating the Lombards, was rewarded by him and the people of Rome with the title of Patrician. . . . On the death of Pepin, the Lombards again took up arms and harassed the Church's territory. Charlemagne, his successor, was called upon to come to the rescue, and he swept the Lombard power in Italy out of existence, annexing its territory to the Frankish kingdom, and confirming the grant of the Exarchate and of the Pentapolis which his father had made to the Popes. This was in the year 774. . . . For twenty-five years Charlemagne ruled Rome nominally as Patrician, under the supremacy, equally nominal, of the Emperor at Constantinople. The true sovereign, recognized as such, was the Pope or Bishop of Rome, but the actual power was in the hands of the mob, who at one time towards the close of the century, in the absence of both Emperor and Patrician, assaulted the Pope while conducting a procession, and forced him to abandon the city. This Pope, Leo, with a fine instinct as to the quarter from which succor could alone come, hurried to seek Charlemagne, who was then in Germany engaged in one of his never-ending wars against the Saxons. The appeal for aid was not made in vain, and Charles descended once more from the Alps in the summer of 799, with his Frankish hosts. On Christmas day, 800, in the Church of St. Peter . . . Pope Leo, during the mass, and after the reading of the gospel, placed upon the brow of Charlemagne, who had abandoned his northern furs for the dress of a Roman patrician, the diadem of the Cæsars, and hailed him Emperor *Semper Augustus*, while the multitude shouted, 'Carolo, Augusto a Deo coronato magno et pacifico Imperatori Vita et Victoria.' In that shout and from that moment one of the most fruitful epochs of history begins."—C. J. Stillé, *Studies in medieval history*, ch. 3.—See also FRANKS: 768-814.

C. 8th-12th centuries.—Development of feudalism. See FEUDALISM: Continental growth.

768-814.—Charlemagne's system of government.—Rule of the counts and bishops.—*Missi dominici*.—Organization of the army.—"Charlemagne, the son of Pippin, was the mightiest of all the barbarian kings. At the head of his warriors he subjected all the peoples of Germany; he advanced to the east as far as the Elbe, to the west as far as the Ebro. His empire included France, Germany, and north Italy . . . (to say nothing of the Slavic peoples beyond the Elbe who paid tribute). Charlemagne did not attempt to revive the régime of the Roman empire. The great proprietors were not subjected to taxation; the emperor found the great revenues of his private domain sufficient for the maintenance of his court; his army cost him nothing. He concerned himself, therefore, solely with preserving order, with giving judgment in his tribunal, and with assembling his army whenever there was need. They were the counts who performed at once all those functions. . . . Supervision over the counts was necessary; very powerful and independent in

their district—in fact, so independent that some called themselves counts by the grace of God—they used their power to oppress the people. 'Let not the counts,' say the capitularies of Charles, 'compel free men to mow their meadows or reap their fields. . . . Let them not seize by force or by trick the goods of the poor.' To watch the counts, envoys of the king called *missi dominici*, made annual circuits. . . . Bishops and abbots were then great persons, proprietors of immense domains. . . . Each city had its count and its bishop. Charles made the bishop the equal of the count and bade them govern in common. 'We desire,' said he, 'that the bishops aid the counts and the counts aid the bishops, to the end that every man may completely fulfil his function.' The bishop was to excommunicate brigands and rebels, the count was to use constraint against those who disobeyed the bishop. In return for the power which he gave the clergy the emperor himself became the head of the church, 'the bishop of bishops.' 'It pertains to me,' he wrote the pope, 'to defend the holy church of Christ from the infidels without, and to fortify it within by announcing the true faith.' . . . Charlemagne loved letters with that naive admiration that uncultured men often have for that which is written; he loved them also because they seemed to him inseparable from the Christian religion. . . . It is the emperor who names the bishops and the abbots, and it is he who presides at councils. The Frankish kings did not have a discernment fine enough to distinguish the temporal power from the spiritual power; they confused the two and placed them in the same hand. This confusion is the most original characteristic of the Carolingian government. It was destined to have as its result a contest for several centuries between the emperor, the head of the state, and the pope, the head of the church. . . . Charlemagne was before all a war chief. During his life he made fifty-three expeditions. To provide for these incessant wars it was necessary that the people should be an army. Following the custom of the Germanic peoples, all land-owners were also warriors. When the king had determined on war, he ordered the people to assemble at a fixed place; the command coming on one day, it was required that the man be ready on the next. An enormous fine (*heerbann*) was assessed on those who failed to appear. Bishops and abbots were to come as well as the laymen. A letter addressed to the Abbot of Fulda recites, 'We command you to be at the rendezvous on the twentieth of June with your men properly armed and equipped. Repair to the place assigned so that you may be able to fight wherever we shall command you,—that is to say, with your arms, your equipment, and provisions. Each horseman shall have a shield, a lance, a sword, a dagger, a bow, and a full quiver. You shall have on your baggage carts appliances of different sorts, axes, planes, augers, hatchets, pick-axes, iron shovels, and other implements necessary to the army. You will provide food for three months, arms and clothing for six months.' . . . The ancient world came to its end with Charlemagne. He is the last sovereign who succeeded in enforcing the obedience of all peoples of the West. After him Europe was divided into kingdoms, and each kingdom into provinces where each lord governed according to his will. The Catholic clergy participated in government. The pope made alliance with the new barbarian emperor of the West and soon they came into conflict with him as to which of the two should control the other. It was the end of the absolute and universal government of antiquity,"—



GERMAN HOMESTEAD OF 1ST CENTURY



C. Seignobos, *History of medieval and of modern civilization*, pp. 53-61.

800.—Charlemagne's restoration of the Roman empire.—“Three hundred and twenty-four years had passed since the last Cæsar of the West resigned his power into the hands of the senate, and left to his Eastern brother the sole headship of the Roman world. To the latter Italy had from that time been nominally subjected; but it was only during one brief interval, between the death of Totila the last Ostrogothic king and the descent of Alboin the first Lombard, that his power had been really effective. In the further provinces, Gaul, Spain, Britain, it was only a memory. But the idea of a Roman Empire as a necessary part of the world's order had not vanished: it had been admitted by those who seemed to be destroying it; it had been cherished by the Church; was still recalled by laws and customs; was dear to the subject populations, who fondly looked back to the days when slavery was at least mitigated by peace and order. . . . Both the extinction of the Western Empire in [476] . . . and its revival in A. D. 800 have been very generally misunderstood in modern times. . . . When Odoacer compelled the abdication of Romulus Augustulus, he did not abolish the Western Empire as a separate power, but caused it to be reunited with or sink into the Eastern, so that from that time there was, as there had been before Diocletian, a single undivided Roman Empire. In A.D. 800 the very memory of the separate Western Empire, as it had stood from the death of Theodosius till Odoacer, had, so far as appears, been long since lost, and neither Leo nor Charles nor any one among their advisers dreamt of reviving it. They, too, like their predecessors, held the Roman Empire to be one and indivisible, and proposed by the coronation of the Frankish king, not to proclaim a severance of the East and West, but to reverse the act of Constantine, and make Old Rome again the civil as well as the ecclesiastical capital of the Empire that bore her name. . . . Although therefore we must in practice speak during the next seven centuries (down till A.D. 1453, when Constantinople fell before the Mohammedan) of an Eastern and a Western Empire, the phrase is in strictness incorrect, and was one which either court ought to have repudiated. The Byzantines always did repudiate it; the Latins usually; although, yielding to facts, they sometimes condescended to employ it themselves. But their theory was always the same. Charles was held to be the legitimate successor, not of Romulus Augustulus, but of Basil, Heraclius, Justinian, Arcadius, and all the Eastern line. . . . North Italy and Rome ceased for ever to own the supremacy of Byzantium; and while the Eastern princes paid a shameful tribute to the Mussulman, the Frankish Emperor—as the recognised head of Christendom—received from the patriarch of Jerusalem the keys of the Holy Sepulchre and the banner of Calvary; the gift of the Sepulchre itself, says Eginhard, from Aaron king of the Persians [the Caliph Haroun el Rashid]. . . . Four centuries later, when Papacy and Empire had been forced into the mortal struggle by which the fate of both was decided, three distinct theories regarding the coronation of Charles will be found advocated by three different parties, all of them plausible, all of them to some extent misleading. The Swabian Emperors held the crown to have been won by their great predecessor as the prize of conquest, and drew the conclusion that the citizens and bishop of Rome had no rights as against themselves. The patriotic party among the Romans, appealing to the early history

of the Empire, declared that by nothing but the voice of their senate and people could an Emperor be lawfully created, he being only their chief magistrate, the temporary depository of their authority. The Popes pointed to the indisputable fact that Leo imposed the crown, and argued that as God's earthly vicar it was then his, and must always continue to be their right to give to whomsoever they would an office which was created to be the handmaid of their own. Of these three it was the last view that eventually prevailed.”—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 4-5.—See also FRANKS: 768-814; ITALY: 843-951.

ALSO IN: J. I. Mombert, *History of Charles the Great*, ch. 14.

805.—Conquest of the Avars.—Creation of the Austrian March. See AVARS; AUSTRIA: 805-1246.

814-843.—Division of the empire of Charlemagne.—“There was a manifest conflict, during his later years, in the court, in the councils, in the mind of Charlemagne [who died in 814], between the King of the Franks and the Emperor of the West; between the dissociating, independent Teutonic principle, and the Roman principle of one code, one dominion, one sovereign. The Church, though Teutonic in descent, was Roman in the sentiment of unity. . . . That unity had been threatened by the proclaimed division of the realm between the sons of Charlemagne. The old Teutonic usage of equal distribution seemed doomed to prevail over the august unity of the Roman Empire. What may appear more extraordinary, the kingdom of Italy was the inferior appanage: it carried not with it the Empire, which was still to retain a certain supremacy; that was reserved for the Teutonic sovereign. It might seem as if this were but the continuation of the Lombard kingdom, which Charlemagne still held by the right of conquest. It was bestowed on Pepin; after his death entrusted to Bernhard, Pepin's illegitimate but only son. Wiser counsels prevailed. The two elder sons of Charlemagne died without issue; Louis the third son was summoned from his kingdom of Aquitaine, and solemnly crowned [813] at Aix-la-Chapelle, as successor to the whole Empire.”—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 2.—“Instead of being preoccupied with the care of keeping the empire united, Louis divided it in the year 817 by giving kingdoms to his three sons. The eldest, Lothaire, had Italy; Louis, Bavaria; Pepin, Aquitaine. A nephew of the emperor, Bernard, imagined himself wronged by this partition, and took up arms to hold Italy. Vanquished without striking a blow, he delivered himself up to his uncle, who caused his eyes to be put out. He expired under that torture. Louis reproached himself later for that cruel death, and to expiate it, subjected himself to a public penance. In 823, there was born to him a fourth son. To make him a sharer of his inheritance, the emperor, annulling in 829 the partition of 817, gave him Germany, thus depriving his elder sons of part of the inheritance previously assigned them. This provoked the resentment of those princes; they rose in rebellion against their father, and the rest of the reign of Louis was only a succession of impious contests with his turbulent sons. In 833, he deposed Pepin, and gave his kingdom of Aquitaine to his youngest born, Charles. Twice deposed himself, and twice restored, Louis only emerged from the cloister, for which he was so well fitted, to repeat the same faults. When Louis the Good-natured died in 840, it was not his cause only which he had lost through his weakness, but that of the empire. Those intestine quarrels presaged its dis-

membership, which ere long happened. The sons of Louis, to serve their own ambition, had revived the national antipathies of the different races. Lothaire placed himself at the head of the Italians; Louis rallied the Germans round him, and Charles the Bald the Franks of Gaul, who were henceforward called Frenchmen. Those three peoples aspired to break up the union whose bond Charlemagne had imposed upon them, as the three brothers aspired to form each for himself a kingdom. The question was decided at the great battle of Fontanet, near Auxerre, in 841. Lothaire, who fought therein for the preservation of the empire and of his authority, was conquered. By the treaty of Verdun [843—see VERDUN, TREATY OF] it was decided that Louis should have Germany to the east of the Rhine; Charles, France to the west of the Scheld, the Meuse, the Saone, and the Rhone; finally, Lothaire, Italy, with the long range of country comprised between the Alps and the Cevennes, the Jura, the Saone, the Rhine, and the Meuse, which from his name was called Lotharingia. This designation is still to be traced in one of the recently French provinces. Lorraine.”—S. Miezies, *History of Europe from the decadence of the Western Empire to the Reformation*, ch. 13.—See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; ITALY: 843-951.

843.—Accession of Louis II.

843-962.—Treaty of Verdun.—Definite separation from France.—Kingdom of the East Franks.—The partition of the empire of Charlemagne among his three grandsons, by the Treaty of Verdun, 843 (see VERDUN, TREATY OF; FRANKS: 814-962), gave to Charles the Bald a kingdom which nearly coincided with France, as afterwards existing under that name, “before its Burgundian and German annexations. It also founded a kingdom which roughly answered to the later Germany before its great extension to the East at the expense of the Slavonic nations. And as the Western kingdom was formed by the addition of Aquitaine to the Western Francia, so the Eastern kingdom was formed by the addition of the Eastern Francia to Bavaria. Lewis of Bavaria [surnamed ‘the German’] became king of a kingdom which we are tempted to call the kingdom of Germany. Still it would as yet be premature to speak of France at all, or even to speak of Germany, except in the geographical sense. The two kingdoms are severally the kingdoms of the Eastern and of the Western Franks. . . . The Kings had no special titles, and their dominions had no special names recognized in formal use. Every king who ruled over any part of the ancient Francia was a king of the Franks. . . . The Eastern part of the Frankish dominions, the lot of Lewis the German and his successors, is thus called the Eastern Kingdom, the Teutonic Kingdom. Its king is the King of the East-Franks, sometimes simply the King of the Eastern men, sometimes the King of Germany. . . . The title of King of Germany is often found in the ninth century as a description, but it was not a formal title. The Eastern king, like other kings, for the most part simply calls himself ‘Rex,’ till the time came when his rank as King of Germany, or of the East-Franks, became simply a step towards the higher title of Emperor of the Romans. . . . This Eastern or German kingdom, as it came out of the division of 887 [after the deposition of Charles III, called Charles the Fat, who came to the throne in 881, and who had momentarily reunited all the Frankish crowns, except that of Burgundy], had, from north to south, nearly the same extent as the Germany of later times. It

stretched from the Alps to the Eider. Its southern boundaries were somewhat fluctuating. Verona and Aquileia are sometimes counted as a German march, and the boundary between Germany and Burgundy, crossing the modern Switzerland, often changed. To the north-east the kingdom hardly stretched beyond the Elbe, except in the small Saxon land between the Elbe and the Eider [called ‘Saxony beyond the Elbe’—modern Holstein]. The great extension of the German power over the Slavonic lands beyond the Elbe had hardly yet begun. To the south-east lay the two border-lands or marks; the Eastern Mark, which grew into the later duchy of Oesterreich or the modern Austria, and to the south of it the mark of Kärnthen or Carinthia. But the main part of the kingdom consisted of the great duchies of Saxony, Eastern Francia, Alemannia, and Bavaria. Of these the two names of Saxony and Bavaria must be carefully marked as having widely different meanings from those which they bear on the modern map. Ancient Saxony lies, speaking roughly, between the Eider, the Elbe, and the Rhine, though it never actually touches the last-named river. To the south of Saxony lies the Eastern Francia, the centre and kernel of the German kingdom. The Main and the Neckar both join the Rhine within its borders. To the south of Francia lie Alemannia and Bavaria. This last, it must be remembered, borders on Italy, with Bötzen for its frontier town. Alemannia is the land in which both the Rhine and the Danube take their source; it stretches on both sides of the Bodensee or Lake of Constance, with the Rätian Alps as its southern boundary. For several ages to come, there is no distinction, national or even provincial, between the lands north and south of the Bodensee.”—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, ch. 6, sect. 1.—See also BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history; FRANCE: 9th century.

ALSO IN: F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 1-2.

881.—Accession of Charles III (called The Fat), afterwards king of all the Franks and emperor.

888.—Accession of Arnulf, afterwards emperor.

899.—Accession of Louis III (called The Child).

9th-10th centuries.—Charities.—Early laws. See CHARITIES: Germany: 9th-10th centuries.

911.—Election of Conrad I.

911-936.—Conrad the Franconian and Henry the Fowler.—Beginning of the Saxon line.—Hungarian invasion.—Building of towns.—In 911, on the death of Louis, surnamed the Child, the German or East-Frank branch of the dynasty of Charlemagne had become extinct. “There remained indeed Charles the Simple, acknowledged as king in some parts of France, but rejected in others, and possessing no personal claims to respect. The Germans therefore wisely determined to choose a sovereign from among themselves. They were at this time divided into five nations, each under its own duke, and distinguished by difference of laws, as well as of origin; the Franks, whose territory, comprising Franconia and the modern Palatinate, was considered as the cradle of the empire, and who seem to have arrogated some superiority over the rest, the Suabians, the Bavarians, the Saxons . . . and the Lorrainers, who occupied the left bank of the Rhine as far as its termination. The choice of these nations in their general assembly fell upon Conrad, duke of Franconia, according to some writers, or at least

a man of high rank, and descended through females from Charlemagne. Conrad dying without male issue, the crown of Germany was bestowed [919] upon Henry the Fowler, duke of Saxony, ancestor of the three Othos, who followed him in direct succession. To Henry, and to the first Otho [936-973], Germany was more indebted than to any sovereign since Charlemagne."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, ch. 5.—"In 924, the Hungarians, who were as much dreaded as the angel of destruction, re-appeared. They came from the grassy plains of Hungary, mounted on small and ugly, but strong horses, and swept along the Danube like a hailstorm. Wherever they came they set fire to farms, hamlets, and towns, and killed all living creatures or carried them off. And often they bound their prisoners to the tails of their horses, and dragged them along till they died from the dreadful torture. Their very figures inspired disgust and terror, for their faces were brown, and disfigured by scars to absolute hideousness; their heads were shaven, and brutal ferocity and rapacity shone out of their deep-set eyes. And though the Germans fought bravely, these enemies always overmatched them, because they appeared now here, now there, on their fleet horses, and fell upon isolated districts before they were expected or could be stopped. . . . When on a sudden the terrible cry, 'The Hungarians are coming, the Hungarians are coming,' resounded through the land, all fled who could, as if the wild legions of hell were marching through Saxony and Thuringia. King Henry, however, would not fly, but encountered them in combat, like a true knight. Yet he lost the battle, either because he was ill, or because his soldiers were too few, and unaccustomed to the enemy's mode of fighting, which enabled them to conquer while they were fleeing. Henry was obliged to shut himself up in the royal palace of Werla, near Goslar, which he bravely defended. The Hungarians stormed it again and again, but they could not scale the walls; while Henry's men by a daring sally took a Hungarian chieftain prisoner, which so terrified the besiegers that they concluded a truce for nine years on condition that their chief should be released, and that Henry should engage to pay a yearly tribute. Henry submitted to the dishonourable sacrifice that he might husband his strength for better times. . . . How important it was to have fortified places which could not be stormed by cavalry, and therefore afforded a safe refuge to the neighbouring peasantry, Henry recognised in 920, when the Hungarians marched through Bavaria and Suabia to Lorraine, plundered the time-honoured monastery of St. Gall, and burnt the suburbs of Constance, but could not take the fortified town itself. Henry, accordingly, published an order throughout the land, that at suitable places large fortresses should be built, in which every ninth man from the neighbouring district must take garrison duty. Certainly living in towns was contrary to the customs of the North Germans, and here and there there was much resistance; but they soon recognized the wisdom of the royal order, and worked night and day with such diligence that there soon arose throughout the land towns with stately towers and strong walls, behind whose battlements the armed burghers defiantly awaited the Hungarians. Hamburg was then fortified, Itzehoe built, the walls of Magdeburg, Halle, and Erfurt extended, for these towns had stood since the time of Charlemagne. Quedlinburg, Merseburg, Meissen, Wittenberg, Goslar, Soest, Nordhausen, Duderstadt, Gronau, Pödde, were rebuilt, and many others of

which the old chroniclers say nothing. Those who dwelt in the cities were called burghers, and in order that they might not be idle they began to practise many kinds of industry, and to barter their goods with the peasants. The emperor encouraged the building of towns, and granted emancipation to every slave who repaired to a town, allowed the towns to hold fairs and markets, granted to them the right of coining money and levying taxes, and gave them many landed estates and forests. Under such encouragement town life rapidly developed, and the emperor, in his disputes with the lawless nobility, always received loyal support from his disciplined burghers. After a few centuries the towns, which had now generally become republics, under the name of 'free imperial towns,' became the seats of the perfection of European trade, science, and culture. . . . These incalculable benefits are due to Henry's order to build towns."—A. W. Grube, *Heroes of history and legend*, ch. 8.—At the expiration of the nine years' truce, the Hungarians resumed their attacks, and were defeated by Henry in two bloody battles.—See also HUNGARY: 934-955.

936-973.—Restoration of the Roman empire by Otto I, called the Great.—"Otho the Great, son and successor of Henry I., added the kingdom of Italy to the conquests of his father, and procured also the Imperial dignity for himself, and his successors in Germany. Italy had become a distinct kingdom since the revolution, which happened (888) at the death of the Emperor Charles the Fat. Ten princes in succession occupied the throne during the space of seventy-three years. Several of these princes, such as Guy, Lambert, Arnulf, Louis of Burgundy, and Berenger I., were invested with the Imperial dignity. Berenger I., having been assassinated (924), this latter dignity ceased entirely, and the city of Rome was even dismembered from the kingdom of Italy. The sovereignty of that city was seized by the famous Marozia, widow of a nobleman named Alberic. She raised her son to the pontificate by the title of John XI.; and the better to establish her dominion, she espoused Hugo King of Italy (932), who became, in consequence of this marriage, master of Rome. But Alberic, another son of Marozia, soon stirred up the people against this aspiring princess and her husband Hugo. Having driven Hugo from the throne, and shut up his mother in prison, he assumed to himself the sovereign authority, under the title of Patrician of the Romans. At his death (954) he transmitted the sovereignty to his son Octavian, who, though only nineteen years of age, caused himself to be elected pope, by the title of John XII. This epoch was one most disastrous for Italy. The weakness of the government excited factions among the nobility, gave birth to anarchy, and fresh opportunity for the depredations of the Hungarians and Arabs, who, at this period, were the scourge of Italy, which they ravaged with impunity. Pavia, the capital of the kingdom, was taken, and burnt by the Hungarians. These troubles increased on the accession of Berenger II. (950), grandson of Berenger I. That prince associated his son Adelbert with him in the royal dignity; and the public voice accused them of having caused the death of King Lothaire, son and successor of Hugo Lothaire left a young widow, named Adelaide, daughter of Rodolph II., King of Burgundy and Italy. To avoid the importunities of Berenger II., who wished to compel her to marry his son Adelbert, this princess called in the King of Germany to her aid. Otho complied with the solicitations of the distressed queen; and, on this occasion,

undertook his first expedition into Italy (951). The city of Pavia, and several other places, having fallen into his hands, he made himself be proclaimed King of Italy, and married the young queen, his protégée. Berenger and his son, being driven for shelter to their strongholds, had recourse to negotiation. They succeeded in obtaining for themselves a confirmation of the royal title of Italy, on condition of doing homage for it to the King of Germany. . . . It appears that it was not without the regret, and even contrary to the wish of Adelaide, that Otho agreed to enter into terms of accommodation with Berenger. . . . Afterwards, however, he lent a favourable ear to the complaints which Pope John XII. and some Italian noblemen had addressed to him against Berenger and his son; and took occasion, on their account, to conduct a new army into Italy (961). Berenger, too feeble to oppose him, retired a second time within his fortifications. Otho marched from Pavia to Milan, and there made himself be crowned King of Italy; from thence he passed to Rome, about the commencement of the following year. Pope John XII., who had himself invited him, and again implored his protection against Berenger, gave him, at first, a very brilliant reception; and revived the Imperial dignity in his favour, which had been dormant for thirty-eight years. It was on the 2d of February, 962, that the Pope consecrated and crowned him Emperor; but he had soon cause to repent of this proceeding. Otho, immediately after his coronation at Rome, undertook the siege of St. Leon, a fortress in Umbria, where Berenger and his queen had taken refuge. While engaged in the siege, he received frequent intimations from Rome, of the misconduct and immoralities of the Pope. The remonstrances which he thought it his duty to make on this subject, offended the young pontiff, who resolved, in consequence, to break off union with the Emperor. Hurried on by the impetuosity of his character, he entered into a negotiation with Adelbert; and even persuaded him to come to Rome, in order to concert with him measures of defence. On the first news of this event, Otho put himself at the head of a large detachment, with which he marched directly to Rome. The Pope, however, did not think it advisable to wait his approach, but fled with the King, his new ally. Otho, on arriving at the capital, exacted a solemn oath from the clergy and the people, that henceforth they would elect no pope without his counsel, and that of the Emperor and his successors. Having then assembled a council, he caused Pope John XII. to be deposed; and Leo VIII. was elected in his place. This latter Pontiff was maintained in the papacy, in spite of all the efforts which his adversary made to regain it. Berenger II., after having sustained a long siege at St. Leon, fell at length (964) into the hands of the conqueror, who sent him into exile at Bamberg, and compelled his son, Adelbert, to take refuge in the court of Constantinople. All Italy, to the extent of the ancient kingdom of the Lombards, fell under the dominion of the Germans; only a few maritime towns in Lower Italy, with the greater part of Apulia and Calabria, still remained in the power of the Greeks. This kingdom, together with the Imperial dignity, Otho transmitted to his successors on the throne of Germany. From this time the Germans held it to be an inviolable principle, that as the Imperial dignity was strictly united with the royalty of Italy, kings elected by the German nation should, at the same time, in virtue of that election, become Kings of Italy

and Emperors. The practice of this triple coronation, viz., of Germany, Italy, and Rome, continued for many centuries; and from Otho the Great, till Maximilian I. (1508), no king of Germany took the title of Emperor, until after he had been formally crowned by the Pope."—C. W. Koch, *Revolutions of Europe, period 3.*—"At the first glance it would seem as if the relation in which Otho now stood to the pope was the same as that occupied by Charlemagne; on a closer inspection, however, we find a wide difference. Charlemagne's connexion with the see of Rome was produced by mutual need; it was the result of long epochs of political combination embracing the development of various nations; their mutual understanding rested on an internal necessity, before which all opposing views and interests gave way. The sovereignty of Otho the Great, on the contrary, rested on a principle fundamentally opposed to the encroachment of spiritual influences. The alliance was momentary; the disruption of it inevitable. But when, soon after, the same pope who had invoked his aid, John XII., placed himself at the head of a rebellious faction, Otho was compelled to cause him to be formally deposed, and to crush the faction that supported him by repeated exertions of force, before he could obtain perfect obedience; he was obliged to raise to the papal chair a pope on whose co-operation he could rely. The popes have often asserted that they transferred the empire to the Germans; and if they confined this assertion to the Carolingian race, they are not entirely wrong. The coronation of Charlemagne was the result of their free determination. But if they allude to the German emperors, properly so called, the contrary of their statement is just as true; not only Carlmann and Otho the Great, but their successors, constantly had to conquer the imperial throne, and to defend it, when conquered, sword in hand. It has been said that the Germans would have done more wisely if they had not meddled with the empire; or, at least, if they had first worked out their own internal political institutions, and then, with matured minds, taken part in the general affairs of Europe. But the things of this world are not wont to develop themselves so methodically. A nation is often compelled by circumstances to increase its territorial extent, before its internal growth is completed. For was it of slight importance to its inward progress that Germany thus remained in unbroken connexion with Italy?—the depository of all that remained of ancient civilisation, the source whence all the forms of Christianity had been derived. The mind of Germany has always unfolded itself by contact with the spirit of antiquity, and of the nations of Roman origin. . . . The German imperial government revived the civilising and Christianising tendencies which had distinguished the reigns of Charles Martell and Charlemagne. Otho the Great, in following the course marked out by his illustrious predecessors, gave it a fresh national importance by planting German colonies in Slavonian countries simultaneously with the diffusion of Christianity. He Germanised as well as converted the population he had subdued. He confirmed his father's conquests on the Saale and the Elbe, by the establishment of the bishoprics of Meissen and Osterland. After having conquered the tribes on the other side the Elbe in those long and perilous campaigns where he commanded in person, he established there, too, three bishoprics, which for a time gave an extraordinary impulse to the progress of conversion. . . . And even where the project of Germanising the population was



out of the question, the supremacy of the German name was firmly and actively maintained. In Bohemia and Poland bishoprics were erected under German metropolitans; from Hamburg Christianity found its way into the north; missionaries from Passau traversed Hungary, nor is it improbable that the influence of these vast and sublime efforts extended even to Russia. The German empire was the centre of the conquering religion; as itself advanced, it extended the ecclesiastico-military State of which the Church was an integral part; it was the chief representative of the unity of western Christendom, and hence arose the necessity under which it lay of acquiring a decided ascendancy over the papacy. This secular and Germanic principle long retained the predominancy it had triumphantly acquired. . . . How magnificent was the position now occupied by the German nation, represented in the persons of the mightiest princes of Europe and united under their sceptre; at the head of an advancing civilisation, and of the whole of western Christendom; in the fullness of youthful aspiring strength! We must here however remark and confess, that Germany did not wholly understand her position, nor fulfil her mission. Above all, she did not succeed in giving complete reality to the idea of a western empire, such as appeared about to be established under Otho I. Independent and often hostile, though Christian powers arose through all the borders of Germany; in Hungary and in Poland, in the northern as well as in the southern possessions of the Normans; England and France were snatched again from German influence. Spain laughed at the German claims to a universal supremacy; her kings thought themselves emperors; even the enterprises nearest home—those across the Elbe—were for a time stationary or retrograde. If we seek for the causes of these unfavourable results, we need only turn our eyes on the internal condition of the empire, where we find an incessant and tempestuous struggle of all the forces of the nation. Unfortunately the establishment of a fixed rule of succession to the imperial crown was continually prevented by events.”—L. Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany, introduction*.—See also HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE: 962; ITALY: 961-1039.

955.—Great defeat and repulse of the Hungarians by Otho I. See HUNGARY: 934-955.

973-1056.—End of the Saxon line.—Election of Conrad II., duke of Franconia.—Henry III. and the reformation of the papacy.—Otho II. had a short and troubled reign, 973-983 A.D., having to repress the Slavi, the Danes, the Greeks of Lower Italy, and to defend Lorraine against the French [see LORRAINE: 911-980]. He died at Rome in his twenty-eighth year, 983 A.D. Otho III. (aged three years) succeeded under the regency of his mother, Theophania (a Greek princess), who had to contend with the rebellious nobles, the Slavi, the Poles, the Bohemians, and with France, which desired to conquer Lorraine. This able lady died 991 A.D. Otho III. made three expeditions into Italy, and in 998 A.D. put down the republic of Rome, which had been created by the patrician Crescentius. The resistance of Crescentius had been pardoned the preceding year, but on this occasion he was publicly beheaded on the battlements of Rome, in view of the army and of the people. In 999 A.D. Otho placed his tutor Gerbert in the papal chair as Sylvester II. The tutor and the emperor were in advance of their age. The former had gleaned from Saracen translations from the Greek, as well as from Latin literature, and was master of

the science of the day. It is supposed that they had planned to remove the seat of empire to Rome—a project which, had he lived, he would not have been able to carry out, for the centre of political power had long moved northward; he died at the early age of twenty-two, 1002 A.D. Henry II. (the Holy), Duke of Bavaria, was elected emperor, and had to battle, like his predecessors, with rebellious nobles, with the Poles, and Bohemians, and the Slavi. He was thrice in Italy, and died 1024 A.D. [end of the Saxon line]. ‘Perhaps, with the single exception of St. Louis IX., there was no other prince of the middle ages so uniformly swayed by justice.’ Conrad II. (the Salic) of Franconia was elected emperor in a diet in the plains between Mentz and Worms, near Oppenheim, which was attended by princes, nobles, and 50,000 people altogether. His reign was remarkable for the justice and mercy which he always kept in view. [Under him and his successor the empire is generally considered to have reached its height (1024-1056).] The kingdom of Arles and Burgundy was united to the empire, 1033 A.D. [see BURGUNDY: 1032]. He checked the Poles, the Hungarians, and the Lombards, and gave Schleswick to Denmark as a fief. In 1037 A.D. he granted to the lower vassals of the empire the hereditary succession to their offices and estates, and so extended the privileges of the great nobles, as to make them almost independent of the crown [At the same time he brought many of the stem duchies into his own hands and contrived to have his son made duke of Franconia, Swabia and Bavaria]. Henry III. succeeded, 1039 A.D., and established the imperial power with a high hand.”

—W. B. Boyce, *Introduction to the study of history*, pp. 230-231.—“Henry III. was, as sovereign, able, upright, and resolute; and his early death—for his reign was cut short by disasters that preyed upon his health—is one of the calamities of history. The cause of the Roman Court he judged with vigor and good sense. His strong hand, more than any man’s, dragged the Church out of the slough it had fallen into. . . . A few years before, in 1033, a child ten years old, son of one of the noble houses, had been put on the papal throne, under the name of Benedict IX.; and was restored to it by force of arms, five years later, when he had grown into a lewd, violent, and wilful boy of fifteen. At the age of twenty-one he was weary of the struggle, and sold out, for a large sum of money paid down, to a rich purchaser,—first plundering the papal treasury of all the funds he could lay his hands on. His successor, Gregory VI., naturally complained of his hard bargain, which was made harder by another claimant (Sylvester III.), elected by a different party; while no law that could possibly be quoted or invented would make valid the purchase and sale of the spiritual sovereignty of the world, which in theory the Papacy still was. Gregory appears to have been a respectable and even conscientious magistrate, by the standard of that evil time. But his open purchase of the dignity not only gave a shock to whatever right feeling there was left, but it made the extraordinary dilemma and scandal of three popes at once,—a knot which the German king, now Emperor, was called in to cut. . . . The worthless Benedict was dismissed, as having betrayed his charge. The impotent Sylvester was not recognized at all. The respectable Gregory was duly convinced of his deep guilt of Simony,—because he had ‘thought that the gift of God could be purchased with money,’—and was suffered as a penitent to end his days in peace. A fourth, a German ecclesiastic, who was clean of

all these intrigues, was set in the chair of Peter, where he reigned righteously for two years under the name of Clement II.—J. H. Allen, *Christian history in its three great periods: Second period*, pp. 57-58.—“With the popes of Henry’s appointment a new and most powerful force rose to the control of the papacy—a strong and earnest movement for reformation which had arisen outside the circle of papal influence during the darkest days of its degradation, indeed, and entirely independent of the empire. This had started from the monastery of Cluny, founded in 910, in eastern France, as a reformation of the monastic life, but it involved gradually ideas of a wider reformation throughout the whole church. Two great sins of the time, as it regarded them, were especially attacked, the marriage of priests and simony, or the purchase of ecclesiastical preferment for money, including also appointments to church offices by temporal rulers. . . . The earnest spirit of Henry III. was not out of sympathy with the demand for a real reformation, and with the third pope of his appointment, Leo IX., in 1048, the ideas of Cluny obtained the direction of affairs. . . . One apparently insignificant act of Leo’s had important consequences. He brought back with him to Rome the monk Hildebrand. He had been brought up in a monastery in Rome in the strictest ideas of Cluny, had been a supporter of Gregory VI., one of the three rival popes deposed by Henry, who, notwithstanding his outright purchase of the papacy, represented the new reform demand, and had gone with him into exile on his deposition. It does not appear that he exercised any decisive influence during the reign of Leo IX., but so great was his ability and such the power of his personality that very soon he became the directing spirit in the papal policy, though his influence over the papacy before his own pontificate was not so great nor so constant as it has sometimes been said to have been. So long as Henry lived the balance of power was decidedly in favor of the emperor, but in 1056 happened that disastrous event, which occurred so many times at critical points of imperial history, from Arnulf to Henry VI., the premature death of the emperor. His son, Henry IV., was only six years old at his father’s death, and a minority followed just in the crisis of time needed to enable the feudal princes of Germany to recover and strengthen their independence against the central government, and to give free hands to the papacy to carry out its plans for throwing off the imperial control. Never again did an emperor occupy, in respect either to Germany or the papacy, the vantage-ground on which Henry III. had stood.—G. B. Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, ch. 10.

11th-16th centuries.—Effect of Crusades upon the Jews. See JEWS: 1046-1146; Germany: 11th-16th centuries.

1000-1300.—Balloting.—Judicial and administrative powers in medieval period. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1000-1300.

1032.—Union with Burgundy. See BURGUNDY: 1032.

1041-1043.—Ravages Hungary. See HUNGARY: 972-1116.

1056-1122.—Chief points of the reform movement.—Investiture conflict between Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII.—Struggle continued by Henry V.—Concordat of Worms (1122).—“The triumph of the reform movement and of its ecclesiastical theory is especially connected with the name of Hildebrand, or Gregory VII., as he called himself when pope, and was very largely,

it not entirely, due to his indomitable spirit and iron will, which would yield to no persuasion or threats or actual force. He is one of the most interesting personalities of history. . . . The three chief points which the reform party attempted to gain were the independence of the church from all outside control in the election of the pope, the celibacy of the clergy, and the abolition of simony or the purchase of ecclesiastical preferment. The foundation for the first of these was laid under Nicholas II. by assigning the selection of the pope to the college of cardinals in Rome, though it was only after some considerable time that this reform was fully secured. The second point, the celibacy of the clergy, had long been demanded by the church, but the requirement had not been strictly enforced, and in many parts of Europe married clergy were the rule. . . . As interpreted by the reformers, the third of their demands, the suppression of simony, was as great a step in advance and as revolutionary as the first. Technically, simony was the sin of securing an ecclesiastical office by bribery, named from the incident recorded in the eighth chapter of the Acts concerning Simon Magus. But at this time the desire for the complete independence of the church had given to it a new and wider meaning which made it include all appointment to positions in the church by laymen, including kings and the emperor. . . . According to the conception of the public law the bishop was an officer of the state. He had, in the great majority of cases, political duties to perform as important as his ecclesiastical duties. The lands which formed the endowment of his office had always been considered as being, still more directly than any other feudal land, the property of the state. . . . It was a matter of vital importance whether officers exercising such important functions and controlling so large a part of its area—probably everywhere as much as one-third of the territory—should be selected by the state or by some foreign power beyond its reach and having its own peculiar interests to seek. But this question of lay investiture was as vitally important for the church as for the state. . . . It was as necessary to the centralization and independence of the church that it should choose these officers as that it should elect the head of all—the pope. This was not a question for Germany alone. Every northern state had to face the same difficulty. . . . The struggle was so much more bitter and obstinate with the emperor than with any other sovereign because of the close relation of the two powers one to another, and because the whole question of their relative rights was bound up with it. It was an act of rebellion on the part of the papacy against the sovereign, who had controlled it with almost absolute power for a century, and it was rising into an equal, or even superior, place beside the emperor of what was practically a new power, a rival for his imperial position. . . . It was absolutely impossible that a conflict with these new claims should be avoided as soon as Henry IV. arrived at an age to take the government into his own hands and attempted to exercise his imperial rights as he understood them.”—G. B. Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, ch. 10.—“At Gregory’s accession, he [Henry] was a young man of twenty-three. His violence had already driven a whole district into rebellion. . . . The Pope sided with the insurgents. He summoned the young king to his judgment-seat at Rome; threatened at his refusal to ‘cut him off as a rotten limb’; and passed on him the awful sentence of excommunication. The double terror of rebellion at home

and the Church's curse at length broke down the passionate pride of Henry. Humbled and helpless, he crossed the Alps in midwinter, groping among the bleak precipices and ice-fields,—the peasants passing him in a rude sledge of hide down those dreadful slopes,—and went to beg absolution of Gregory at the mountain castle of Canossa [1077]. History has few scenes more dramatic than that which shows the proud, irascible, crest-fallen young sovereign confronted with the fiery, little, indomitable old man. To quote Gregory's own words:—'Here he came with few attendants, and for three days before the gate—his royal apparel laid aside, barefoot, clad in wool, and weeping abundantly—he never ceased to implore the aid and comfort of apostolic mercy, till all there present were moved with pity and compassion; insomuch that, interceding for him with many prayers and tears they all wondered at my strange severity, and some even cried out that it was not so much the severe dignity of an apostle as the cruel wrath of a tyrant. Overcome at length by the urgency of his appeal and the entreaties of all present, I relaxed the bond of anathema, and received him to the favor of communion and the bosom of our holy Mother the Church.' It was a truce which one party did not mean nor the other hope to keep. It was policy, not real terror or conviction, that had led Henry to humble himself before the Pope. It was policy, not contrition or compassion, that had led Gregory (against his better judgment, it is said) to accept his Sovereign's penance. In the war of policy, the man of the world prevailed. Freed of the Church's curse, he quickly won back the strength he had lost. He overthrew in battle the rival whom Gregory upheld. He swept his rebellious lands with sword and flame. He carried his victorious army to Rome, and was there crowned Emperor by a rival Pope [1084]. Gregory himself was only saved by his ferocious allies, Norman and Saracen, at cost of the devastation of half the capital,—that broad belt of ruin which still covers the half mile between the Coliseum and the Lateran gate. Then, hardly rescued from the popular wrath, he went away to die, defeated and heart-broken, at Salerno, with the almost despairing words on his lips: 'I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile!' But 'a spirit hath not flesh or bones,' as a body hath, and so it will not stay mangled and bruised. The victory lay, after all, with the combatant who could appeal to fanaticism as well as force."—J. H. Allen, *Christian history in its three great periods: Second period*, pp. 69-72.—"Meanwhile, the Saxons had recognized Hermann of Luxemburg as their King, but in 1087 he resigned the crown; and another claimant, Eckbert, Margrave of Meissen, was murdered. The Saxons were now thoroughly weary of strife, and as years and bitter experience had softened the character of Henry, they were the more willing to return to their allegiance. Peace was therefore, for a time, restored in Germany. The Papacy did not forgive Henry. He was excommunicated several times, and in 1091 his son Conrad was excited to rebel against him. In 1104 a more serious rebellion was headed by the Emperor's second son Henry, who had been crowned King, on promising not to seize the government during his father's lifetime, in 1099. The Emperor was treated very cruelly, and had to sign his own abdication at Ingelheim in 1105. A last effort was made on his behalf by the Duke of Lotharingia; but worn out by his sorrows and struggles, Henry died in August, 1106. His body lay in a stone coffin in

an unconsecrated chapel at Speyer for five years. Not till 1111, when the sentence of excommunication was removed, was it properly buried. Henry V. was not so obedient to the Church as the Papal party had hoped. He stoutly maintained the very point which had brought so much trouble on his father. The right of investiture, he declared, had always belonged to his predecessors, and he was not to give up what they had handed on to him. In 1110 he went to Rome, accompanied by a large army. Next year Pope Paschal II. was forced to crown him Emperor; but as soon as the Germans had crossed the Alps again Paschal renewed all his old demands. The struggle soon spread to Germany. The Emperor was excommunicated; and the discontented princes, as eager as ever to break the royal power, sided with the Pope against him. Peace was not restored till 1122, when Calixtus II. was Pope. In that year, in a Diet held at Worms, both parties agreed to a compromise, called the Concordat of Worms."—J. Sime, *History of Germany*, ch. 8.—"The long-desired reconciliation was effected in the form of the following concordat. The emperor renounced the right of investiture with the ring and crosier, and conceded that all bishoprics of the empire should be filled by canonical election and free consecration; the election of the German bishops (not of the Italian and Burgundian) should be held in presence of the emperor; the bishops elect should receive investiture, but only of their fiefs and regalia, by the sceptre in Germany before, in Italy and in Burgundy after, their consecration; for these grants they should promise fidelity to the emperor; contested elections should be decided by the emperor in favour of him who should be considered by the provincial synod to possess the better right. Finally he should restore to the Roman Church all the possessions and regalia of St. Peter. This convention secured to the Church many things, and above all, the freedom of ecclesiastical elections. Hitherto, the different Churches had been compelled to give their consent to elections that had been made by the king, but now the king was pledged to consent to the elections made by the Churches; and although these elections took place in his presence, he could not refuse his consent and investiture without violating the treaty, in which he had promised that for the future elections should be according to the canons. This, and the great difference, that the king, when he gave the ring and crosier, invested the bishop elect with his chief dignity, namely, his bishopric, but now granted him by investiture with the sceptre, only the accessories, namely the regalia, was felt by Lothaire, the successor of Henry, when he required of pope Innocent II. the restoration of the right of investiture. Upon one important point, the homage which was to be sworn to the king, the concordat was silent. By not speaking of it, Calixtus seemed to tolerate it, and the Roman see therefore permitted it, although it had been prohibited by Urban and Paschal. It is certain that Calixtus was as fully convinced as his predecessors, that the condition of vassals, to which bishops and abbots were reduced by their oath of homage, could hardly be reconciled with the nature and dignity of the episcopacy, or with the freedom of the Church, but he perhaps foresaw, that by insisting too strongly upon its discontinuance, he might awaken again the unholy war, and without any hopes of benefit, inflict many evils upon the Church. Sometime later Adrian endeavoured to free the Italian bishops from the homage, instead of which, the emperor was

to be content with an oath of fidelity: but Frederick I. would not renounce the homage unless they resigned the regalia. [Although, by the Concordat, direct appointments were taken out of the emperor's hands, the power was still largely his as he could practically invalidate the election of a bishop if it displeased him by refusing to confer on him the fiefs and secular privileges.] . . . In the following year the concordat was ratified in the great council of three hundred bishops, the ninth general council of the Church, which was convened by Calixtus in Rome."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *History of the church*, v. 3, pp. 345-347.—See also PAPACY: 1056-1122; CANOSSA; ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084; SAXONY: 1073-1075.

ALSO IN: A. F. Vilemain, *Life of Gregory VII*, bk. 2.—Comte C. F. Montalembert, *Monks of the West*, bk. 19.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, bk. 6-8.—W. R. W. Stephens, *Hildebrand and his times*.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical doctrines of the Middle Ages*, bk. 4.

1085.—Proclamation of Truce of God by Henry IV. See FEUDALISM: Disastrous effects of private wars.

1101.—Disastrous Crusade under Duke Welf of Bavaria. See CRUSADES: 1101-1102.

1125.—Election of Lothaire II, king, afterwards emperor.

1125-1272.—Rise of the college of electors.—The election of Lothaire II, in 1125, when a great assembly of nobles and church dignitaries was convened at Mentz, and when certain of the chiefs made a selection of candidates to be voted for, has been regarded by some historians—Hallam, Comyn and Dunham, for example—as indicating the origin of the German electoral college. They have held that a right of "pretaxation," or preliminary choice, was gradually acquired by certain princes, which grew into the finally settled electoral right. But this view is now looked upon as more than questionable, and is not supported by the best authorities. "At the election of Rudolph [1272 or 1273 ?] we meet for the first time the fully developed college of electors as a single electoral body; the secondary matter of a doubt regarding what individuals composed it was definitely settled before Rudolph's reign had come to an end. How did the college of electors develop itself? . . . The problem is made more difficult at the outset from the fact that in the older form of government in Germany there can be no question at all of a simple electoral right in a modern sense. The electoral right was amalgamated with a hereditary right of that family which had happened to come to the throne: it was only a right of selection from among the heirs available within this family. Inasmuch now as such selection could—as well from the whole character of German kingship as in consequence of its amalgamation with the empire—take place already during the lifetime of the ruling member of the family, it is easy to understand that in ages in which the ruling race did not die out during many generations, the right came to be at last almost a mere form. Usually the king, with the consent of those who had the right of election, would, already during his lifetime, designate as his successor one of his heirs,—if possible his oldest son. Such was the rule in the time of the Ottos and of the Salian [Franconian line] emperors. It was a rule which could not be adhered to in the first half of the 12th century after the extinction of the Salian line, when free elections, not determined beforehand by designation, took place in the years 1125, 1138 and 1152. Necessarily the element of election now predomi-

nated. But had any fixed order of procedure at elections been handed down from the past? The very principle of election having been disregarded in the natural course of events for centuries, was it any wonder that the order of procedure should also come to be half forgotten? And had not in the meantime social readjustments in the electoral body so disturbed this order of procedure, or such part of it as had been important enough to be preserved, as necessarily to make it seem entirely antiquated? With these questions the electoral assemblies of the year 1125 as well as of the year 1138 were brought face to face, and they found that practically only those precedents could be taken from what seemed to have been the former customary mode of elections which provided that the archbishop of Mainz as chancellor of the empire should first solemnly announce the name of the person elected and the electors present should do homage to the new king. This was at the end of the whole election, after the choice had to all intents and purposes been already made. For the material part of the election, on the other hand, the part that preceded this announcement, they found an apparently new expedient. A committee was to draw up an agreement as to the person to be chosen; in the two cases in question the manner of constituting this committee differed. Something essential had now been done towards establishing a mode of procedure at elections which should accord with the changed circumstances. One case however had not been provided for in these still so informal and uncertain regulations; the case, namely, that those taking part in the election could come to no agreement at all with regard to the person whose choice was to be solemnly announced by the archbishop of Mainz. And how could men have foreseen such a case in the first half of the 12th century? Up till then double elections had absolutely never taken place. Anti-kings there had been, indeed, but never two opposing kings elected at the same time. In the year 1108, however, this contingency arose; Philip of Suabia and Otto IV. were contemporaneously elected and the final unanimity of choice that in 1152 had still been counted on as a matter of course did not come about. As a consequence questions with regard to the order of procedure now came up which had hardly ever been touched upon before. First and foremost this one: can a better right of one of the elected kings be founded on a majority of the votes obtained? And in connection with it this other: who on the whole has a right to cast an electoral vote? Even though men were inclined now to answer the first question in the affirmative, the second, the presupposition for the practical application of the principle that had been laid down in the first, offered all the greater difficulties. Should one, after the elections of the years 1125 and 1152 and after the development since 1180 of a more circumscribed class of princes of the realm, accept the existence of a narrower electoral committee? Did this have a right to elect exclusively, or did it only have a simple right of priority in the matter of casting votes, or perhaps only a certain precedence when the election was being discussed? And how were the limits to be fixed for the larger circle of electors below this electoral committee? These are questions which the German electors put to themselves less soon and less clearly than did the pope, Innocent III., whom they had called upon to investigate the double election of the year 1108. . . . He speaks repeatedly of a narrower electoral body with which rests chiefly the election of the king,



HENRY V AT WORMS, 1122



and he knows only princes as the members of this body. And beyond a doubt the repeated expressions of opinion of the pope, as well as this whole matter of having two kings, at the beginning of the 13th century, gave men in Germany cause for reflection with regard to these weighty questions concerning the constitutional forms of the empire. One of the most important results of this reflection on the subject is to be found in the solution given by the *Sachsenspiegel*, which was compiled about 1230. Eike von Repgow knows in his law-book only of a precedence at elections of a smaller committee of princes, but mentions as belonging to this committee certain particular princes: the three Rhenish archbishops, the count Palatine of the Rhine, the duke of Saxony, the margrave of Brandenburg and—his right being questionable indeed—the king of Bohemia. . . . So far, at all events, did the question with regard to the limitation of the electors seem to have advanced towards its solution by the year 1230 that an especial electoral college of particular persons was looked upon as the nucleus of those electing. But side by side with this view the old theory still held its own, that certainly all princes at least had an equal right in the election. Under Emperor Frederick II. [1212-1250], for instance, it was still energetically upheld. A decision one way or the other could only be reached according to the way in which the next elections should actually be carried out. Henry Raspe was elected in the year 1246 almost exclusively by ecclesiastical princes, among them the three Rhenish archbishops. He was the first 'priest-king' (Pfaffenkönig). The second 'priest-king' was William of Holland. He was chosen by eleven princes, among whom was only one layman, the duke of Brabant. The others were bishops; among them, in full force, the archbishops of the Rhine. Present were also many counts. But William caused himself still to be subsequently elected by the duke of Saxony and the margrave of Brandenburg, while the king of Bohemia was also not behindhand in acknowledging him—that, too, with special emphasis. What transpired at the double election of Alphonse and Richard in the year 1257 has not been handed down with perfect trustworthiness. Richard claimed later to have been elected by Mainz, Cologne, the Palatinate and Bohemia; Alphonse by Treves, Saxony, Brandenburg and Bohemia. But in addition to the princes of these lands, other German princes also took part,—according to the popular view by assenting, according to their own view, in part at least, by actually electing. All the same the lesson taught by all these elections is clear enough. The general right of election of the princes disappears almost altogether; a definite electoral college, which was looked upon as possessing almost exclusively the sole right of electing, comes into prominence, and the component parts which made it up correspond in substance to the theory of the *Sachsenspiegel*. And whatever in the year 1257 is not established firmly and completely and in all directions, stands there as incontrovertible at the election of Rudolph [1273]. The electors, and they only, now elect; all share of others in the election is done away with. Although in place of Ottocar of Bohemia, who was at war with Rudolph, Bavaria seems to have been given the electoral vote, yet before Rudolph's reign is out, in the year 1290, Bohemia at last attains to the dignity which the *Sachsenspiegel*, even if with some hesitation, had assigned to it. One of the most important revolutions in the German form of government was herewith

accomplished. From among the aristocratic class of the princes an oligarchy had raised itself up, a representation of the princely provincial powers as opposed to the king. Unconsciously, as it were, had it come into being, not exactly desired by any one as a whole, nor yet the result of a fixed purpose even as regarded its separate parts. It must clearly have corresponded to a deep and elementary and gradually developing need of the time. Undoubtedly from a national point of view it denotes progress; henceforward at elections the danger of 'many heads many minds' was avoided; the era of double elections was practically at an end."—K. Lamprecht, *Deutsche Geschichte* (tr. from the German), v. 4, pp. 23-28.—In 1356 the Margraf of Brandenburg was recognized in the Golden Bull as one of the Kurfürsts,—that is as "one of the Seven who have a right . . . to choose, to 'kieren' the Romish Kaiser; and who are therefore called Kur Princes, Kurfürste, or Electors. . . . Fürst (Prince) I suppose is equivalent originally to our noun of number, 'First.' The old verb 'kieren' (participle 'erkoren' still in use, not to mention 'Val-kyr' and other instances) is essentially the same word as our 'choose,' being written 'kiesen' as well as 'kieren.' Nay, say the etymologists, it is also written 'Küssen' ('to kiss,'—to choose with such emphasis!), and is not likely to fall obsolete in that form.—The other Six Electoral Dignitaries, who grew to Eight by degrees, and may be worth noting once by the readers of this book, are: 1. Three Ecclesiastical, Mainz, Köln, Trier (Mentz, Cologne, Treves), Archbishops all. . . . 2. Three Secular, Sachsen, Pfalz, Böhmen (Saxony, Palatinate, Bohemia); of which the last, Böhmen, since it fell from being a kingdom in itself, to being a province of Austria, is not very vocal in the Diets. These Six, with Brandenburg, are the Seven Kurfürsts in old time; Septemvirs of the Country, so to speak. But now Pfalz, in the Thirty-Years War (under our Prince Rupert's Father, whom the Germans call the 'Winter-King'), got abrogated, put to the ban, so far as an indignant Kaiser could; and the vote and Kur of Pfalz was given to his Cousin of Baiern (Bavaria),—so far as an indignant Kaiser could [see below: 1621-1623]. However, at the Peace of Westphalia (1648) it was found incompetent to any Kaiser to abrogate Pfalz, or the like of Pfalz, a Kurfürst of the Empire. So, after jargon inconceivable, it was settled, that Pfalz must be reinstated, though with territories much clipped, and at the bottom of the list, not the top as formerly: and that Baiern, who could not stand to be balked after twenty-years possession, must be made Eighth Elector [see below: 1648]. The Ninth, we saw (Year 1692), was Gentleman Ernst of Hanover [see below: 1648-1705]. There never was any Tenth."—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—"All the rules and requisites of the election were settled by Charles the Fourth in the Golden Bull [see below: 1347-1493], thenceforward a fundamental law of the Empire."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 14.

12th-13th centuries.—Causes of the disintegration of the empire.—"The whole difference between French and German constitutional history can be summed up in a word: to the ducal power, after its fall, the crown fell heir in France; the lesser powers, which had been its own allies, in Germany. The event was the same, the results were different: in France centralization, in Germany disintegration. The fall of the power of the stem-duchies is usually traced to the subjugation of the mightiest of the dukes, Henry the

Lion [see SAXONY: 1178-1183], who refused military service to the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa just when the latter most needed him in the struggle against the Lombards. . . . The emperor not only banned the duke, he not only took away his duchy to bestow it elsewhere, but he entirely did away with this whole form of rule. The western part, Westphalia, went to the archbishops of Cologne; in the East the different margraves were completely freed from the last remnants of dependence that might have continued to exist. In the intervening space the little ecclesiastical and secular lords came to be directly under the emperor without a trace of an intermediate power and with the title of bishop or abbot, imperial count, or prince. If one of these lords, Bernard of Ascanium, received the title of Saxon duke, that title no longer betokened the head of a stem or nation but simply an honorary distinction above other counts and lords. What happened here had already begun to take place in the other duchy of the Guelphs, in Bavaria, through the detachment from it of Austria; sooner or later the same process came about in all parts of the empire. With the fall of the old stem-duchies those lesser powers which had been under their shadow or subject to them gained everywhere an increase of power; partly by this acquiring the ducal title as an honorary distinction by the ruler of a smaller district, partly by joining rights of the intermediate powers that had just been removed to their own jurisdictions and thus coming into direct dependence on the empire. . . . Such was the origin of the idea of territorial supremacy. The 'dominus terrae' comes to feel himself no longer as a person commissioned by the emperor but as lord in his own land. . . . As to the cities, behind their walls remnants of old Germanic liberty had been preserved. Especially in the residences of the bishops had artisans and merchants thriven and these classes had gradually thrown off their bondage, forming, both together, the new civic community. . . . The burghers could find no better way to show their independence of the princes than that the community itself should exercise the rights of a territorial lord over its members. Thus did the cities as well as the principalities come to form separate territories, only that the latter had a monarchical, the former a republican form of government. . . . It is a natural question to ask, on the whole, when this new formation of territories was completed. . . . The question ought really only to be put in a general way: at what period in German history is it an established fact that there are in the empire and under the empire separate territorial powers (principalities and cities)? As such a period we can designate approximately the end of the 12th and beginning of the 13th centuries. From that time on the double nature of imperial power and of territorial power is an established fact and the mutual relations of these two make up the whole internal history of later times. . . . The last ruler who had spread abroad the glory of the imperial name had been Frederick II. For a long time after him no one had worn the imperial crown at all, and of those kings who reigned during a whole quarter of a century not one succeeded in making himself generally recognized. There came a time when the duties of the state, if they were fulfilled at all, were fulfilled by the territorial powers. Those are the years which pass by the name of the interregnum. . . . Rudolph of Hapsburg and his successors, chosen from the most different houses and pursuing the most different policies, have quite the same position in two regards: on the one

hand the crown, in the weak state in which it had emerged from the interregnum, saw itself compelled to make permanent concessions to the territorial powers in order to maintain itself from one moment to another; on the other hand it finds no refuge for itself but in the constant striving to found its own power on just such privileged territories. When the kings strive to make the princes and cities more powerful by giving them numerous privileges, and at the same time by bringing together a dynastic appanage to gain for themselves an influential position: this is no policy that wavers between conceding and maintaining. . . . The crown can only keep its place above the territories by first recognizing the territorial powers and then, through just such a recognized territorial power by creating for itself the means of upholding its rights. . . . The next great step in the onward progress of the territorial power was the codification of the privileges which the chief princes had obtained. Of the law called the 'Golden Bull' only the one provision is generally known, that the seven electors shall choose the emperor; yet so completely does the document in question draw the affairs of the whole empire into the range of its provisions that for centuries it could pass for that empire's fundamental law. It is true that for the most part it did not create a new system of legislation, but only sanctioned what already existed. But for the position of all the princes it was significant enough that the seven most considerable among them were granted an independence which comprised sovereign rights, and this not by way of a privilege but as a part of the law of the land. A sharply defined goal, and herein lies the deepest significance, was thus set up at which the lesser territories could aim and which, after three centuries they were to attain. . . . This movement was greatly furthered when on the threshold of modern times the burning question of church reform, after waiting in vain to be taken up by the emperor, was taken up by the lower classes, but with revolutionary excesses. . . . The mightiest intellectual movement of German history found at last its only political mainstay in the territories. . . . This whole development, finally, found its political and legal completion through the Thirty Years War and the treaty of peace which concluded it. The new law which the Peace of Westphalia [1648] now gave to the empire proclaimed expressly that all territories should retain their rights, especially the right of making alliances among themselves and with foreigners so long as it could be done without violating the oath of allegiance to the emperor and the empire. Herewith the territories were proclaimed. . . . states under the empire."—I. Jastrow, *Geschichte des deutschen Einheitstraums und seiner Erfüllung* (tr. from the German), pp. 30-37.

1138-1197.—House of Swabia, or the Hohenstaufen.—Its struggles in Germany and Italy.—Factions of Guelphs and Ghibellines.—Frederick Barbarossa and the Lombard cities.—Henry VI and the Sicilian kingdom.—On the death of Henry V, in 1125 the male line of the house of Franconia became extinct. Frederick, duke of Swabia, and his brother Conrad, duke of the Franks, were grandchildren of Henry IV on their mother's side, and, inheriting the patrimonial estates, were plainly the heirs of the crown, if the crown was to be recognized as hereditary and dynastic. But jealousy of their house and a desire to reassert the elective dependence of the imperial office prevailed against their claims and their ambition. At an election which was de-



nounced as irregular, the choice fell upon Lothaire of Saxony. The old imperial family was not only set aside, but its bitterest enemies were raised over it. The consequences were a feud and a struggle which grew and widened into the long-lasting, far-reaching, historical conflict of Guelfs and Ghibellines (see GUELFs AND Ghibellines; SAXONY: 1178-1183). The Saxon emperor Lothaire found his strongest support in the great Wölf, Welf, or Guelf nobleman, Henry the Proud, duke of Bavaria, to whom he (Lothaire) now gave his daughter in marriage, together with the dukedom of Saxony, and whom he intended to make his successor on the imperial throne. But the scheme failed. On Lothaire's death, in

the breaking up of the old powerful duchy of Saxony. But Italy was the great historical field of the energies and the ambitions of the Hohenstaufen emperors. There, Frederick Barbarossa (Frederick Redbeard, as the Italians called him), the second of the line, and Frederick II, his adventurous grandson, fought their long, losing battle with the popes and with the city-republics of Lombardy and Tuscany.—U. Balzani, *Popes and the Hohenstaufen*.—Frederick Barbarossa, elected Emperor in 1152, passed into Italy in 1154. Milan, the most powerful city of Lombardy, had gained the hatred of all the neighboring towns by her tyrannical acts. When representatives of the Emperor appeared, to protest



CORONATION OF FREDERICK BARBAROSSA AS HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR

1138, the partisans of the Swabian family carried the election of Conrad (the Crusader—see CRUSADES: 1147-1149), and the dynasty most commonly called Hohenstaufen rose to power. It took the name of Hohenstaufen from its original family seat on the lofty hill of Staufen, in Swabia, overlooking the valley of the Rems. Its party, in the wars and factions of the time, received the name of the Waiblingen, from the birth-place of the Swabian duke Frederick—the little town of Waiblingen in Franconia. Under the tongue of the Italians, when these party names and war-cries were carried across the Alps, Waiblingen became Ghibelline and Welf became Guelf. During the first half century of the reign of the Hohenstaufen, the history of Germany is the history, for the most part, of the strife in which the Guelf dukes, Henry the Proud and Henry the Lion, are the central figures, and which ended in

against the treatment of Lodi, they were insulted and the imperial seal trampled upon. Frederick "came there on the invitation of the Pope, of the Prince of Capua, and of the towns which had been subjected to the ambition of Milan. He marched at the head of his German feudatories, a splendid and imposing array. His first object was to crush the power of Milan, and to exalt that of Pavia, the head of the rival league. Nothing could stand against him. At Viterbo he was compelled to hold the stirrup of the Pope and in return for this submission he received the crown from the Pontiff's hands in the Basilica of St. Peter. He returned northwards by the valley of the Tiber, dismissed his army at Ancona, and with difficulty escaped safely into Bavaria. His passage left little that was solid and durable behind it. He had effected nothing against the King of Naples. His friendship with the Pope was illu-

sory and short-lived. The dissensions of the North, which had been hushed for a moment by his presence, broke out again as soon as his back was turned. He had, however, received the crown of Charles the Great from the hands of the successor of St. Peter. But Frederick was not a man to brook easily the miscarriage of his designs. In 1158 he collected another army at Ulm. Brescia was quickly subdued; Lodi, which had been destroyed by the Milanese, was rebuilt, and Milan itself was reduced to terms. This peace lasted but for a short time; Milan revolted, and was placed under the ban of the Empire. The fate of Cremona taught the Milanese what they had to expect from the clemency of the Emperor. After a desultory warfare, regular siege was laid to the town. On March 1, 1162, Milan, reduced by famine, surrendered at discretion, and a fortnight later all the inhabitants were ordered to leave the town. The circuit of the walls was partitioned out among the most pitiless enemies of its former greatness, and the inhabitants of Lodi, of Cremona, of Pavia, of Novara, and of Como were encouraged to wreak their vengeance on their defeated rival. For six days the imperial army laboured to overturn the walls and public buildings, and when the emperor left for Pavia, on Palm Sunday 1162, not a fiftieth part of the city was standing. This terrible vengeance produced a violent reaction. The homeless fugitives were received by their ancient enemies, and local jealousies were merged in common hatred of the common foe. [They were further angered and alarmed by the attitude of the Emperor towards their governmental prerogatives. In 1158 at the assembly of Roneaglia, Frederick had secured a decision from those versed in the Roman law that he was feudal suzerain of the Lombard towns, unless they could show legal proof of their independence.] Frederick had already been excommunicated by Pope Alexander III as the supporter of his rival Victor. Verona undertook to be the public vindicator of discontent. Five years after the destruction of Milan the Lombard league numbered fifteen towns amongst its members. Venice, Verona, Vicenza, Treviso, Ferrara, Brescia, Bergamo, Cremona, Milan, Lodi, Piacenza, Parma, Modena, and Bologna. The confederation solemnly engaged to expel the Emperor from Italy. The towns on the frontier of Piedmont asked and obtained admission to the league, and to mark the dawn of freedom a new town was founded on the low marshy ground which is drained by the Bormida and the Tanaro, and which afterwards witnessed the victory of Marengo. It was named by its founders Alessandria, in honour of the Pope, who had vindicated their independence of the Empire. . . . The Lombard league had unfortunately a very imperfect constitution. It had no common treasure, no uniform rules for the apportionment of contributions; it existed solely for the purposes of defence against the external foe. The time was not yet come when self-sacrifice and self-abnegation could lay the foundations of a united Italy. Frederick spent six years in preparing vengeance. In 1174 he laid siege to the new Alexandria, but did not succeed in taking it. A severe struggle took place two years later. In 1176 a new army arrived from Germany, and on May 29 Frederick Barbarossa was entirely defeated at Legnano. In 1876 the seventh hundred anniversary of the battle was celebrated on the spot where it was gained, and it is still regarded as the birthday of Italian freedom."—O. Browning, *Guelphs and Ghibellines*, ch. 1.—See also ITALY: 1154-1162 to

1174-1183; PAPACY: 1122-1250.—"The end was that the Emperor had to make peace with both the Pope and the cities, and in 1183 the rights of the cities were acknowledged in a treaty or law of the Empire, passed at Constanx or Constance in Swabia. In the last years of his reign, Frederick went on the third Crusade, and died on the way [see CRUSADES: 1188-1192]. Frederick was succeeded by his son Henry the Sixth, who had already been chosen King, and who in the next year, 1191, was crowned Emperor. The chief event of his reign was the conquest of the Kingdom of Sicily, which he claimed in right of his wife Constance, the daughter of the first King William."—E. A. Freeman, *General sketch of European history*, ch. 11.—The Normans had settled in Sicily early in the eleventh century, and had gradually taken the country from the local rulers. In 1059 one of the Norman leaders (Robert Guiscard) was recognized by the Pope as his vassal. By 1140 these adventurers had seized all of southern Italy and united it to their Sicilian domains, thus raising up a powerful rival state to that of the popes. "The death of William [King of Sicily] leaving Constance as his heir, occurred just before that of Frederic I, and was the welcome excuse to Henry VI for leading an army into southern Italy and enforcing by arms his claims to a crown over which he had no other right. The imperial title which he took by the way in 1191 could add nothing to his claim in southern Italy, since the Norman kingdom had never, except in the vaguest terms, acknowledged the over-lordship of the emperor. Its constitution was a new one, borrowed from Norman ideas, and its people were as passionately attached to their dynasty as they were passionately hostile to anything like German interference. This loyalty found its expression in a determined resistance under the leadership of Tancred, an illegitimate member of the house of Hauteville. It was four years before Henry, after the most desperate struggle, was able to get possession of his crown."—E. Emerton, *Medieval Europe*, pp. 315-316.

ALSO IN: F. Kühn, *Barbarossa*.—H. Prutz, *Kaiser Friedrich I.*—G. B. Adams, *Medieval civilization*, pp. 247-254.—H. von Büнау, *Leben und Thaten Friedrichs I.*

1142-1152.—Creation of the electorate of Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1142-1152.

1156.—Margravate of Austria created a duchy. See AUSTRIA: 805-1246.

1178-1553.—Dissolution of duchy of Saxony under Henry the Lion.—House of Wettin.—Albertine and Ernestine lines of House of Saxony. See SAXONY: 1178-1183; 1180-1553.

1180-1214.—Bavaria and the Palatinate of the Rhine acquired by the house of Wittelsbach. See BAVARIA: 1180-1356.

1196-1197.—Fourth Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1196-1197.

1197-1250.—Frederick II of Hohenstaufen.—His abilities and shortcomings.—Revolts put down in Germany.—Attachment to Sicily and conflicts with the papacy.—Successful Crusade.—"He [Henry VI] died in 1197, leaving his son Frederick, a young child, who had already been chosen King in Germany, and who succeeded as hereditary King in Sicily. The Norman Kingdom of Sicily thus came to an end, except so far as it was continued through Frederick, who was descended from the Norman Kings through his mother. On the death of the Emperor Henry, the election of young Frederick seems to have been quite forgotten, and the crown was dis-

puted between his uncle Philip of Swabia and Otto of Saxony. He was son of Henry the Lion, who had been Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, but who had lost the more part of his dominions in the time of Frederick Barbarossa. [Henry the Guelf leader had refused to assist Frederick Barbarossa at the battle of Legnano, and on his return from Italy Frederick had banished him and divided the duchy of Saxony.] Otto's mother was Matilda, daughter of Henry the Second of England. . . . Both Kings were crowned, and, after the death of Philip, Otto was crowned Emperor in 1209. But presently young Frederick was again chosen, and in 1220 he was crowned Emperor, and reigned thirty years till his death in 1250. This Frederick the Second, who joined together so many crowns, was called the Wonder of the World. And he well deserved the name, for perhaps no King that ever reigned had greater natural gifts, and in thought and learning he was far above the age in which he lived. In his own kingdom of Sicily he could do pretty much as he pleased, and it flourished wonderfully in his time. But in Germany and Italy he had constantly to struggle against enemies of all kinds. In Germany he had to win the support of the Princes by granting them privileges which did much to undermine the royal power, and on the other hand he showed no favour to the rising power of the cities. In Italy he had endless strivings with one Pope after another, with Innocent the Third, Honorius the Third, Gregory the Ninth, and Innocent the Fourth; as well as with the Guelfic cities, which withstood him much as they had withstood his grandfather. He was more than once excommunicated by the Popes, and in 1245 Pope Innocent the Fourth held a Council at Lyons, in which he professed to depose the Emperor. More than one King was chosen in opposition to him in Germany, just as had been done in the time of Henry the Fourth, and there were civil wars all his time, both in Germany and in Italy, while a great part of the Kingdom of Burgundy was beginning to slip away from the Empire altogether."—E. A. Freeman, *General sketch of European history*, ch. 11.—"It is probable that there never lived a human being endowed with greater natural gifts, or whose natural gifts were, according to the means afforded him by his age, more sedulously cultivated, than the last Emperor of the House of Swabia. There seems to be no aspect of human nature which was not developed to the highest degree in his person. In versatility of gifts, in what we may call mansidedness of character, he appears as a sort of mediæval Alkibiadês, while he was undoubtedly far removed from Alkibiadês' utter lack of principle or steadiness of any kind. Warrior, statesman, lawgiver, scholar, there was nothing in the compass of the political or intellectual world of his age, which he failed to grasp. In an age of change, when, in every corner of Europe and civilized Asia, old kingdoms, nations, systems, were falling and new ones rising, Frederick was emphatically the man of change, the author of things new and unheard of—he was stupor mundi et immutator mirabilis. A suspected heretic, a suspected Mahometan, he was the subject of all kinds of absurd and self-contradictory charges; but the charges mark real features in the character of the man. He was something unlike any other Emperor or any other man. . . . Of all men, Frederick the Second might have been expected to be the founder of something, the beginner of some new era, political or intellectual. He was a man to whom some

great institution might well have looked back as its creator, to whom some large body of men, some sect or party or nation might well have looked back as their prophet or founder or deliverer. But the most gifted of the sons of men has left behind him no such memory while men whose gifts cannot bear a comparison with his are revered as founders by grateful nations, churches, political and philosophical parties. Frederick in fact founded nothing, and he sowed the seeds of the destruction of many things. His great charters to the spiritual and temporal princes of Germany dealt the death-blow to the Imperial power, while he, to say the least, looked coldly on the rising power of the cities and on those commercial Leagues which were in his time the best element of German political life. In fact, in whatever aspect we look at Frederick the Second, we find him, not the first, but the last, of every series to which he belongs. An



FREDERICK II.

Holy Roman Emperor

English writer [Capgrave], two hundred years after his time, had the penetration to see that he was really the last Emperor. He was the last Prince in whose style the Imperial titles do not seem a mockery; he was the last under whose rule the three Imperial kingdoms retained any practical connexion with one another and with the ancient capital of all. . . . He was not only the last Emperor of the whole Empire; he might almost be called the last King of its several Kingdoms. After his time Burgundy vanishes as a kingdom. . . . Italy too, after Frederick, vanishes as a kingdom; any later exercise of the royal authority in Italy was something which came and went wholly by fits and starts. . . . Germany did not utterly vanish, or utterly split in pieces, like the sister kingdoms; but after Frederick came the Great Interregnum, and after the Great Interregnum the royal power in Germany never was what it had been before. In his hereditary Kingdom of Sicily he was not absolutely the last of his dynasty, for his son Manfred ruled prosperously and gloriously for some years after his death. But it is none the less clear

that from Frederick's time the Sicilian Kingdom was doomed. . . . Still more conspicuously than all was Frederick the last Christian King of Jerusalem, the last baptized man who really ruled the Holy Land or wore a crown in the Holy City. . . . In the world of elegant letters Frederick has some claim to be looked on as the founder of that modern Italian language and literature which first assumed a distinctive shape at his Sicilian court. But in the wider field of political history Frederick appears nowhere as a creator, but rather everywhere as an involuntary destroyer. . . . Under Frederick the Empire and everything connected with it seems to crumble and decay while preserving its external splendour. As soon as its brilliant possessor is gone, it at once falls asunder. It is a significant fact that one who in mere genius, in mere accomplishments, was surely the greatest prince who ever wore a crown, a prince who held the greatest place on earth, and who was concerned during a long reign in some of the greatest transactions of one of the greatest ages, seems never, even from his own flatterers, to have received that title of Great which has been so lavishly bestowed on far smaller men. . . . Many causes combined to produce this singular result, that a man of the extraordinary genius of Frederick, and possessed of every advantage of birth, office, and opportunity, should have had so little direct effect upon the world. It is not enough to attribute his failure to the many and great faults of his moral character. Doubtless they were one cause among others. But a man who influences future ages is not necessarily a good man. . . . The weak side in the brilliant career of Frederick is one which seems to have been partly inherent in his character, and partly the result of the circumstances in which he found himself. Capable of every part, and in fact playing every part by turns, he had no single definite object, pursued honestly and steadfastly, throughout his whole life. With all his powers, with all his brilliancy, his course throughout life seems to have been in a manner determined for him by others. He was ever drifting into wars, into schemes of policy, which seem to be hardly ever of his own choosing. He was the mightiest and most dangerous adversary that the Papacy ever had. But he does not seem to have withstood the Papacy from any personal choice, or as the voluntary champion of any opposing principle. He became the enemy of the Papacy, he planned schemes which involved the utter overthrow of Papacy, yet he did so simply because he found that no Pope would ever let him alone. . . . The most really successful feature in Frederick's career, his acquisition of Jerusalem [see CRUSADES: 1216-1229], is not only a mere episode in his life, but it is something that was absolutely forced upon him against his will. . . . With other Crusaders the Holy War was, in some cases, the main business of their lives; in all cases it was something seriously undertaken as a matter either of policy or of religious duty. But the Crusade of the man who actually did recover the Holy City is simply a grotesque episode in his life. Excommunicated for not going, excommunicated again for going, excommunicated again for coming back, threatened on every side, he still went, and he succeeded. What others had failed to win by arms, he contrived to win by address, and all that came of his success was that it was made the ground of fresh accusations against him. . . . For a man to influence his age, he must in some sort belong to his age. He

should be above it, before it, but he should not be foreign to it. . . . But Frederick belongs to no age; intellectually he is above his own age, above every age; morally it can hardly be denied that he was below his age; but in nothing was he of his age."—E. A. Freeman, *Emperor Frederick the Second* (*Historical essays*, v. 1, essay 10.)—For an account of Frederick's brilliant Sicilian court, and of some of the distinguishing features of his reign in Southern Italy, as well as of the end of his family, in the tragical deaths of his son Manfred and his grandson Conradin (1268), see ITALY: 1183-1250.

ALSO IN: T. L. Kington, *History of Frederick the Second*.—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 10-13.—H. H. Milman, *History of Latin Christianity*, bk. 8, ch. 7, bk. 9.—G. B. Adams, *Medieval civilization*, pp. 255-257.

13th century.—Rise of the Hanseatic League.—Growth of free towns. See HANSA TOWNS; BRUGES: 13th-15th centuries; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1300-1600.

13th century.—Cause of the multiplication of petty principalities and states.—"While the duchies and counties of Germany retained their original character of offices or governments, they were of course, even though considered as hereditary, not subject to partition among children. When they acquired the nature of fiefs, it was still consonant to the principles of a feudal tenure that the eldest son should inherit according to the law of primogeniture; an inferior provision or appanage, at most, being reserved for the younger children. The law of England favoured the eldest exclusively; that of France gave him great advantages. But in Germany a different rule began to prevail about the thirteenth century. An equal partition of the inheritance, without the least regard to priority of birth, was the general law of its principalities. Sometimes this was effected by undivided possession, or tenancy in common, the brothers residing together, and reigning jointly. This tended to preserve the integrity of dominion; but as it was frequently inconvenient, a more usual practice was to divide the territory. From such partitions are derived those numerous independent principalities of the same house, many of which still subsist in Germany. In 1589 there were eight reigning princes of the Palatine family; and fourteen, in 1675, of that of Saxony. Originally these partitions were in general absolute and without reversion; but, as their effect in weakening families became evident, a practice was introduced of making compacts of reciprocal succession, by which a fief was prevented from escheating to the empire, until all the male posterity of the first feudatory should be extinct. Thus, while the German empire survived, all the princes of Hesse or of Saxony had reciprocal contingencies of succession, or what our lawyers call cross-remainders, to each other's dominions. A different system was gradually adopted. By the Golden Bull of Charles IV. the electoral territory, that is, the particular district to which the electoral suffrage was inseparably attached, became incapable of partition, and was to descend to the eldest son. In the 15th century the house of Brandenburg set the first example of establishing primogeniture by law; the principalities of Anspach and Bayreuth were dismembered from it for the benefit of younger branches; but it was declared that all the other dominions of the family should for the future belong exclusively to the reigning elector. This politic measure was

adopted in several other families; but, even in the 16th century, the prejudice was not removed, and some German princes denounced curses on their posterity, if they should introduce the impious custom of primogeniture. . . . Weakened by these subdivisions, the principalities of Germany in the 14th and 15th centuries shrink to a more and more diminutive size in the scale of nations."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 5.—See also CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1212.—Children's Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1212.

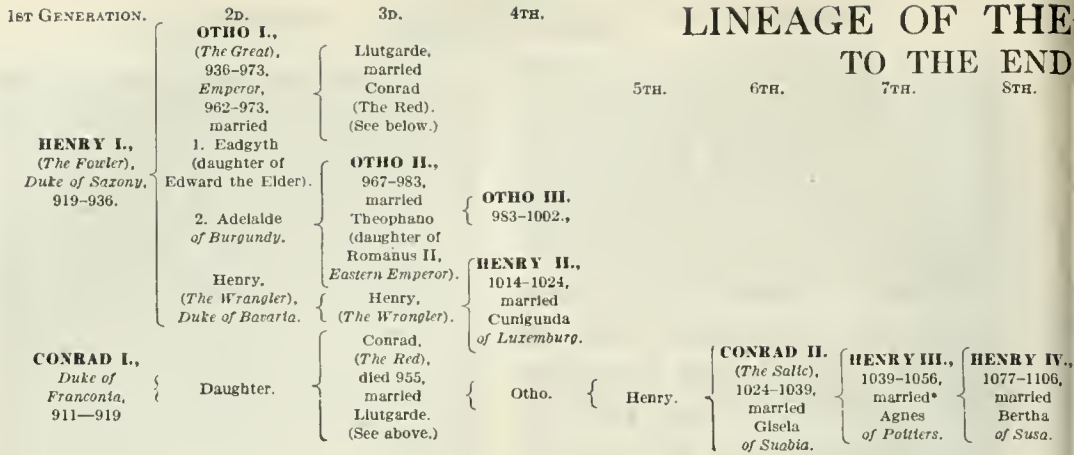
1214.—Battle of Bouvines against French. See BOUVINES, BATTLE OF.

1231-1315.—Relations of the Swiss Forest Cantons to the empire and to the House of Austria. See SWITZERLAND: Three Forest Cantons.

1250-1272.—Degradation of the Holy Roman empire.—Great Interregnum.—Anarchy and disorder universal.—Election of Rudolf of Hapsburg.—"With Frederick [the Second] fell the Empire. From the ruin that overwhelmed the greatest of its houses it emerged, living indeed, and destined to a long life, but so shattered, crippled, and degraded, that it could never more be to Europe and to Germany what it once had been. . . . The German kingdom broke down beneath the weight of the Roman Empire. To be universal sovereign Germany had sacrificed her own political existence. The necessity which their projects in Italy and disputes with the Pope laid the Emperors under of purchasing by concessions the support of their own princes, the ease with which in their absence the magnates could usurp, the difficulty which the monarch returning found in resuming the privileges of his crown, the temptation to revolt and set up pretenders to the throne which the Holy See held out, these were the causes whose steady action laid the foundation of that territorial independence which rose into a stable fabric at the era of the Great Interregnum. Frederick II. had by two Pragmatic Sanctions, A. D. 1220 and 1232, granted, or rather confirmed, rights already customary, such as to give the bishops and nobles legal sovereignty in their own towns and territories, except when the Emperor should be present; and thus his direct jurisdiction became restricted to his narrowed domain, and to the cities immediately dependent on the crown. With so much less to do, an Emperor became altogether a less necessary personage; and hence the seven magnates of the realm, now by law or custom sole electors, were in no haste to fill up the place of Conrad IV., whom the supporters of his father Frederick had acknowledged. William of Holland [1254] was in the field, but rejected by the Swabian party: on his death a new election was called for, and at last set on foot. The archbishop of Cologne advised his brethren to choose some one rich enough to support the dignity, not strong enough to be feared by the electors: both requisites met in the Plantagenet Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother of the English Henry III. He received three, eventually four votes, came to Germany, and was crowned at Aachen [1256]. But three of the electors, finding that his bribe to them was lower than to the others, seceded in disgust, and chose Alfonso X. of Castile, who, shrewder than his competitor, continued to watch the stars at Toledo, enjoying the splendours of his title while troubling himself about it no further than to issue now and then a proclamation. Meantime the condition of Germany was frightful. The new Didius Julianus, the

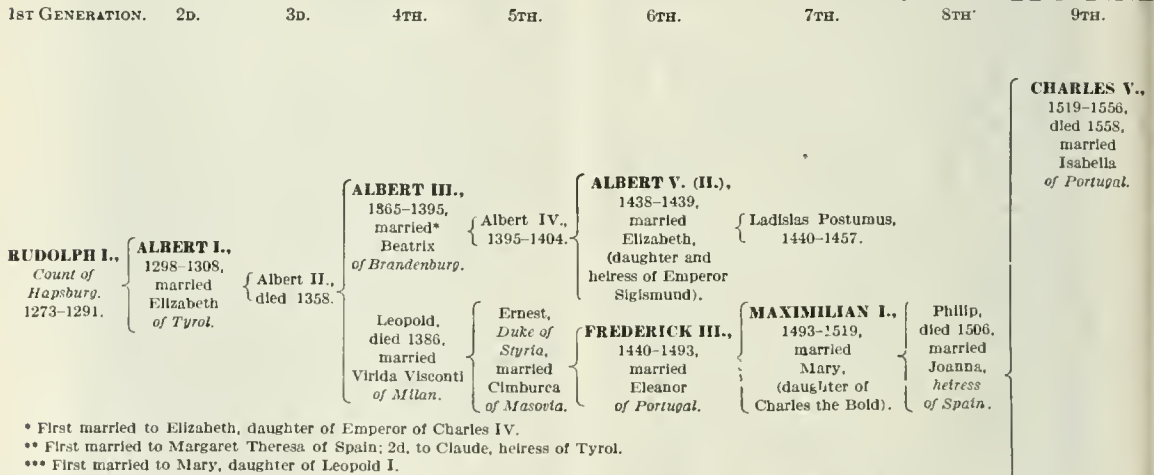
chosen of princes baser than the prætorians whom they copied, had neither the character nor the outward power and resources to make himself respected. Every floodgate of anarchy was opened: prelates and barons extended their domains by war: robber-knights infested the highways and the rivers: the misery of the weak, the tyranny and violence of the strong, were such as had not been seen for centuries. Things were even worse than under the Saxon and Franconian Emperors; for the petty nobles who had then been in some measure controlled by their dukes were now, after the extinction of the great houses, left without any feudal superior. Only in the cities was shelter or peace to be found. Those of the Rhine had already leagued themselves for mutual defence, and maintained a struggle in the interests of commerce and order against universal brigandage. At last, when Richard had been some time dead, it was felt that such things could not go on for ever: with no public law, and no courts of justice, an Emperor, the embodiment of legal government, was the only resource. The Pope himself, having now sufficiently improved the weakness of his enemy, found the disorganization of Germany beginning to tell upon his revenues, and threatened that if the electors did not appoint an Emperor, he would. Thus urged, they chose, in 1272 [1273?], Rudolf, count of Hapsburg, founder of the house of Austria. From this point there begins a new era. We have seen the Roman Empire revived in A. D. 800, by a prince whose vast dominions gave ground to his claim of universal monarchy; again erected, in A. D. 962, on the narrower but firmer basis of the German kingdom. We have seen Otto the Great and his successors during the three following centuries, a line of monarchs of unrivalled vigour and abilities, strain every nerve to make good the pretensions of their office against the rebels in Italy and the ecclesiastical power. Those efforts had now failed signally and hopelessly. Each successive Emperor had entered the strife with resources scantier than his predecessors, each had been more decisively vanquished by the Pope, the cities, and the princes. The Roman Empire might, and, so far as its practical utility was concerned, ought now to have been suffered to expire; nor could it have ended more gloriously than with the last of the Hohenstaufen. That it did not so expire, but lived on 600 years more, till it became a piece of antiquarianism hardly more venerable than ridiculous—till, as Voltaire said, all that could be said about it was that it was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire—was owing partly indeed to the belief, still unshaken, that it was a necessary part of the world's order, yet chiefly to its connection, which was by this time indissoluble, with the German kingdom. The Germans had confounded the two characters of their sovereign so long, and had grown so fond of the style and pretensions of a dignity whose possession appeared to exalt them above the other peoples of Europe, that it was now too late for them to separate the local from the universal monarch. If a German king was to be maintained at all, he must be Roman Emperor; and a German king there must still be. . . . That head, however, was no longer what he had been. The relative position of Germany and France was now exactly the reverse of that which they had occupied two centuries earlier. Rudolf was as conspicuously a weaker sovereign than Philip III. of France, as the Franconian Emperor Henry III. had been stronger than the Capetian Philip I. In every other state of Eu-

# LINEAGE OF THE TO THE END



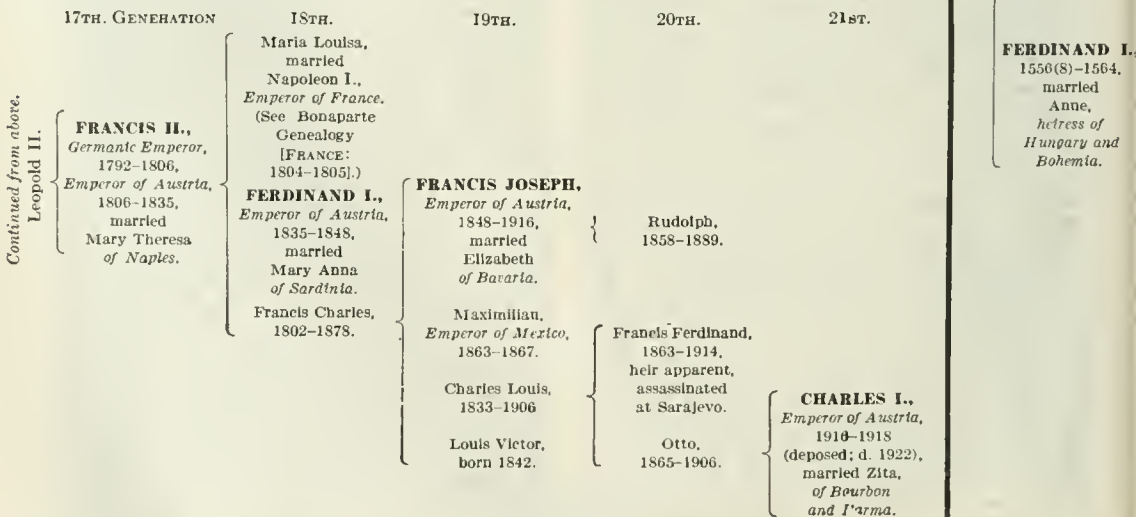
\* First married to Gunhilda, daughter of Count.

## THE HOUSE



\* First married to Elizabeth, daughter of Emperor of Charles IV.  
 \*\* First married to Margaret Theresa of Spain; 2d, to Claude, heirless of Tyrol.  
 \*\*\* First married to Mary, daughter of Leopold I.

**CHARLES V.,**  
1519-1556,  
died 1558,  
married  
Isabella  
*of Portugal.*



**FERDINAND I.**  
1556(S)-1564,  
married  
Anne,  
*heirless of*  
*Hungary and*  
*Bohemia.*

# KINGS OF GERMANY AND EMPERORS, OF THE HOHENSTAUFEN LINE.

9TH. 10TH. 11TH. 12TH. 13TH. 14TH. 15TH.

<p><b>HENRY V.,</b> 1112-1125, married Matilda of England.</p> <p>Agnes, married Frederick Hohenstaufen, Duke of Swabia.</p>	<p><b>CONRAD III.,</b> 1138-1152.</p> <p>Frederick, Duke of Swabia, married Judith, (daughter of Henry the Black).</p>	<p>Henry, died 1150.</p> <p><b>FREDERICK I.,</b> (Barbarossa), 1155-1190, married Beatrice of Burgundy.</p>	<p><b>HENRY VI.,</b> 1191-1197, married Constance of Sicily.</p> <p><b>PHILIP,</b> 1198-1208, married Irene, (daughter of Isaac II., Eastern Emperor).</p>	<p><b>FREDERICK II.,</b> 1220-1250, married 1. Constance  2. Yolande of Brienne.</p> <p>Beatrice, married <b>OTHO IV.,</b> 1209-1214.</p>	<p>Henry, died 1242</p> <p><b>CONRAD IV.,</b> 1250-1254, married Elizabeth of Bavaria.</p> <p>Conradin, beheaded 1268.</p>
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# OF THE HAPSBURG.

10TH. 11TH. 12TH. 13TH. 14TH. 15TH. 16TH.

<p>Phillip II., King of Spain. See Genealogy of Hapsburg and Carbon Sovereigns of Spain (RAIN: 1698-1700.)</p>	<p>Mary, married Maximilian II. (See below.)</p> <p><b>AXIMILIAN II.,</b> 1584-1576, married Mary. (See above.)</p>	<p>Anne, married Albert III. of Bavaria.</p> <p>Ferdinand, Count of Tyrol, died 1595.</p> <p>Charles, Duke of Styria, married Mary. (See above, ext generation.)</p>	<p>Anne, married Phillip II., King of Spain. (See above, last generation.)</p> <p><b>RUDOLPH II.,</b> 1576-1612.</p> <p><b>MATTHIAS,</b> 1612-1619, married Anne. (See below.)</p> <p>William II</p> <p>Mary, married Charles (See below, last generation.)</p>	<p>Mary Anne, married Ferdinand II (See below, last generation)</p>	<p>Anne, married Matthias. (See above.)</p> <p><b>FERDINAND II.,</b> 1619-1637, married Mary Anne, (See above, next generation.)</p> <p>Margaret, married Phillip III., King of Spain.</p>	<p><b>FERDINAND III.,</b> 1637-1657, married Mary (See below.)</p> <p>Mary Anne, married Maximilian, Elector of Bavaria.</p> <p>Mary, married Ferdinand III. (See above.)</p>	<p><b>LEOPOLD I.,</b> 1658-1705, married** Eleanor (daughter of Phillip William, Elector Palatine).</p> <p>Ferdinand Maria, Elector of Bavaria.</p>	<p><b>JOSEPH I.,</b> 1705-1711, married Wilhelmina of Hanover.</p> <p><b>CHARLES VI.,</b> 1711-1740, married Elizabeth Christina of Brunswick- Wolfenbützel.</p> <p>Max Emanuel, married*** Cunigunda.</p>	<p>Mary Amella, married Charles VII. (See below)</p> <p><b>MARIA THERESA,</b> 1745-1780, married <b>FRANCIS I.,</b> Duke of Lorraine, 1745-1765. (See Genealogy under LORRAINE.)</p> <p><b>CHARLES VII.,</b> 1742-1745, married Mary Amella, (daughter of Joseph I.).</p>	<p><b>JOSEPH II.,</b> 1765-1790, married Maria Josepha (See below.)</p> <p><b>LEOPOLD II.,</b> 1790-1792, married Maria Louisa of Spain.</p> <p>Marie Antoinette, married Louis XVI, King of France. (See Genealogy of [FRANCE:1593-1598].)</p> <p>Maria Josepha, married Joseph II. (See above.)</p>
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Continued below.

rope the tendency of events had been to centralise the administration and increase the power of the monarch, even in England not to diminish it: in Germany alone had political union become weaker, and the independence of the princes more confirmed."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 13. —See also ITALY: 1250-1520; AUSTRIA: 1246-1282.

1273-1308.—First Hapsburg kings of the Romans, Rudolf and Albert.—The choice made (1273) by the German Electors of Rudolf or Rodolph of Hapsburg for King of the Romans (see AUSTRIA: 1246-1282), was duly approved and confirmed by Pope Gregory X, who silenced, by his spiritual admonitions, the rival claims of King Alfonso of Castile. But Rudolf, to secure this papal confirmation of his title, found it necessary to promise, through his ambassadors, a renewal of the Capitulation of Otto IV, respecting the temporalities of the Pope. This he repeated in person, on meeting the Pope at Lausanne, in 1275. On that occasion, "an agreement was entered into which afterwards ratified to the Church the long disputed gift of Charlemagne, comprising Ravenna, Emilia, Bobbio, Cesena, Forumpopoli, Forli, Faenza, Imola, Bologna, Ferrara, Comacchio, Adria, Rimini, Urbino, Monteferetro, and the territory of Bagno. Rodolph also bound himself to protect the privileges of the Church, and to maintain the freedom of Episcopal elections, and the right of appeal in all ecclesiastical causes; and having stipulated for receiving the imperial crown in Rome he promised to undertake an expedition to the holy land. If Rodolph were sincere in these last engagements, the disturbed state of his German dominions afforded him an apology for their present non-fulfilment: but there is good reason for believing that he never intended to visit either Rome or Palestine; and his indifference to Italy has even been the theme of panegyric with his admirers. The repeated and mortifying reverses of the two Frederics were before his eyes; there was little to excite his sympathy with the Italians; and though Lombardy seemed ready to acknowledge his supremacy, the Tuscan cities evinced aspirations after independence." During the early years of Rudolf's reign he was employed in establishing his authority, as against the contumacy of Ottocar, king of Bohemia, and the duke of Bavaria (see AUSTRIA: 1246-1282). Meantime, Gregory X and three short-lived successors in the papal office passed away, and Nicholas III had come to it (1277). That vigorous pontiff called Rudolf to account for not having yet surrendered the states of the Church in due form, and whispered a hint of excommunication and interdict. "Rodolph was too prudent to disregard this admonition: he evaded the projected crusade and journey to Rome; but he took care to send thither an emissary, who in his name surrendered to the Pope the territory already agreed on. . . . During his entire reign Rodolph maintained his indifference towards Italy." His views "were rather directed to the wilds of Hungary and Germany than to the delicious regions of the south. . . . He compelled Philip, Count of Savoy, to surrender Morat, Payerne, and Guminen, which had been usurped from the Empire. By a successful expedition across the Jura, he brought back to obedience Otho VI. Count of Burgundy; and forced him to renounce the allegiance he had proffered to Philip III. King of France. . . . He crushed an insurrection headed by an impostor, who had persuaded the infatuated multitude to believe that he was the Emperor Frederic II. And he

freed his dominions from rapine and desolation by the destruction of several castles, whose owners infested the country with their predatory incursions." Before his death, in 1291, Rudolf "grew anxious to secure to his son Albert the succession to the throne, and his nomination by the Electors ere the grave closed upon himself. . . . But all his entreaties were unavailing; he was coldly reminded that he himself was still the 'King,' and that the Empire was too poor to support two kings. Rodolph might now repent his neglect to assume the imperial crown: but the character of Albert seems to have been the real obstacle to his elevation. With many of the great qualities of his father, this prince was deficient in his milder virtues; and his personal bravery and perseverance were tainted with pride, haughtiness, and avarice." On Rudolf's death, the Electors chose for his successor Adolphus. Count of Nassau, a choice of which they soon found reason to repent. By taking pay from Edward I of England, for an alliance with the latter against the King of France, and by attempts to enforce a purchased claim upon the Landgraviate of Thuringia, Adolphus brought himself into contempt, and in 1298 he was solemnly deposed by the Electors, who now conferred the kingship upon Albert of Austria whom they had rejected six years before. "The deposed sovereign was, however, strongly supported; and he promptly collected his adherents, and marched at the head of a vast army against Albert, who was not unprepared for his reception. A great battle took place at Gelheim, near Worms; and, after a bloody contest, the troops of Adolphus were entirely defeated," and he himself was slain. But Albert, now unopposed in Germany, found his title disputed at Rome. Boniface VIII, the most arrogant of all popes, refused to acknowledge the validity of his election, and drove him into a close alliance with the Pope's implacable and finally triumphant enemy, Philip IV of France (see PAPACY: 1294-1348). He was soon at enmity, moreover, with a majority of the Electors who had given the crown to him, and they, stimulated by the Pope, were preparing to depose him, as they had deposed Adolphus. But Albert's energy broke up their plans. He humbled their leader, the Archbishop-Elector of Mainz, and the rest became submissive. The Pope now came to terms with him, and invited him to Rome to receive the imperial crown; also offering to him the crown of France, if he would take it from the head of the excommunicated Philip; but while these proposals were under discussion, Boniface suffered humiliations at the hands of the French king which caused his death. During most of his reign, Albert was busy with undertakings of ambition and rapacity which had no success. He attempted to seize the counties of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland, as fiefs reverting to the crown, on the death of John, Count of Holland, in 1299. He claimed the Bohemian crown in 1306, when Wenceslaus V, the young king, was assassinated, and invaded the country; but only to be beaten back. He was defeated at Lucka, in 1308, when attempting to grasp the inheritance of the Landgrave of Thuringia—under the very transaction which had chiefly caused his predecessor Adolphus to be deposed, and he himself invested with the Roman crown. Finally, he was in hostilities with the Swiss Forest Cantons, and was leading his forces against them, in May, 1308, when he was assassinated by several nobles, including his cousin John, whose enmity



he had incurred.—R. Comyn, *History of the Western empire*, v. 1, ch. 14-17.

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 1, ch. 5.

1282.—Acquisition of the duchy of Austria by the House of Hapsburg. See AUSTRIA: 1246-1282.

1308-1313.—Reign of Henry of Luxemburg.—The king (subsequently crowned emperor) chosen to succeed Albert was Count Henry of Luxemburg, an able and excellent prince. The new sovereign was crowned as Henry VII. "Henry did not make the extension of his private domains his object, yet favoring fortune brought it to him in the largest measure. Since the death of Wenzel III. [1306] the succession to the throne of Bohemia had been a subject of constant struggles. A very small party was in favor of Austria; but the chief power was in the hands of Henry of Carinthia, husband of Anna, Wenzel's eldest daughter. But he was hated by the people, whose hopes turned more and more to Elizabeth, a younger daughter of Wenzel; though she was kept in close confinement by Henry, who was about to marry her, it was supposed, below her rank. She escaped, fled to the emperor, and implored his aid. He gave her in marriage to his young son John, sending him to Bohemia in charge of Peter Aichspalter, to take possession of the kingdom. He did so, and it remained for more than a century in the Luxemburg family. This King John of Bohemia was a man of mark. His life was spent in the ceaseless pursuit of adventure—from tournament to tournament, from war to war, from one enterprise to another. We meet him now in Avignon, and now in Paris; then on the Rhine, in Prussia, Poland, or Hungary, and then prosecuting large plans in Italy, but hardly ever in his own kingdom. Yet his restless activity accomplished very little, apart from some important acquisitions in Silesia. Henry then gave attention to the public peace; came to an understanding with Leopold and Frederick, the proud sons of Albert, and put under the ban Everard of Wirtemberg, long a fomentor of disturbances, sending against him a strong imperial army. . . . At the Diet of Spire, in September, 1309, it was cheerfully resolved to carry out Henry's cherished plan of reviving the traditional dignity of the Roman emperors by an expedition to the Eternal City. Henry expected thus to renew the authority of his title at home, as well as in Italy, where, in the traditional view, the imperial crown was as important and as necessary as in Germany. Every thing here had gone to confusion and ruin since the Hohenstaufens had succumbed to the bitter hostility of the popes. The contending parties still called themselves Guelphs and Ghibellines, though they retained little of the original characteristics attached to these names. A formal embassy, with Matteo Visconti [the ruling house of Milan from 1277-1450] at its head, invited Henry to Milan; and the parties every where anticipated his coming with hope. The great Florentine poet, Dante, hailed him as a saviour for distracted Italy. Thus, with the pope's approval, he crossed the Alps in the autumn of 1310, attended by a splendid escort of princes of the empire. The news of his approach excited general wonder and expectation, and his reception at Milan in December was like a triumph. He was crowned King of Lombardy without opposition. But when, in the true imperial spirit, he announced that he had come to serve the nation, and not one or another party,

and proved his sincerity by treating both parties alike, all whose selfish hopes were deceived conspired against him. Brescia endured a frightful siege for four months, showing that the national hatred of German rule still survived. At length a union of all his adversaries was formed under King Robert of Naples, the grandson of Charles of Anjou, [brother of Louis IX of France, called in by the popes to take the Sicilian throne and destroy the Hohenstaufen power which they hated] who put Conradin to death. Meanwhile Henry VII. went to Rome, May 1312, and received the crown of the Caesars from four cardinals, plenipotentiaries of the pope, in the church of St. John Lateran, south of the Tiber, St. Peter's being occupied by the Neapolitan troops. But many of his German soldiers left him, and he retired, with a small army, to Pisa, after an unsuccessful effort to take Florence. From the faithful city of Pisa he proclaimed King Robert under the ban, and, in concert with Frederick of Sicily, prepared for war by land and sea. But the pope, now a mere tool of the King of France, commanded an armistice; and when Henry, in an independent spirit, hesitated to obey, Clement V. pronounced the ban of the Church against him. It never reached the emperor, who died suddenly in the monastery of Buon-Convento: poisoned, as the German annalists assert, by a Dominican monk, in the sacramental cup, August 24, 1313. He was buried at Pisa. Meanwhile his army in Bohemia had been completely successful in establishing King John on the throne."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, bk. 3, ch. 10.

—See also ITALY: 1310-1313.

1314-1347.—Election of rival emperors, Louis (Ludovic) of Bavaria and Frederic of Austria.—Triumph of Louis at the Battle of Mühldorf.—Papal interference and excommunication of Louis.—Germany under interdict.—Unrelenting hostility of the Church.—"The death of Heinric [Henry VII] replunged Germany into horrors to which, since the extinction of the Swabian line of emperors, it had been a stranger. The Austrian princes, who had never forgiven the elevation of the Luxemburg family, espoused the interests of Frederic, their head; the Bohemians as naturally opposed them. From the accession of John, the two houses were of necessity hostile; and it was evident that there could be no peace in Germany until one of them was subjected to the other. The Bohemians, indeed, could not hope to place their king on the vacant throne, since their project would have found an insurmountable obstacle in the jealousy of the electors; but they were at least resolved to support the pretensions of a prince hostile to the Austrians. . . . The diet being convoked at Frankfort, the electors repaired thither, but with very different views; for, as their suffrages were already engaged, while the more numerous party proclaimed the duke of Bavaria as Ludovic V., another no less eagerly proclaimed Frederic. Although Ludovic was a member of the Austro-Hapsburg family—his mother being a daughter of Rodolf I.—he had always been the enemy of the Austrian princes, and in the same degree the ally of the Luxemburg faction. The two candidates being respectively crowned kings of the Romans, Ludovic at Aix-la-Chapelle, by the archbishop of Mentz—Frederic at Bonn, by the metropolitan of Cologne, a civil war was inevitable; neither had virtue enough to sacrifice his own rights to the good of the state. . . . The contest would have ended in favour of the Austrians, but for the rashness of Frederic, who, in

September 1322, without waiting for the arrival of his brother Leopold, assailed Ludowic between Mühlendorf and Ettingen in Bavaria. . . . The battle was maintained with equal valour from the rising to the setting sun; and was evidently in favour of the Austrians, when an unexpected charge in flank by a body of cavalry under the margrave of Nuremberg decided the fortune of the day. Heinric of Austria was first taken prisoner; and Frederic himself, who disdained to flee, was soon in the same condition. To his everlasting honour, Ludowic received Frederic with the highest assurances of esteem; and though the latter was conveyed to the strong fortress of Trapnitz, in the Upper Palatinate, he was treated with every indulgence consistent with his safe custody. But the contest was not yet decided; the valiant Leopold was still at the head of a separate force; and pope John XXII., the natural enemy of the Ghibelins, incensed at some succours which Ludowic sent to the party in Lombardy, excommunicated the king of the Romans, and declared him deposed from his dignity. Among the ecclesiastics of the empire this iniquitous sentence had its weight; but had not other events been disastrous to the king, he might have safely despised it. By Leopold he was signally defeated; he had the mortification to see the inconstant king of Bohemia join the party of Austria; and the still heavier misfortune to learn that the ecclesiastical and two or three secular electors were proceeding to another choice—that of Charles de Valois, whose interests were warmly supported by the pope. In this emergency, his only chance of safety was a reconciliation with his enemies; and Frederic was released on condition of his renouncing all claim to the empire. But though Frederic sincerely resolved to fulfil his share of the compact, Leopold and the other princes of his family refused; and their refusal was approved by the pope. With the magnanimity of his character, Frederic, unable to execute the engagements which he had made, voluntarily surrendered himself to his enemy. But Ludowic, who would not be outdone in generosity, received him, not as a prisoner, but a friend. 'They ate,' says a contemporary writer, 'at the same table, slept on the same couch'; and when the King left Bavaria, the administration of that duchy was confided to Frederic. Two such men could not long remain even politically hostile; and by another treaty, it was agreed that they should exercise conjointly the government of the empire. When this arrangement was condemned both by the pope and the electors, Ludowic proposed to take Italy as his seat of government, and leave Germany to Frederic. But the death [1326] of the war-like Leopold—the great support of the Austrian cause—and the continued opposition of the states to any compromise, enabled Ludowic to retain the sceptre of the kingdom; and in 1329, that of Frederic strengthened his party. But his reign was destined to be one of troubles. . . . His open warfare against the head of the church did not much improve his affairs, the . . . pope, in addition to the former sentence, placing all Germany under an interdict. . . . In 1338, the diet of Frankfort issued a declaration for ever memorable in the annals of freedom. That the imperial authority depended on God alone; that the pope had no temporal influence, direct or indirect, within the empire; . . . it concluded by empowering the emperor (Ludowic while in Italy [see ITALY: 1313-1330]) had received the imperial crown from the anti-pope whom he had created in opposition to John

XXII.) to raise, of his own authority, the interdict which, during four years, had oppressed the country. Another diet, held the following year, ratified this bold declaration. . . . But this conduct of the diet was above the comprehension of the . . . [many] who still regarded Ludowic as under the curse of God and the church. . . . Unfortunately for the national independence, Ludowic himself contradicted the tenor of his hitherto spirited conduct, by . . . applications for absolution. They were unsuccessful; and he had the mortification to see the king of Bohemia, who had always acted an unaccountable part, become his bitter enemy. . . . From this moment the fate of Ludowic was decided. In conjunction with the pope and the French king, Charles of Bohemia, who in 1346 succeeded to his father's kingdom and antipathy, commenced a civil war; and in the midst of these troubled scenes the emperor breathed his last [October 11, 1347]. Twelve months before the decease of Ludowic, Charles of Bohemia [son of John, the blind king of Bohemia, who fell, fighting for the French, at the battle of Crécy], assisted by Clement VI., was elected king of the Romans.—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 4.—The reign of Louis was one of the most important in the history of Germany. He labored for internal peace and stability; he befriended the cities and encouraged industry; and above all he struck a death blow to the temporal supremacy of the pope in Germany. To his dominions he added Holland, Zealand, Hainault and Friesland.

ALSO IN: J. I. von Döllinger, *Studies in European history*, ch. 5.—J. C. Robertson, *History of the Christian church*, v. 7, bk. 8, ch. 2.—M. Creighton, *History of the papacy during the period of the Reformation*, introduction, ch. 2.

1347-1493.—Golden Bull of Charles IV.—Luxemburg line of emperors, and the reappearance of the Hapsburgs.—Holy Roman empire as it was at the end of the Middle Ages.—"John king of Bohemia did not himself wear the imperial crown; but three of his descendants possessed it, with less interruption than could have been expected. His son Charles IV. succeeded Louis of Bavaria in 1347; not indeed without opposition, for a double election and a civil war were matters of course in Germany. Charles IV. has been treated with more derision by his contemporaries, and consequently by later writers, than almost any prince in history; yet he was remarkably successful in the only objects that he seriously pursued. Deficient in personal courage, insensible of humiliation, bending without shame to the pope, to the Italians, to the electors, so poor and so little revered as to be arrested by a butcher at Worms for want of paying his demand, Charles IV. affords a proof that a certain dexterity and cold-blooded perseverance may occasionally supply, in a sovereign, the want of more respectable qualities. He has been reproached with neglecting the empire. But he never deigned to trouble himself about the empire, except for his private ends. He did not neglect the kingdom of Bohemia, to which he almost seemed to render Germany a province. Bohemia had been long considered as a fief of the empire, and indeed could pretend to an electoral vote by no other title. Charles, however, gave the states by law the right of choosing a king, on the extinction of the royal family, which seems derogatory to the imperial prerogative [see also BOHEMIA: 1310-1470]. . . . He constantly resided at Prague, where he founded a celebrated university, and embellished the city with buildings.

This kingdom, augmented also during his reign by the acquisition of Silesia, he bequeathed to his son Wenceslaus, for whom, by pliancy towards the electors and the court of Rome, he had procured, against all recent example, the imperial succession. The reign of Charles IV. is distinguished in the constitutional history of the empire by his Golden Bull [1356]; an instrument which finally ascertained the prerogatives of the electoral college [see above: 1125-1272]. The Golden Bull terminated the disputes which had arisen between different members of the same house as to their right of suffrage, which was declared inherent in certain definite territories. The number was absolutely restrained to seven. The place of legal imperial elections was fixed at Frankfort; of coronations, at Aix-la-Chapelle; and the latter ceremony was to be performed by the archbishop of Cologne. These regulations, though consonant to ancient usage, had not always been observed, and their neglect had sometimes excited questions as to the validity of elections. The dignity of elector was enhanced by the Golden Bull as highly as an imperial edict could carry it; they were declared equal to kings, and conspiracy against their persons incurred the penalty of high treason. Many other privileges are granted to render them more completely sovereign within their dominions. It seems extraordinary that Charles should have voluntarily elevated an oligarchy, from whose pretensions his predecessors had frequently suffered injury. But he had more to apprehend from the two great families of Bavaria [Wittelsbach] and Austria [Hapsburg] whom he relatively depressed by giving such a preponderance to the seven electors, than from any members of the college. By his compact with Brandenburg [see BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417] he had a fair prospect of adding a second vote to his own. . . . The next reign, nevertheless evinced the danger of investing the electors with such preponderating authority. Wenceslaus [elected in 1378], a supine and voluptuous man, less respected, and more negligent of Germany, if possible, than his father, was regularly deposed by a majority of the electoral college in 1400. . . . They chose Robert count palatine [Rupert III] instead of Wenceslaus; and though the latter did not cease to have some adherents, Robert has generally been counted among the lawful emperors. Upon his death [1410] the empire returned to the house of Luxemburg; Wenceslaus himself waiving his rights in favour of his brother Sigismund of Hungary." On the death of Sigismund, in 1437, the house of Austria regained the imperial throne, in the person of Albert, duke of Austria, (Albert II) who married Sigismund's only daughter, the queen of Hungary and Bohemia "He died in two years, leaving his wife pregnant with a son, Ladislaus Posthumus, who afterwards reigned in the two kingdoms just mentioned; and the choice of the electors fell upon [the Austrian] Frederic duke of Styria, second-cousin of the last emperor, from whose posterity it never departed, except in a single instance, upon the extinction of his male line in 1740. Frederic III. reigned 53 years [1440-1493], a longer period than any of his predecessors; and his personal character was more insignificant. . . . Frederic, always poor, and scarcely able to protect himself in Austria from the seditions of his subjects, or the inroads of the king of Hungary, was yet another founder of his family, and left their fortunes incomparably more prosperous than at his accession. The marriage of his son Maximilian with the heiress of Burgundy [see NETHERLANDS: 1477] began that

aggrandizement of the house of Austria which Frederic seems to have anticipated. The electors, who had lost a good deal of their former spirit, and were grown sensible of the necessity of choosing a powerful sovereign, made no opposition to Maximilian's becoming king of the Romans in his father's lifetime."—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 5.—"It is important to remark that, for more than a century after Charles IV. had fixed his seat in Bohemia, no emperor appeared, endowed with the vigour necessary to uphold and govern the empire. The bare fact that Charles's successor, Wenceslas, was a prisoner in the hands of the Bohemians, remained for a long time unknown in Germany; a simple decree of the electors sufficed to dethrone him. Rupert the Palatine only escaped a similar fate by death. When Sigismund of Luxemburg, (who, after many disputed elections, kept possession of the field,) four years after his election, entered the territory of the empire of which he was to be crowned sovereign, he found so little sympathy that he was for a moment inclined to return to Hungary without accomplishing the object of his journey. The active part he took in the affairs of Bohemia, and of Europe generally, has given him a name; but in and for the empire, he did nothing worthy of note. Between the years 1422 and 1430 he never made his appearance beyond Vienna; from the autumn of 1431 to that of 1433 he was occupied with his coronation journey to Rome; and during the three years from 1434 to his death he never got beyond Bohemia and Moravia; nor did Albert II., who has been the subject of such lavish eulogy, ever visit the dominions of the empire. Frederic III., however, far outdid all his predecessors. During seven-and-twenty years, from 1444 to 1471, he was never seen within the boundaries of the empire. Hence it happened that the central action and the visible manifestation of sovereignty, in as far as any such existed in the empire, fell to the share of the princes, and more especially of the prince-electors. In the reign of Sigismund we find them convoking the diets, and leading the armies into the field against the Hussites; the operations against the Bohemians were attributed entirely to them. In this manner the empire became, like the papacy, a power which acted from a distance, and rested chiefly upon opinion. . . . The emperor was regarded, in the first place, as the supreme feudal lord, who conferred on property its highest and most sacred sanction. . . . Although he was regarded as the head and source of all temporal jurisdiction, yet no tribunal found more doubtful obedience than his own. The fact that royalty existed in Germany had almost been suffered to fall into oblivion; even the title had been lost. Henry VII. thought it an affront to be called King of Germany, and not, as he had a right to be called before any ceremony of coronation, King of the Romans. In the 15th century the emperor was regarded pre-eminently as the successor of the ancient Roman Cæsars, whose rights and dignities had been transferred, first to the Greeks, and then to the Germans in the persons of Charlemagne and O'ho the Great; as the true secular head of Christendom. . . . The opinion was confidently entertained in Germany that the other sovereigns of Christendom, especially those of England, Spain, and France, were legally subject to the crown of the empire: the only controversy was, whether their disobedience was venial, or ought to be regarded as sinful."—L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, pp. 52-56.—See also AUSTRIA: 1330-1364, to 1477-1495.

ALSO IN: R. Comyn, *History of the Western empire*, v. 1, ch. 24.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 2, no. 10.

1363-1364.—Tyrol acquired by the House of Austria, with the reversion of the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

1374.—Dancing mania. See DANCING MANIA.

1378.—Final surrender of the Arelate to France. See BURGUNDY: 1127-1378.

1386-1388.—Defeat of the Austrians by the Swiss at Sempach and Naefels. See SWITZERLAND: 1386-1388.

15th century.—Revival of learning.—Educational status. See EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Relation of Renaissance and Reformation; Netherlands.

1405-1434.—Bohemian Reformation and the Hussite wars. See BOHEMIA: 1405-1415; 1419-1434.

1414-1418.—Failure of demands for Church reform in the Council of Constance. See PAPACY: 1414-1418.

1417.—Electorate of Brandenburg conferred on the Hohenzollerns.—“The March of Brandenburg is one of those districts which was first peopled by the advance of the German nation towards the east during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It was in the beginning, like Silesia, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Prussia, and Livonia, a German colony settled upon an almost uncultivated soil; from the very first, however, it seems to have given the greatest promise of vigour. . . . Possession was taken of the soil upon the ground of the rights of the princely Ascanian house—we know not whether these rights were founded upon inheritance, purchase, or cession. The process of occupation was so gradual that the institutions of the old German provinces, like those constituting the northern march, had time to take firm root in the newly-acquired territory; and owing to the constant necessity for unsheathing the sword, the colonists acquired warlike habits which tended to give them spirit and energy. . . . The Ascanians were a warlike but cultivated race, incessantly acquiring new possessions, but generous and openhanded; and new life followed in their footsteps. They soon took up an important political position among the German princely houses: their possessions extended over a great part of Thuringia, Moravia, Lausitz, and Silesia; the electoral dignity which they assumed gave to them and to their country a high rank in the Empire. In the Neumark and in Pomerellen the Poles retreated before them, and on the Pomeranian coasts they protected the towns founded by the Teutonic order from the invasion of the Danes. It has been asked whether this race might not have greatly extended its power; but they were not destined even to make the attempt. It is said that at the beginning of the fourteenth century nineteen members of this family were assembled on the Margrave's Hill near Rathenau. In the year 1320, of all these not one remained, or had even left an heir. . . . In Brandenburg . . . it really appeared as if the extinction of the ruling family would entail ruin upon the country. It had formed a close alliance with the imperial power—which at that moment was the subject of contention between the two great families of Wittelsbach and Luxemburg—was involved in the quarrels of those two races, injured by all their alternations of fortune, and sacrificed to their domestic and foreign policy, which was totally at variance with the interests of Brandenburg. At the very beginning of the struggle the March of Brandenburg lost its

dependencies. . . . At length the Emperor Sigismund, the last of the house of Luxemburg, found himself so fully occupied with the disturbances in the Empire and the dissensions in the Church, that he could no longer maintain his power in the March, and intrusted the task to his friend and relation, Frederick, Burgrave of Nürnberg, to whom he lay under very great obligations, and who had assisted him with money at his need.

. . . It was a great point gained, after so long a period of anarchy, to find a powerful and prudent prince ready to undertake the government of the province. He could do nothing in the open field against the revolted nobles, but he assailed and vanquished them in their hitherto impregnable strong-holds surrounded with walls fifteen feet thick, which he demolished with his clumsy but effective artillery. In a few years he had so far succeeded that he was able to proclaim a Landfriede, or public peace, according to which each and every one who was an enemy to him, or to those comprehended in the peace, was considered and treated as the enemy of all. But the effect of all this would have been but transient, had not the Emperor, who had no son, and who was won by Frederick's numerous services and by his talents for action, made the Electorate hereditary in his family. . . . The most important day in the history of the March of Brandenburg and the family of Zollern was the 18th of April, 1417, when in the market-place of Constance the Emperor Sigismund formally invested the Burgrave with the dignity of Elector, placed in his hands the flag with the arms of the March and received from him the oath of allegiance. From this moment a prospect was afforded to the territory of Brandenburg of recovering its former prosperity and increasing its importance, while to the house of Zollern a career of glory and usefulness was opened worthy of powers which were thus called into action.”—L. von Ranke, *Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg*, bk. 1, ch. 2.—See also BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417; HOHENZOLLERN, HOUSE OF.

1442-1458.—Troubles of Frederick during minority of Ladislaus.—Questions of Hungarian succession. See HUNGARY: 1442-1458.

1450-1489.—Development of printing.—Gutenberg's presses. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century; 1457-1489.

1467-1471.—Crusade against George Podiebrad, king of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1458-1471.

1467-1477.—Relations of Charles the Bold of Burgundy to the empire. See BURGUNDY: 1467; 1467-1468; 1476-1477.

1471-1487.—War with Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1471-1487.

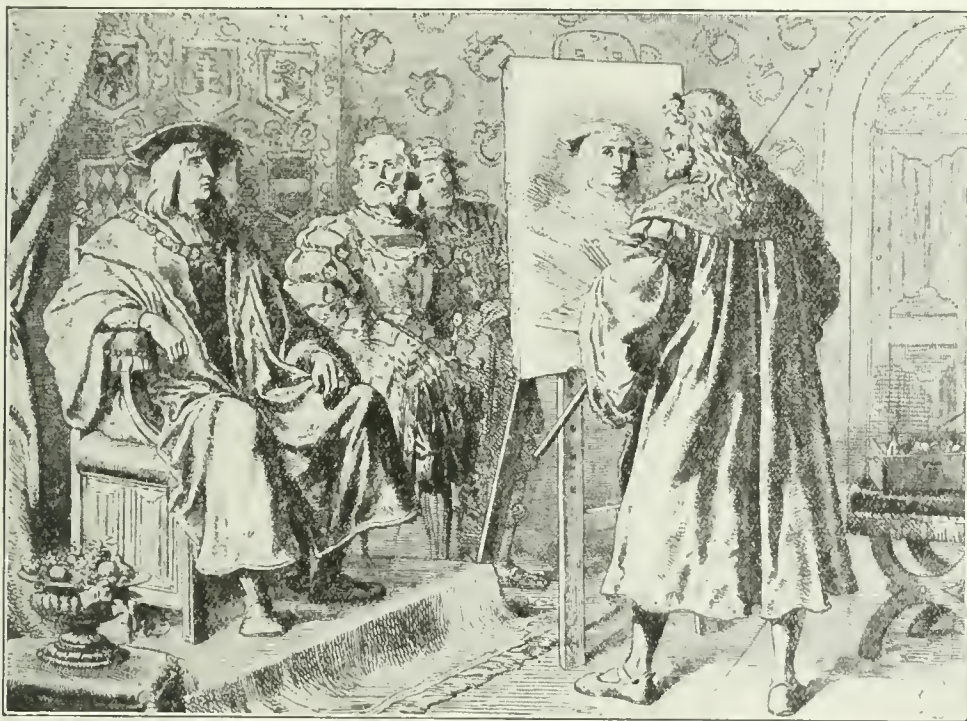
1477-1495.—Reign of Maximilian in Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1477-1495.

1490-1526.—Treaty of succession between Austria and Hungary.—Union of Crowns of Hungary and Bohemia. See HUNGARY: 1487-1526.

1492-1514.—Bundschuh insurrections of the peasantry.—Several risings of the German peasantry, in the later part of the fifteenth and early part of the sixteenth century, were named from the Bundschuh, or peasants' clog, which the insurgents bore as their emblem or pictured on their banners. “While the peasants in the Rhetian Alps were gradually throwing off the yoke of the nobles and forming the ‘Graubund’ [see SWITZERLAND: 1396-1499], a struggle was going on between the neighbouring peasantry of Kempten (to the east of Lake Constance) and their feudal lord, the Abbot of Kempten. It began in 1423, and came to

an open rebellion in 1402. It was a rebellion against new demands not sanctioned by ancient custom, and though it was crushed, and ended in little good to the peasantry (many of whom fled into Switzerland), yet it is worthy of note because in it for the first time appears the banner of the Bundschuh. The next rising was in Elsass (Alsace), in 1493, the peasants finding allies in the burghers of the towns along the Rhine, who had their own grievances. The Bundschuh was again their banner, and it was to Switzerland that their anxious eyes were turned for help. The movement also was prematurely discovered and put down. Then, in 1501, other peasants, close neighbours to those of Kempten, caught the infection, and in 1502, again in Elsass, but this time further north, in the region about Speyer and the Neckar, lower down the Rhine, nearer Franconia,

schuh banner was furled, but only for a while. In 1512 and 1513, on the east side of the Rhine, in the Black Forest and the neighbouring districts of Würtemberg, the movement was again on foot on a still larger scale. It had found a leader in Joss Fritz. A soldier, with commanding presence and great natural eloquence, . . . he bided his time. . . . Again the League was betrayed . . . and Joss Fritz, with the banner under his clothes, had to fly for his life to Switzerland. . . . He returned after a while to the Black Forest, went about his secret errands, and again bided his time. In 1514 the peasantry of the Duke Ulrich of Würtemberg rose to resist the tyranny of their lord [in a combination called 'the League of Poor Conrad']. . . . The same year, in the valleys of the Austrian Alps, in Carinthia, Styria, and Crain, similar risings of the peasantry took place, all of



EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN I AND ALBERT DÜRER

the Bundschuh was raised again. It numbered on its recruit rolls many thousands of peasants from the country round, along the Neckar and the Rhine. The wild notion was to rise in arms, to make themselves free, like the Swiss, by the sword, to acknowledge no superior but the Emperor, and all Germany was to join the League. They were to pay no taxes or dues, and commons, forests, and rivers were to be free to all. Here, again, they mixed up religion with their demands, and 'Only what is just before God' was the motto on the banner of the Bundschuh. They, too, were betrayed, and in savage triumph the Emperor Maximilian ordered their property to be confiscated, their wives and children to be banished, and themselves to be quartered alive. . . . Few . . . really fell victims to this cruel order of the Emperor. The ringleaders dispersed, fleeing some into Switzerland and some into the Black Forest. For ten years now there was silence. The Bund-

them ending in the triumph of the nobles."—F. Seebohm, *Era of the Protestant Revolution*, pt. 1, ch. 4.—See also below: 1524-1525.

1493.—Maximilian I becomes emperor.

1493-1519.—Reign of Maximilian.—His personal importance and his imperial powerlessness.—Constitutional reforms in the empire.—Imperial chamber.—Circles.—Aulic Council.—"Frederic [the Third] died in 1493, after a protracted and inglorious reign of 53 years. . . . On the death of his father, Maximilian had been seven years king of the Romans; and his accession to the imperial crown encountered no opposition. . . . Scarcely had he ascended the throne, when Charles VIII., king of France, passed through the Milanese into the south of Italy, and seized on Naples without opposition [see ITALY: 1494-1496]. Maximilian endeavoured to rouse the German nation to a sense of its danger, but in vain. . . . With difficulty he was able to despatch 3,000 men

to aid the league, which Spain, the pope, the Milanese, and the Venetians had formed, to expel the ambitious intruders from Italy. To cement his alliance with Fernando [Ferdinand of Castile, Aragon, Naples, etc.] the Catholic, he married his son Philip to Juana, the daughter of the Spaniard. The confederacy triumphed; not through the efforts of Maximilian, but through the hatred of the Italians to the Gallic yoke. . . . Louis XII., who succeeded to Charles (1498), . . . forced Philip to do homage for Flanders; surrendering, indeed, three inconsiderable towns, that he might be at liberty to renew the designs of his house on Lombardy and Naples. . . . The French had little difficulty in expelling Ludovico Moro, the usurper of Milan, and in retaining possession of the country during the latter part of Maximilian's reign [see ITALY: 1499-1500]. Louis, indeed, did homage for the duchy to the Germanic head; but such homage was merely nominal: it involved no tribute, no dependence. The occupation of this fine province by the French made no impression on the Germans; they regarded it as a fief of the house of Austria, not of the empire; but even if it had stood in the latter relation, they would not have moved one man, or voted one florin, to avert its fate. That the French did not obtain similar possession of Naples, and thereby become enabled to oppose Maximilian with greater effect, was owing to the valour of the Spanish troops, who retained the crown in the house of Aragon. [After Charles of Anjou had seized Sicily and Naples from the Hohenstaufens the family gradually lost power. Sicily was joined to the kingdom of Aragon in 1282, and in 1435 upon the extinction of the house of Anjou Naples was conquered by the king of Aragon.] His disputes with the Venetians were inglorious to his arms; they defeated his armies, and encroached considerably on his Italian possessions. He was equally unsuccessful with the Swiss, whom he vainly persuaded to acknowledge the supremacy of his house. . . . For many of his failures . . . he is not to be blamed. To carry on his vast enterprises he could command only the resources of Austria; had he been able to wield those of the empire, his name would have been more formidable to his enemies; and it is no slight praise, that with means so contracted he could preserve the Netherlands against the open violence, no less than the subtle duplicity, of France. But the internal transactions of Maximilian's reign are those only to which the attention of the reader can be directed with pleasure. In 1495 we witness the entire abolition of the right of diffidation [private warfare—see LAND-FRIEDE]—a right which from time immemorial had been the curse of the empire. . . . The passing of the decree which for ever secured the public peace, by placing under the ban of the empire, and fining at 2,000 marks in gold, every city, every individual that should hereafter send or accept a defiance, was nearly unanimous. In regard to the long-proposed tribunal [to take cognizance of all violations of the public tranquillity], which was to retain the name of the Imperial chamber [*Reichskammergericht*]; Maximilian relaxed much from the pretensions of his father. . . . It was solemnly decreed that the new court should consist of one grand judge, and of 16 assessors, who were presented by the states, and nominated by the emperor. . . . Though a new tribunal was formed, its competency, its operation, its support, its constitution, the enforcement of its decisions, were left to chance; and many successive diets—even many generations—were passed before anything like an organised system could be

introduced into it. For the execution of its decrees the Swabian league was soon employed; then another new authority, the Council of Regency. . . . But these authorities were insufficient to enforce the execution of the decrees emanating from the chamber; and it was found necessary to restore the proposition of the circles [districts or divisions of Germany for the apportionment of members to the *Reichsregiment*, or administrative council], which had been agitated in the reign of Albert II. . . . Originally they comprised only—1. Bavaria, 2. Franconia, 3. Saxony, 4. the Rhine, 5. Swabia, and 6. Westphalia; thus excluding the states of Austria and the electorates. But this exclusion was the voluntary act of the electors, who were jealous of a tribunal which might encroach on their own privileges. In 1512, however, the opposition of most appears to have been removed; for four new circles were added. 7. The circle of Austria comprised the hereditary dominions of that house. 8. That of Burgundy contained the states inherited from Charles the Rash in Franche-Comté and the Netherlands. 9. That of the Lower Rhine comprehended the three ecclesiastical electorates and the Palatinate. 10. That of Upper Saxony extended over the electorate of that name and the march of Brandenburg. . . . Bohemia and Prussia . . . refused to be thus partitioned. Each of these circles had its internal organisations, the elements of which were promulgated in 1512, but which was considerably improved by succeeding diets. Each had its hereditary president, or director, and its hereditary prince convoker, both offices being frequently vested in the same individual. . . . Each circle had its military chief, elected by the local states, whose duty it was to execute the decrees of the Imperial Chamber. Generally this office was held by the prince director. . . . The establishment of the Imperial Chamber was . . . disagreeable to the emperor. To rescue from its jurisdiction such causes as he considered lay more peculiarly within the range of his prerogative, and to encroach by degrees on the jurisdiction of this odious tribunal, Maximilian, in 1501, laid the foundation of the celebrated Aulic Council. But the competency of this tribunal was soon extended; from political affairs, investitures, charters, and the numerous matters which concerned the Imperial chancery, it immediately passed to judicial crimes. . . . By an imperial edict of 1518, the Aulic Council was to consist of 18 members, all nominated by the emperor. Five only were to be chosen from the states of the empire, the rest from those of Austria. About half were legists, the other half nobles, but all dependent on their chief. . . . When he [Maximilian] laboured to make this council as arbitrary in the empire as in Austria, he met with great opposition. . . . But his purpose was that of encroachment no less than of defence; and his example was so well imitated by his successors, that in most cases the Aulic Council was at length acknowledged to have a concurrent jurisdiction with the Imperial Chamber, in many the right of prevention over its rival."—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.—"The received opinion which recognises in [Maximilian] the creative founder of the later constitution of the empire, must be abandoned. . . . He had not the power of keeping the princes of the empire together; . . . on the contrary, everything about him split into parties. It followed of necessity that abroad he rather lost than gained ground. . . . The glory which surrounds the memory of Maximilian, the high renown which he enjoyed even among his contemporaries, were therefore not won



MARTIN LUTHER BURNING THE PAPAL BULL  
At Wittenberg, Dec. 10, 1520





by the success of his enterprises, but by his personal qualities. Every good gift of nature had been lavished upon him in profusion. . . . He was a man . . . formed to excite admiration, and to inspire enthusiastic attachment; formed to be the romantic hero, the exhaustless theme of the people."—L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, pp. 379-381.—See also AUSTRIA: 1477-1495.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Latin and Teutonic nations from 1494 to 1514*, bk. 1, ch. 3, bk. 2, ch. 2.

1496-1499.—Swabian War.—Practical separation of the Swiss confederacy from the empire. See SWITZERLAND: 1306-1409.

16th century.—Temporary occupation of Venezuela country by merchants. See VENEZUELA: 1499-1550.

16th century.—Educational development.—Influence of Luther, Melanchthon, Sturm. See EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Luther, etc.; Melanchthon, etc.; Sturm, etc.; Schools in Germany.

1508-1509.—League of Cambrai against Venice. See VENICE: 1508-1509.

1513-1515.—Emperor in the pay of England.—Peace with France. See FRANCE: 1513-1515.

1516.—Abortive invasion of Milan by Maximilian. See FRANCE: 1516-1517.

1517-1523.—Beginning of the movement of religious reformation.—Papal indulgences, and Luther's attack on them.—"The Reformation, like all other great social convulsions, was long in preparation [see PAPACY: 15th-16th centuries]. It was one part of that general progress, complex in its character, which marked the . . . period of transition from the Middle Ages to modern civilization. . . . But while the Reformation was one part of a change extending over the whole sphere of human knowledge and activity, it had its own specific origin and significance. These are still, to some extent, a subject of controversy. . . . One of its causes, as well as one of the sources of its great power, was the increasing discontent with the prevailing corruption and misgovernment in the Church, and with papal interference in civil affairs. . . . The misconduct of the popes in the last half of the fifteenth century was not more flagrant than that of their predecessors in the tenth century. But the fifteenth century was an age of light. What was done by the pontiffs was not done in a corner, but under the eyes of all Europe. Besides, there was now a deep-seated craving, especially in the Teutonic peoples, who had so long been under the tutelage of a legal, judaizing form of Christianity, for a more spiritual type of religion. . . . The Reformation may be viewed in two aspects. On the one hand it is a religious revolution affecting the beliefs, the rites, the ecclesiastical organization of the Church, and the form of Christian life. On the other hand, it is a great movement in which sovereigns and nations are involved; the occasion of wars and treaties; the close of an old, and the introduction of a new, period in the history of culture and civilization. Germany, including the Netherlands and Switzerland, was the stronghold of the Reformation. It was natural that such a movement should spring up and rise to its highest power among a people in whom a love of independence was mingled with a yearning for a more spiritual form of religion than was encouraged by mediæval ecclesiasticism. Hegel has dwelt with eloquence upon the fact that while the rest of the world was gone out to America or to the Indies, in quest of riches and a dominion that should encircle the

globe, a simple monk, turning away from empty forms and the things of sense, was finding him whom the disciples once sought in a sepulchre of stone. Unquestionably the hero of the Reformation was Martin Luther. . . . As an English writer has pointed out, Luther's whole nature was identified with his great work, and while other leaders, like Melanchthon and even Calvin, can be separated in thought from the Reformation, 'Luther, apart from the Reformation, would cease to be Luther.' . . . In 1517 John Tetzel, a hawker of indulgences, the proceeds of which were to help pay for the building of St. Peter's Church, appeared in the neighborhood of Wittenberg. To persuade the people to buy his 'spiritual wares, he told them, as Luther himself testifies, that as soon as their money clinked in the bottom of the chest the souls of their deceased friends forthwith went up to heaven. Luther was so struck with the enormity of this traffic that he determined to stop it. He preached against it, and on October 31, 1517, he



PHILIPPE MELANCHTHON

(Sketch by Hans Holbein the Younger)

posted on the door of the Church of All Saints, at Wittenberg, his ninety-five theses [see PAPACY: 1517], relating to the doctrine and practice of selling indulgences. Indulgences . . . were at first commutations of penance by the payment of money. The right to issue them had gradually become the exclusive prerogative of the popes. The eternal punishment of mortal sin being remitted or commuted by the absolution of the priest, it was open to the pope or his agents, by a grant of indulgences, to remove the temporal or terminable penalties, which might extend into purgatory. For the benefit of the needy he could draw upon the treasury of merit stored up by Christ and the saints. Although it was expressly declared by Pope Sixtus IV., that souls are delivered from purgatorial fires in a way analogous to the efficacy of prayer, and although contrition was theoretically required of the recipient of an indulgence, it often appeared to the people as a simple bargain, according to which, on payment of a stipulated sum, the individual obtained a full discharge from the penalties of sin, or procured the release of a soul from the flames. Luther's theses assailed the doctrines which made this bane-

ful traffic possible. . . . Unconsciously to their author, they struck a blow at the authority of Rome and of the priesthood. Luther had no thought of throwing off his allegiance to the Roman Church. Even his theses were only propositions, propounded for academic debate, according to the custom in mediæval universities. He concluded them with the solemn declaration that he affirmed nothing, but left all to the judgment of the Church. . . . The theses stirred up a commotion all over Germany. . . . A controversy arose between the new champion of reform and the defenders of indulgences. It was during this dispute that Luther began to realize that human authority was against him and to see the necessity of planting himself more distinctly on the Scriptures. His clear arguments and resolute attitude won the respect of the Elector of Saxony, who, though he often sought to restrain his vehemence, nevertheless protected him from his enemies. This the elector was able to do because of his political importance, which became still greater when, after the death of Maximilian, he was made regent of Northern Germany."—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Christian Church*, pp. 287-293.—"At first neither Luther, nor others, saw to what the contest about the indulgences would lead. The Humanists believed it to be only a scholastic disputation, and Hutten laughed to see theologians engaged in a fight with each other. It was not till the Leipzig disputation (1519), where Luther stood forward to defend his views against Eck, that the matter assumed a grave aspect, took another turn, and after the appearance of Luther's appeals 'To the Christian Nobility of the German Nation,' 'On the Babylonian Captivity,' and against Church abuses, that it assumed national importance. All the combustible materials were ready, the spark was thrown among them, and the flames broke out from every quarter. Hundreds of thousands of German hearts glowed responsive to the complaints which the Wittenberg monk flung against Papal Rome, in a language whose sonorous splendour and iron strength were now first heard in all the fulness, force, and beauty of the German idiom. That was an imperishable service rendered to his country by Luther. He wrote in German, and he wrote such German. The papal ban hurled back against him in 1520 was disregarded. He burnt it outside the gate of Wittenberg by the leper hospital, in the place where the rags and plague-stained garments of the lepers were wont to be consumed. The nobility, the burghers, the peasants, all thrilled at his call. Now the moment had come for a great emperor, a second Charlemagne, to stand forward and regenerate at once religion and the empire. There was, however, at the head of the state, only Charles V., the grandson of Maximilian, a man weak where he ought to have been strong, and strong where he ought to have been weak, a Spanish Burgundian prince, of Romance stock, who despised and disliked the German tongue, the tongue of the people whose imperial crown he bore, a prince whose policy was to combat France and humble it. It was convenient for him, at the time, to have the pope on his side, so he looked with dissatisfied eyes on the agitation in Germany. The noblest hearts among the princes bounded with hope that he would take the lead in the new movement. The lesser nobility, the cities, the peasantry, all expected of the emperor a reformation of the empire politically and religiously. . . . But all hopes were dashed. Charles V. as little saw his occasion as had Maximilian. He took up a hostile position to the new movement at once.

He was, however, brought by the influential friends of Luther, among whom first of all was the Elector of Saxony, to hear what the reformer had to say for himself, before he placed him under the ban of the empire. Luther received the imperial safe-conduct, and was summoned to the Diet of Worms, there to defend himself. He went, notwithstanding that he was warned and reminded of the fate of Huss. 'I will go to Worms,' said he, 'even were as many devils set against me as there are tiles on the roofs.' It was probably on this journey that the thoughts entered his mind which afterwards (1530) found their expression in that famous chorale, 'Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott,' which became the battle-song of Protestants. Those were memorable days, the 17th and 18th of April, 1521, in which a poor monk stood up before the emperor and all the estates of the empire, undazzled by their threatening splendour, and conducted his own case. At that moment when he closed his defence with the stirring words, 'Let me be contradicted out of Holy Scripture—till that is done I will not recant. Here stand I. I can do no other, so help me God, amen!' then he had reached the pinnacle of his greatness. The result is well known. The emperor and his papal adviser remained unmoved, and the ban was pronounced against the heretic. Luther was carried off by his protector, the Elector of Saxony, and concealed in the Wartburg, where he worked at his translation of the Bible. . . . Brandenburg, Hesse, and Saxony declared in favour of reform. In 1523 Magdeburg, Wismar, Rostock, Stettin, Danzig, Riga, expelled the monks and priests, and appointed Lutheran preachers. Nürnberg and Breslau hailed the Reformation with delight."—S. Baring-Gould, *Church in Germany*, ch. 18.—See also PAPACY: 1516-1517, to 1522-1525.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*.—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*.—J. H. Merle d'Aubigné, *History of the Reformation*.—M. J. Spaulding, *History of the Protestant Reformation*.—F. Seeböhm, *Era of the Protestant revolution*.—P. Bayne, *Martin Luther*.—C. Beard, *Martin Luther and the Reformation*.—J. Köstlin, *Life of Luther*.—Cambridge modern history, v. 2.—J. Janssen, *History of the German people*.

1519.—Contest for the imperial crown.—Three royal candidates in the field.—Election of Charles V, the Austro-Spanish monarch of many thrones.—In his last years, Maximilian made great efforts to secure the Imperial Crown for his grandson Charles, who had already inherited, through his mother Joanna, of Spain, the kingdoms of Castile, Aragon, and the Two Sicilies, and through his father, Philip of Austria, the duchy of Burgundy and the many lordships of the Netherlands. "In 1518 he obtained the consent of the majority of the electors to the Roman crown being bestowed on that prince. The electors of Trèves and Saxony alone opposed the project, on the ground that, as Maximilian had never received the Imperial crown [but was styled Emperor Elect] he was himself still King of the Romans, and that consequently Charles could not assume a dignity that was not vacant. To obviate this objection, Maximilian pressed Leo to send the golden crown to Vienna; but this plan was defeated by the intrigues of the French court. Francis, who intended to become a candidate for the Imperial crown, intreated the Pope not to commit himself by such an act; and while these negotiations were pending, Maximilian died at Wels, in Upper Austria, January 12th, 1519. . . . Three candidates for the Imperial crown appeared

in the field: the Kings of Spain, France, and England. Francis I [of France] was now at the height of his reputation. His enterprises had hitherto been crowned with success, the popular test of ability, and the world accordingly gave him credit for a political wisdom which he was

accommodated. But the bought votes of these venal Electors could not be depended on, some of whom sold themselves more than once to different parties.\* The infamy of Albert, Elector of Mentz, in these transactions, was particularly notorious. The chances of Henry VIII. [of England]



#### INTERCEPTION OF LUTHER

After the Diet of Worms, in 1521, by retainers of the Elector of Saxony  
(From a painting by Count von Harach)

far from possessing. He appears to have gained three or four of the Electors by the lavish distribution of his money, which his agent, Bonnivet, was obliged to carry through Germany on the backs of horses; for the Fuggers, the rich bankers of Augsburg, were in the interest of Charles, and refused to give the French any

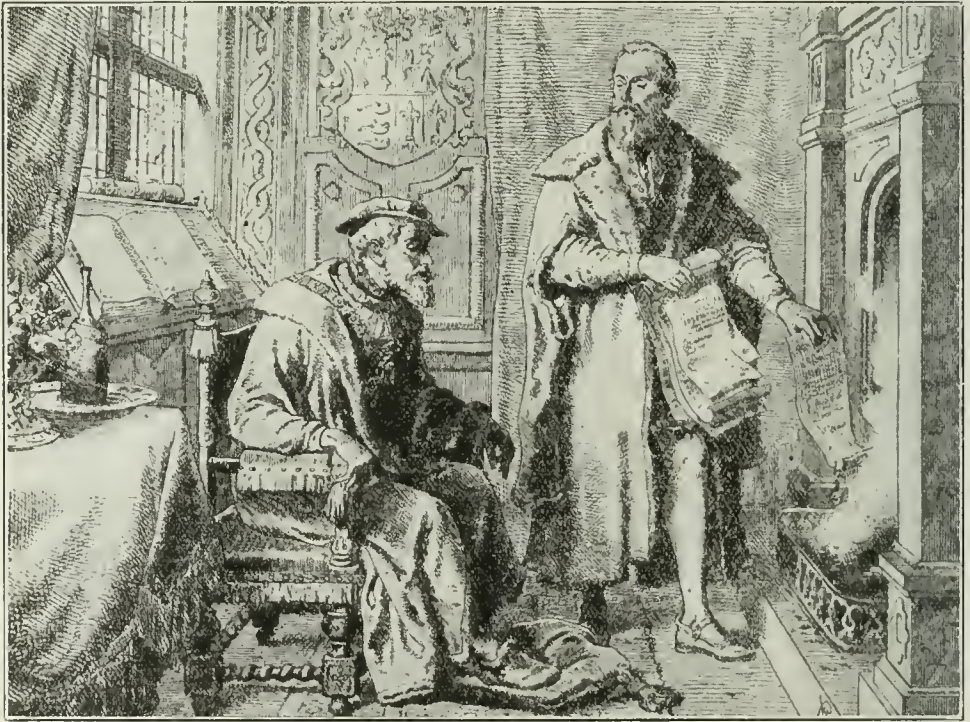
were throughout but slender. Henry's hopes, like those of Francis, were chiefly founded on the corruptibility of the Electors, and on the expectation that both his rivals, from the very magnitude of their power, might be deemed ineligible. Of the three candidates the claims of Charles seemed the best founded and the most deserving

of success. The House of Austria had already furnished six emperors, of whom the last three had reigned eighty years, as if by an hereditary succession. Charles's Austrian possessions made him a German prince, and from their situation constituted him the natural protector of Germany against the Turks. The previous canvass of Maximilian had been of some service to his cause, and all these advantages he seconded, like his competitors, by the free use of bribery. . . . Leo X., the weight of whose authority was sought both by Charles and Francis, though he seemed to favour each, desired the success of neither. He secretly advised the Electors to choose an emperor from among their own body; and as this seemed an easy solution of the difficulty, they unanimously offered the crown to Frederick the Wise, Elector

House of Austria was continued through him; while Charles himself became the founder of a new branch of the House—the Spanish.—See also AUSTRIA: 1406-1526; SPAIN: 1518-1522.

ALSO IN: W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V*, bk. 1.—J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII*, v. 1, ch. 11.—J. Van Praet, *Essays on the political history of the fifteenth to seventeenth centuries*, v. 1, ch. 2.

1520-1521.—Capitulation of Charles V.—His first diet, at Worms, and its political measures.—The election of Charles V “was accompanied with a new and essential alteration in the constitution of the empire. Hitherto a general and verbal promise to confirm the Germanic privileges had been deemed a sufficient security; but as the enormous power and vast possessions of the new



CHARLES V AND FUGGER

During the Diet of Augsburg, the Emperor Charles V was guest of Anton Fugger at his house in the Weinmarkt, where, it is said, Fugger lit a fire of cinnamon with bonds for money due him by the emperor.

of Saxony. But Frederick magnanimously refused it, and succeeded in uniting the suffrages of the Electors in favour of Charles; principally on the ground that he was the sovereign best qualified to meet the great danger impending from the Turk. . . . The new Emperor, now in his 20th year, assumed the title of Charles V. . . . He was proclaimed as 'Emperor Elect,' the title borne by his grandfather, which he subsequently altered to that of 'Emperor Elect of the Romans,' a designation adopted by his successors, with the omission of the word 'elect,' down to the dissolution of the empire."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2.—On his election to the Imperial throne, Charles ceded to his younger brother, Ferdinand, all the German possessions of the family. The latter, therefore, became Archduke of Austria, and the German branch of the

emperor rendered him the object of greater jealousy and alarm than his predecessors, the electors digested into a formal deed or capitulation all their laws, customs, and privileges, which the ambassadors of Charles signed before his election, and which he himself ratified before his coronation; and this example has been followed by his successors. It consisted of 30 articles, partly relating to the Germanic body in general, and partly to the electors and states in particular. Of those relating to the Germanic body in general, the most prominent were, not to confer the escheated fiefs, but to re-unite and consolidate them, for the benefit of the emperor and empire; not to intrust the charges of the empire to any but Germans; not to grant dispensations of the common law; to use the German language in the proceedings of the chancery; and to put no one

arbitrarily to the ban, who had not been previously condemned by the diet or imperial chamber. He was to maintain the Germanic body in the exercise of its legislative powers, in its right of declaring war and making peace, of passing laws on commerce and coinage, of regulating the contingents, imposing and directing the perception of ordinary contributions, of establishing and superintending the superior tribunals, and of judging the personal causes of the states. Finally, he promised not to cite the members of the Germanic body before any tribunal except those of the empire, and to maintain them in their legitimate privileges of territorial sovereignty. The articles which regarded the electors were of the utmost importance, because they confirmed the rights which had been long contested with the emperors. . . . Besides these concessions, he promised not to make any attempt to render the imperial crown hereditary in his family, and to re-establish the council of regency, in conformity with the advice of the electors and great princes of the empire. On the 6th of January, 1521, Charles assembled his first diet at Worms, where he presided in person. At his proposition the states passed regulations to terminate the troubles which had already arisen during the short interval of the interregnum, and to prevent the revival of similar disorders. . . . The imperial chamber was re-established in all its authority, and the public peace again promulgated, and enforced by new penalties. In order to direct the affairs of the empire during the absence of Charles, a council of regency was established. . . . It was to consist of a lieutenant-general, appointed by the emperor, and 22 assessors, of whom 18 were nominated by the states, and four by Charles, as possessor of the circles of Burgundy and Austria. . . . At the same time an aid of 20,000 foot and 4,000 horse was granted, to accompany the emperor in his expedition to Rome; but the diet endeavoured to prevent him from interfering, as Maximilian had done, in the affairs of Italy, by stipulating that these troops were only to be employed as an escort, and not for the purpose of aggression."—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 1, ch. 26.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 4.

1522-1525.—Systematic organization and adoption in northern Germany of the Lutheran Reformation.—Diets at Nuremberg.—Catholic League of Ratisbon. See PAPACY: 1522-1525.

1524-1525.—Peasants' War.—"A political ferment, very different from that produced by the Gospel, had long been troubling the empire. The people, weighed down under civil and ecclesiastical oppression, attached in many places to the lands belonging to the lords, and sold with them, threatened to rise, and furiously burst their chains. In Holland, at the end of the preceding century, the peasants had mustered around standards inscribed with the words 'bread' and 'cheese,' to them the two necessaries of life. In 1503 the 'Cobblers' League' ['Bundschuh'—see above: 1492-1514] had burst forth in the neighbourhood of Spire. In 1513 this was renewed in Brisgau, and encouraged by the priests. In 1514 Wurtemberg had witnessed 'the League of poor Conrad,' the object of which was to uphold 'the justice of God' by revolt. In 1515 terrible commotions had taken place in Carinthia and Hungary. These insurrections were stifled by torrents of blood, but no relief had been given to the peoples. A political reform was as much wanted as a religious one. The people had a right to it, but they were not ripe to enjoy it. Since the commencement of the

Reformation—these popular agitations had been suspended, the minds of men being absorbed with other thoughts. . . . But everything showed that peace would not last long. . . . The main dykes which had hitherto kept the torrent back were broken, and nothing could restrain its fury. Perhaps it must be admitted that the movement communicated to the people by the Reform gave new force to the discontent which was fermenting in the nation. . . . Erasmus did not hesitate to say to Luther: 'We are now reaping the fruits of the seed you have sown.' . . . The evil was augmented by the pretensions of certain fanatical men, who laid claim to celestial inspirations. . . . The most distinguished of these enthusiasts was Thomas Münzer. . . . His first appearance was at Zwickau. He left Wittenberg after Luther's return [from his concealment at Wartburg, 1522], dissatisfied with the inferior part he had played, and he became pastor of the little town of Alstadt in Thuringia. There he could not long be at rest, and he accused the reformers of founding a new papacy by their attachment to the letter, and of forming churches which were not pure and holy. He regarded himself as called of God to bear a remedy for so great an evil. . . . He maintained that to obey princes, 'destitute of reason,' was to serve God and Belial at the same time. Then, marching at the head of his parishioners, to a chapel which was visited by pilgrims from all quarters, he pulled it to the ground. After this exploit he was obliged to quit the country, wandered over Germany, and came to Switzerland, spreading as he went, wherever people would hear him, his plan for a universal revolution. In every place he found elements ready for his purpose. He threw his powder upon the burning coals, and a violent explosion soon followed. . . . The revolt commenced in those regions of the Black Forest, and the sources of the Danube, which were so often the scene of popular disturbances. On the 19th of July, 1524, the Thurgovian peasantry rose against the Abbot of Reichenau, who would not grant them an evangelical preacher. Thousands soon gathered around the little town of Tengen, to liberate an ecclesiastic who was imprisoned there. The revolt spread, with inconceivable rapidity, from Suabia to the Rhine countries, to Franconia, to Thuringia, and to Saxony. In January, 1525, the whole of these countries were in insurrection. Towards the end of that month the peasants published a declaration in twelve articles, asking the liberty to choose their own pastors, the abolition of petty tithes, serfdom, the duties on inheritance, and liberty to hunt, fish, cut wood, &c., and each demand was supported by a passage of Scripture."—J. H. Merle d'Aubigné, *Story of the Reformation*, pt. 3, ch. 8 (*History of the Reformation*, bk. 10, ch. 10-11).—"Had the feudal lords granted proper and fair reforms long ago, they would never have heard of these twelve articles. But they had refused reform, and they now had to meet revolution. And they knew of but one way of meeting it, namely, by the sword. The lords of the Swabian League sent their army of foot and horsemen, under their captain, George Truchsess. The poor peasants could not hold out against trained soldiers and cavalry. Two battles on the Danube, in which thousands of peasants were slain, or drowned in the river, and a third equally bloody one in Algau, near the Boden See, crushed this rebellion in Swabia, as former rebellions had so often been crushed before. This was early in April 1525. But in the meantime the revolution had spread further north. In the valley of the Neckar a body of 6,000 peasants had come together, enraged by the news of the slaughter

of their fellow peasants in the south of Swabia." They stormed the castle of the young Count von Helfenstein, who had recently cut the throats of some peasants who met him on the road, and put the Count to death, with 60 of his companions. "A yell of horror was raised through Germany at the news of the peasants' revenge. No yell had risen when the Count cut peasants' throats, or the Swabian lords slew thousands of peasant rebels. Europe had not yet learned to mete out the same measure of justice to noble and common blood. . . . The revolution spread, and the reign of terror spread with it. North and east of the valley of the Neckar, among the little towns of Franconia, and in the valleys of the Maine, other hands of peasants, mustering by thousands, destroyed alike cloisters and castles. Two hundred of these lighted the night with their flames during the few weeks of their temporary triumph. And here another feature of the revolution became prominent. The little towns were already . . . passing through an internal revolution. The artisans were rising against the wealthier burghers, overturning the town councils, and electing committees of artisans in their place, making sudden changes in religion, putting down the Mass, unfrocking priests and monks, and in fact, in the interests of what they thought to be the gospel, turning all things upside down. . . . It was during the Franconian rebellion that the peasants chose the robber knight Goetz von Berlichingen as their leader. It did them no good. More than a robber chief was needed to cope with soldiers used to war. . . . While all this was going on in the valleys of the Maine, the revolution had crossed the Rhine into Elsass and Lothringen, and the Palatinate about Spire and Worms, and in the month of May had been crushed in blood, as in Swabia and Franconia. South and east, in Bavaria, in the Tyrol, and in Carinthia also, castles and monasteries went up in flames, and then, when the tide of victory turned, the burning houses and farms of the peasants lit up the night and their blood flowed freely. Meanwhile Münzer, who had done so much to stir up the peasantry in the south to rebel, had gone north into Thuringia, and headed a revolution in the town of Mühlhausen, and became a sort of Savonarola of a madder kind. . . . But the end was coming. The princes, with their disciplined troops, came nearer and nearer. What could Münzer do with his 8,000 peasants? He pointed to a rainbow and expected a miracle, but no miracle came. The battle, of course, was lost; 5,000 peasants lay dead upon the field near the little town of Frankenhausen, where it was fought. Münzer fled and concealed himself in a bed, but was found and taken before the princes, thrust into a dungeon, and afterwards beheaded. So ended the wild career of this misguided, fanatical, self-deceived, but yet, as we must think, earnest and in many ways heroic spirit. . . . The princes and nobles now everywhere prevailed over the insurgent peasants. Luther, writing on June 21, 1525, says:—"It is a certain fact, that in Franconia 11,000 peasants have been slain. Markgraf Casimir is cruelly severe upon his peasants, who have twice broken faith with him. In the Duchy of Wurtemberg, 6,000 have been killed; in different places in Swabia, 10,000. It is said that in Alsace the Duke of Lorraine has slain 20,000. Thus everywhere the wretched peasants are cut down.' . . . Before the Peasants' War was ended at least 100,000 perished, or twenty times as many as were put to death in Paris during the Reign of Terror in 1793. . . . Luther, throughout the Peasants' War, sided with the ruling powers. . . .

The reform he sought was by means of the civil power; and in order to clear himself and his cause from all participation in the wild doings of the peasantry, he publicly exhorted the princes to crush their rebellion."—F. Seebohm, *Era of the Protestant revolution*, pt. 2, ch. 5.—The terrors inspired by the peasants' revolt and the rapid growth of the political ideas of the Reformation caused the Roman Catholic nobility in 1525 to form a defensive alliance known as the League of Dessau. The Protestant princes and many of the strong towns united in 1526 in the League of Torgau.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 6.—P. Bayne, *Martin Luther: His life and work*, v. 2, bk. 11.—J. Köstlin, *Life of Luther*, pt. 4, ch. 5.—C. W. C. Oman, *German Peasant War of 1525 (English Historical Review)*, v. 5).

1525-1527.—Successful war of Ferdinand I against Hungary and Bohemia.—Union of the crowns by him. See AUSTRIA: 1525-1527.

1525-1529.—League of Torgau.—Diet of Spire.—Legal recognition of the reformed religion, and the withdrawal of it.—Protest which gave rise to the name "Protestants." See PAPACY: 1525-1529.

1527.—Sack of Rome by German and Spanish imperialists. See ITALY: 1527.

1529.—Turkish invasion of Austria.—Siege of Vienna. See HUNGARY: 1526-1567.

1530.—Diet at Augsburg.—Signing and reading of the Protestant confession of faith.—Condemnatory decree.—Breach between the Protestants and the emperor. See PAPACY: 1530-1531.

1530-1532.—Augsburg Decree.—Alarm of the Protestants.—Their League of Schmalkalden and alliance with the king of France.—Pacification of Nuremberg with the emperor.—Expulsion of the Turks from Hungary.—The decree issued by the Diet at Augsburg was condemnatory of most of the tenets peculiar to the Protestants, "forbidding any person to protect or tolerate such as taught them, enjoining a strict observance of the established rites, and prohibiting any farther innovation, under severe penalties. All orders of men were required to assist with their persons and fortunes in carrying this decree into execution; and such as refused to obey it were declared incapable of acting as judges, or of appearing as parties in the imperial chamber, the supreme court of judicature in the empire. To all which was subjoined a promise, that an application should be made to the pope, requiring him to call a general council within six months, in order to terminate all controversies by its sovereign decisions. The severity of this decree, which was considered as a prelude to the most violent persecution, alarmed the protestants, and convinced them that the emperor was resolved on their destruction." Under these circumstances, the Protestant princes met at Schmalkalden, December 22, 1530, and there "concluded a league of mutual defence against all aggressors, by which they formed the protestant states of the empire into one regular body, and, beginning already to consider themselves as such, they resolved to apply to the kings of France and England, and to implore them to patronise and assist their new confederacy. An affair not connected with religion furnished them with a pretence for courting the aid of foreign princes." This was the election of the emperor's brother, Ferdinand, to be King of the Romans, against which they had protested vigorously. "When the protestants, who were assembled a second time at Smalkalde [February, 1531], received an account of this

transaction, and heard, at the same time, that prosecutions were commenced in the imperial chamber against some of their number, on account of their religious principles, they thought it necessary, not only to renew their former confederacy, but immediately to despatch their ambassadors into France and England." The king of France "listened with the utmost eagerness to the complaints of the protestant princes; and, without seeming to countenance their religious opinions, determined secretly to cherish those sparks of political discord which might be afterwards kindled into a flame. For this purpose he sent William de Bellay, one of the ablest negotiators in France, into Germany, who, visiting the courts of the malcontent princes, and heightening their ill-humour by various arts, concluded an alliance between them and his master, which, though concealed at that time, and productive of no immediate effects, laid the foundation of a union fatal on many occasions to Charles's ambitious projects. . . . The king of England [Henry VIII], highly incensed against Charles, in compliance to whom, the pope had long retarded, and now openly opposed, his divorce [from Catharine of Aragon], was no less disposed than Francis to strengthen a league which might be rendered so formidable to the emperor. But his favourite project of the divorce led him into such a labyrinth of schemes and negotiations, and he was, at the same time, so intent on abolishing the papal jurisdiction in England, that he had no leisure for foreign affairs. This obliged him to rest satisfied with giving general promises, together with a small supply in money, to the confederates of Smalkalde. Meanwhile, many circumstances convinced Charles that this was not a juncture" in which he could afford to let his zeal for the church push him to extremities with the Protestants. "Negotiations were, accordingly, carried on by his direction with the elector of Saxony and his associates; after many delays . . . terms of pacification were agreed upon at Nuremberg [July 23], and ratified solemnly in the diet at Ratisbon [August 3]. In this treaty it was stipulated: that universal peace be established in Germany, until the meeting of a general council, the convocation of which within six months the emperor shall endeavour to procure; that no person shall be molested on account of religion; that a stop shall be put to all processes begun by the imperial chamber against protestants, and the sentences already passed to their detriment shall be declared void. On their part, the protestants engaged to assist the emperor with all their forces in resisting the invasion of the Turks. . . . The protestants of Germany, who had hitherto been viewed only as a religious sect, came henceforth to be considered as a political body of no small consequence. The intelligence which Charles received of Solymán's [sultan of Turkey] having entered Hungary, at the head of 300,000 men, brought the deliberations of the diet at Ratisbon to a period. . . . The protestants, as a testimony of their gratitude to the emperor, exerted themselves with extraordinary zeal, and brought into the field forces which exceeded in number the quota imposed on them; and the catholics imitating their example, one of the greatest and best-appointed armies that had ever been levied in Germany, assembled near Vienna. . . . It amounted in all to 00,000 disciplined foot, and 30,000 horse, besides a prodigious swarm of irregulars. Of this vast army . . . the emperor took the command in person; and mankind waited in suspense the issue of a decisive battle between the two greatest monarchs in the world. But each of them dreading the other's power and good fortune, they both

conducted their operations with such excessive caution, that a campaign for which such immense preparations had been made ended without any memorable event. Solymán, finding it impossible to gain ground upon an enemy always attentive and on his guard, marched back to Constantinople towards the end of autumn. . . . About the beginning of this campaign, the elector of Saxony died, and was succeeded by his son John Frederick. . . . Immediately after the retreat of the Turks, Charles, impatient to revisit Spain, set out, on his way thither, for Italy."—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V*, bk. 5.

ALSO IN: L. von Ranke, *History of the Reformation in Germany*, v. 3, bk. 6, ch. 1-8.—H. Stebbing, *History of the Reformation*, v. 2, ch. 12-13.

1532-1536.—Fanaticism of the Anabaptists of Münster.—Siege and capture of the city. See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.

1533-1546.—Mercenary aspects of the Reformation.—Protestant intolerance.—Union with the Swiss reformers.—Catholic Holy League.—Preparations for war.—"During the next few years [after the peace concluded at Nuremberg] there was no open hostility between the two religious parties. . . . But there was dissension enough. In the first place there was much dispute as to the meaning of the articles concluded at Nuremberg. The catholic princes, under the pretext that, if no man was to be disturbed for his faith, or for things depending on faith, he was still amenable for certain offences against the church, which were purely of a civil nature, were eager that the imperial chamber should take cognisance of future cases, at least, where protestants should seek to invade the temporalities of the church. . . . But nothing was effected; the tribunal was too powerless to enforce its decrees. In 1534, the protestants, in a public assembly, renounced all obedience to the chamber; yet they did not cease to appropriate to themselves the property of such monasteries and churches as, by the conversion of catholics to their faith—and that faith was continually progressive—lay within their jurisdiction. We need scarcely observe, that the prospect of spoliation was often the most powerful inducement with the princes and nobles to change their religion. When they, or the magistracy of any particular city, renounced the faith hitherto established, the people were expected to follow the example: the moment Lutheranism was established in its place, the ancient faith was abolished; nobody was allowed to profess it; and, with one common accord, all who had any prospect of benefiting by the change threw themselves on the domains of the expelled clergy. That the latter should complain before the only tribunal where justice could be expected, was natural; nor can we be surprised that the plunderers should soon deny, in religious affairs, the jurisdiction of that tribunal. From the departure of the emperor to the year 1538, some hundreds of domains were thus seized, and some hundreds of complaints addressed to him by parties who resolved to interpret the articles of Nuremberg in their own way. The protestants declared, in a letter to him, that their consciences would not allow them to tolerate any papist in their states. . . . By espousing the cause of the exiled duke of Wittemberg, they procured a powerful ally. . . . But a greater advantage was the union of the sacramentarians [the Swiss reformers, who accepted the doctrine of Zwingli respecting the purely symbolical significance of the commemoration of the Lord's Supper—see SWITZERLAND: 1528-1531] with the Lutherans. Of such a result, at the diet of Augsburg,

there was not the least hope; but Bucer, being deputed by the imperial cities to ascertain whether a union might not be effected, laboured so zealously at the task that it was effected. He consented to modify some of his former opinions; or at least to wrap them in language so equivocal that they might mean anything or nothing at the pleasure of the holder. The Swiss, indeed, especially those of Zurich, refused to sanction the articles on which Luther and Bucer had agreed. Still, by the union of all protestant Germany under the same banners, much was gained. . . . In the meantime, the dissensions between the two great parties augmented from day to day. To pacify them, Charles sent fruitless embassies. Roused by the apparent danger, in 1538, the catholic princes formed, at Nuremberg, a counter league to that of Smalcald [calling it the Holy League]. . . . The death of Luther's old enemy, George, duke of Saxony [1539], transferred the dominion of that prince's states into the hands of [his brother Henry] a Lutheran. Henry, duke of Brunswick, was now the only great secular prince in the north of Germany who adhered to the Roman catholic faith. . . . A truce was concluded at Frankfort, in 1539; but it could not remove the existing animosity, which was daily augmented. Both parties were in the wrong. . . . At the close of 1540, Worms was the scene of a conference very different from that where, 20 years before, Luther had been proscribed. There was an interminable theological disputation. . . . As little good resulted, Charles, who was hastening from the Low Countries, to his German dominions, evoked the affair before a diet at Ratisbon, in April, 1541. . . . The diet of Ratisbon was well attended; and never did prince exert himself more zealously than Charles to make peace between his angry subjects. But . . . all that could be obtained was, that things should be suffered to remain in their present state until a future diet or a general council. The reduction of Buda, however, by the Turks, rendered king Ferdinand, his brother, and the whole of Germany, eager for an immediate settlement of the dispute. . . . Hence the diet of Spire in 1542. If, in regard to religion, nothing definite was arranged, except the selection of Trent as the place most suitable for a general council, one good end was secured—supplies for the war with the Turks. The campaign, however, which passed without an action, was inglorious to the Germans, who appear to have been in a lamentable state of discipline. Nor was the public satisfaction much increased by the disputes of the Smalcald league with Henry of Brunswick. The duke was angry with his subjects of Brunswick and Breslau, who adhered to the protestant league; and though he had reason enough to be dissatisfied with both, nothing could be more vexatious than his conduct towards them. In revenge, the league of Smalcald sent 19,000 men into the field,—a formidable display of protestant power!—and Henry was expelled from his hereditary states, which were seized by the victors. He invoked the aid of the imperial chamber, which cited the chiefs of the league; but as, in 1538, the competency of that tribunal had been denied in religious, so now it was denied in civil matters. . . . The following years exhibit on both sides the same jealousy, the same duplicity, often the same violence where the mask was no longer required, with as many ineffectual attempts to procure a union between them. . . . The progress of events continued to favour the reformers. They had already two votes in the electoral college,—those of Saxony and Brandenburg; they were now to have the preponderance; for the elector palatine and Herman archbishop of Cologne abjured

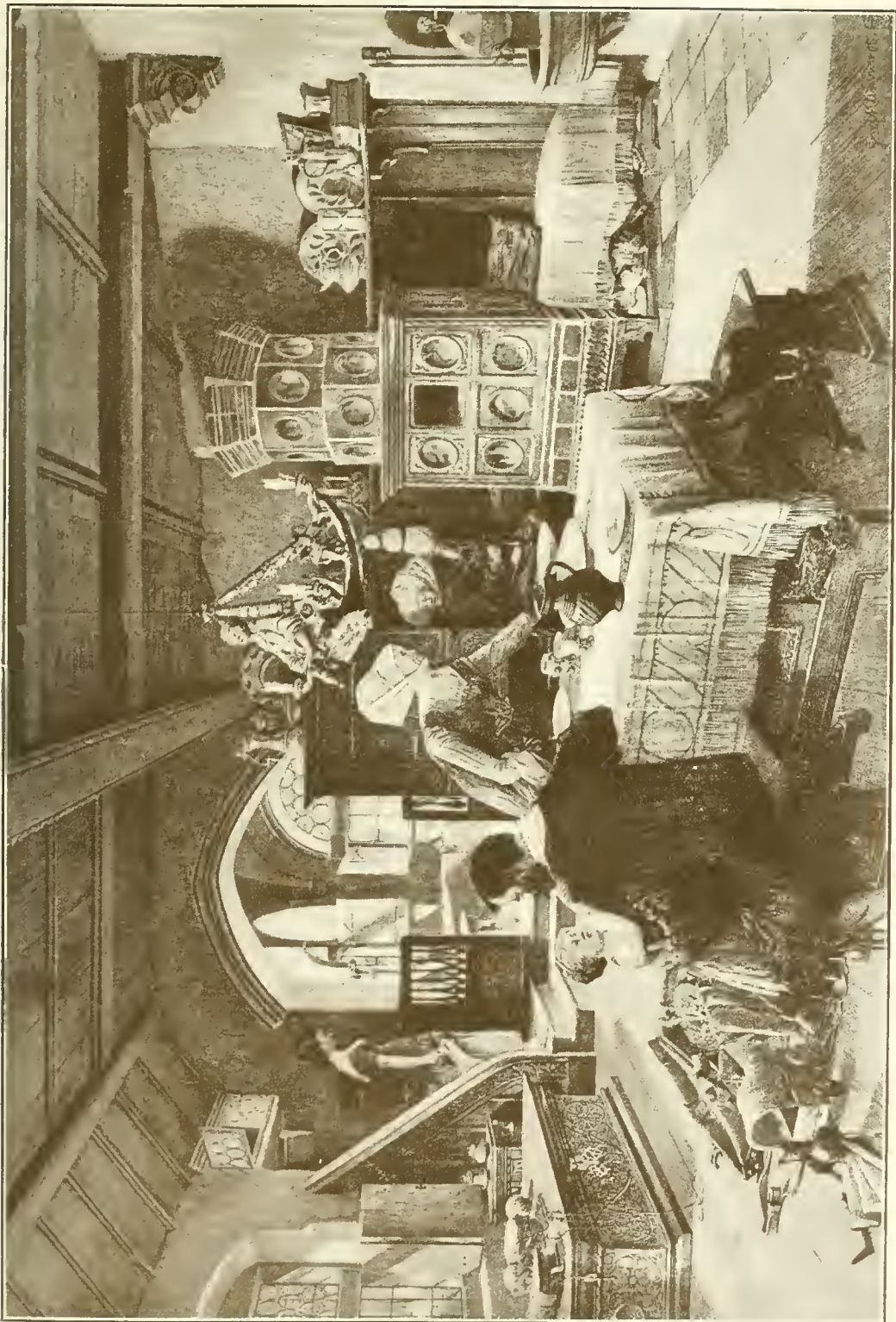
their religion, thus placing at the command of the reformed party four votes against three. But this numerical superiority did not long remain. . . . The pope excommunicated the archbishop, deposed him from his dignity, and ordered the chapter to proceed to a new election; and when Herman refused to obey, Charles sent troops to expel him, and to install the archbishop elect, Count Adolf of Nassau. Herman retired to his patrimonial estates, where he died in the profession of the reformed religion. These events mortified the members of the Smalcald league; but they were soon partially consoled by the capture of Henry duke of Brunswick [1546], who had the temerity to collect troops and invade his patrimonial dominions. Their success gave umbrage to the emperor. . . . He knew that the confederates had already 20,000 men under arms, and that they were actively, however secretly, augmenting their forces. His first care was to cause troops to be as secretly collected in his hereditary states; his second, to seduce, if possible, some leaders of the protestants. With Maurice duke of Saxony he was soon successful; and eventually with the two margraves of Brandenburg, who agreed to make preparations for a campaign and join him at the proper moment. . . . His convocation of the diet at Ratisbon [1546], which after a vain parade ended in nothing, was only to hide his real designs. As he began to throw off the mask, the reformed theologians precipitately withdrew; and both parties took the field, but not until they had each published a manifesto to justify this extreme proceeding. In each there was much truth, and more falsehood."—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire*, v. 3, bk. 3, ch. 2.

1542-1544.—War with Francis I of France.—Battle of Cerisoles.—Treaty of Crespy. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

1542-1563.—Beginning of the Roman Catholic reaction.—Council of Trent. See PAPACY: 1537-1563.

1546-1552.—War of Charles against the Protestants.—Treachery of Maurice of Saxony.—Battle of Mühlberg.—Emperor's proposed "Interim" and its failure.—His reverse of fortune.—Protestantism triumphant.—Treaty of Passau.—"Luther's death [which occurred in 1546] made no change in the resolution which Charles had at last taken to crush the Reformation in his German dominions by force of arms; on the contrary, he was more than ever stimulated to carry out his purpose by two occurrences: the adoption of the new religion by one who was not only an Elector of the Empire, but one of the chief prelates of the Church, the Prince-Archbishop of Cologne. . . . The other event that influenced him was the refusal of the Protestants to accept as binding the decrees of the Council of Trent, which was composed of scarcely any members but a few Italian and Spanish prelates, and from which they appealed to either a free general Council or a national Council of the Empire; offering, at the same time, if Charles should prefer it, to submit the whole question of religion to a joint Commission, composed of divines of each party. These remonstrances, however, the Emperor treated with contempt. He had been for some time secretly raising troops in different quarters; and, early in 1546, he made a fresh treaty with the Pope, by which he bound himself instantly to commence warlike operations, and which, though it had been negotiated as a secret treaty, Paul instantly published, to prevent any retraction or delay on his part. War therefore now began, though Charles professed to enter upon it, not for the purpose of





A LIVING ROOM OF THE 16TH CENTURY, GERMANY



enforcing a particular religious belief on the recusants, but for that of re-establishing the Imperial authority, which, as he affirmed, many of the confederate princes had disowned. Such a pretext he expected to sow disunion in the body, some members of which were far from desirous to weaken the great confederacy of the Empire: and, in effect, it did produce a hesitation in their early steps that had the most important consequences on the first campaign; for, in spite of the length of time during which he had secretly been preparing for war, when it came they were more ready than he. They at once took the field with an army of 90,000 men and 120 guns, while he, for the first few weeks after the declaration of war, had hardly 10,000 men with him in Ratisbon. . . . But the advantage of a single over a divided command was perhaps never more clearly exemplified than in the first operations of the two armies. He, as the weaker party, took up a defensive position near Ingolstadt; but, though they advanced within sight of his lines, they could not agree on the mode of attack, or even on the prudence of attacking him at all. . . . At last, the confederates actually drew off, and Charles, advancing, made himself master of many important towns, which their irresolution alone had enabled him to approach." Meanwhile the emperor had won an important ally. This was Duke Maurice, of the Albertine line of the House of Saxony (see SAXONY: 1180-1553), to whom several opportune deaths had given the ducal seat unexpectedly, in 1541, and whose ambition now hungered for the Electorate, which was held by the other (the Ernestine) branch of the family. He conceived the idea of profiting by the troubles of the time to win possession of it. "With this view, though he also was a Protestant, he tendered his services to the Emperor, who, in spite of his youth, discerned in him a promise of very superior capacity, gladly accepted his aid, and promised to reward him with the territories which he coveted. The advantages which Protestantism eventually derived from Maurice's success has blinded some historians to the infamy of the conduct by which he achieved it. . . . The Elector [John Frederick] was his [second] cousin; the Landgrave of Hesse was his father-in-law. Pleading an unwillingness while so young (he was barely 21) to engage in the war, he volunteered to undertake the protection of his cousin's dominions during his absence in the field. His offer was thankfully accepted; but he was no sooner installed in his charge than he began to negotiate with the enemy to invade the territories which he had bound himself to protect. And on receiving from Charles a copy of a decree, called the Ban of the Empire, which had just been issued against both the Elector and the Landgrave, he at once raised a force of his own, with which he overran one portion of [the Elector's] dominions, while a division of the Imperial army attacked the rest; and he would probably have succeeded at once in subduing the whole Electorate, had the main body of the Protestants been able to maintain the war on the Danube." But Charles's successes there brought about a suspension of hostilities which enabled the Elector to return and "chastise Maurice for his treachery; to drive him not only from the towns and districts which he had seized, but to strip him also of the greater part of the territory which belonged to him by inheritance." Charles was unable, at first, to give any assistance to his ally. The Elector, however, who was the worst of generals, so scattered his forces that when, "on the 23d of April [1547], Charles reached the Elbe and

prepared to attack him, he had no advantage over his assailant but that of position. That indeed was very strong. He lay at Mühlberg, on the right bank of the river, which at that point is 300 yards wide and more than four feet deep, with a stream so rapid as to render the passage, even for horsemen, a task of great difficulty and danger." Against the remonstrances of his ablest general, the duke of Alva, Charles, favored by a heavy fog, led his army across the river and boldly attacked. The Elector attempted to retreat, but his retreat became a rout. Many fell, but many more were taken prisoners, including the Elector and the Landgrave of Hesse. The victory was decisive for the time, and Charles used it without moderation or generosity. He declared a forfeiture of the whole Electorate of Saxony by John Frederick, and conferred it upon the treacherous Maurice; and, "though Maurice was son-in-law of the Landgrave of Hesse, he stripped that prince of his territories, and, by a device scarcely removed from the tricks of a kidnapper, threw him also into prison." Charles seemed now to be completely master of the situation in Germany, and there was little opposition to his will in a diet which he convened at Augsburg.—C. D. Yonge, *Three centuries of modern history*, ch. 4.—"He opened the Diet of Augsburg (September 1, 1547), in the hope of finally bringing about the union so long desired and so frequently attempted, but which he despaired of effecting through a council which the Protestants had rejected in advance. . . . By the famous 'Interim' of Augsburg—the joint production of Julius von Pflug, Bishop of Naumberg; Michael Helding, coadjutor of Mentz; and the wily and subtle John Agricola, preacher to the Elector of Brandenburg—Protestants were permitted to receive the Holy Eucharist under both kinds; the Protestant clergy already married to retain their wives; and a tacit approval given to the retention of property already taken from the Church. This instrument was, from beginning to end, a masterpiece of duplicity, and as such satisfied no party. The Catholics of Germany, the Protestants, and the Court of Rome, each took exception to it. . . . Maurice, the new Elector of Saxony, unwilling to give the Interim an unconditional approval, consulted with a number of Protestant theologians, headed by Melancthon, as to how far he might accept its provisions with a safe conscience. In reply they drew up what is known as the Leipzig Interim (1548), in which they stated that questions of ritual and ceremony, and others of minor importance, which they designated by the generic word *adiaphora*, might be wholly overlooked; and even in points of a strictly doctrinal character, they expressed themselves favourable to concession and compromise. . . . Such Lutheran preachers as professed to be faithful followers of their master, made a determined opposition to the 'Interim,' and began a vigorous assault upon its *adiaphoristic* clauses. The *Anti-adiaphorists*, as they were called, were headed by Flacius Illyricus, who being an ardent disciple of Luther's, and possessing somewhat of his courage and energy, repaired to Magdeburg, whose bold citizens were as defiant of imperial power as they were contemptuous of papal authority. But in spite of this spirited opposition, the Interim was gradually accepted by several Protestant countries and cities—a fact which encouraged the emperor at the Diet of Augsburg, in 1550, to make a final effort to have the Protestants attend the sessions of the Council of Trent, again opened by Pope Julius III. . . . After a short delay, deputies from Brandenburg, Würtemberg, and Saxony began to ap-

pear at Trent; and even the Wittenberg theologians, headed by Melancthon, were already on their way to the Council, when Maurice of Saxony, having secured all the advantages he hoped to obtain by an alliance with the Catholic party, and regardless of the obligations by which he was bound, proceeded to betray both the emperor and his country. Having received a commission to carry into effect the ban of the empire passed upon Magdeburg, he was in a position to assemble a large body of troops in Germany without exciting suspicion, or revealing his ulterior purposes. Besides uniting to himself as confederates in his plot, John Albert, Duke of Mecklenburg; Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg; and William, Landgrave of Hesse, eldest son of Philip of Hesse, he entered into a secret treaty (Oct. 5, 1551) with Henry II., King of France, who, as was pretended, coming into Germany as the saviour of the country, seized the cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun [see also FRANCE: 1547-1559]. Maurice also held out to Henry the prospect of securing the imperial crown. Everything being in readiness for action, Maurice advancing through Thuringia, seized the city of Augsburg, and suddenly made his appearance before Innspruck, whence the emperor, who lay sick of a severe attack of the gout, was hastily conveyed on a litter, through the passes of the mountains, to Villach, in Carinthia. While Maurice was thus making himself master of Innspruck, the King of the French was carrying out his part of the programme by actively prosecuting the war in Lorraine. Charles V., now destitute of the material resources necessary to carry on a successful campaign against the combined armies of the French king and the German princes, and despairing of putting an end to the obstinate conflict by his personal endeavors, resolved to re-establish, if possible, his waning power by peaceful negotiations. To this end, he commissioned his brother Ferdinand to conclude the Treaty of Passau (July 30, 1552), which provided that Philip of Hesse should be set at liberty, and gave pledges for the speedy settlement of all religious and political differences by a Diet, to be summoned at an early day. It further provided that neither the emperor nor the Protestant princes should put any restraint upon freedom of conscience, and that all questions arising in the interval between the two parties should be referred for settlement to an Imperial Commission, composed of an equal number of Catholics and Protestants. In consequence of the war then being carried on by the empire against France for the recovery of the three bishoprics of Lorraine of which the French had taken possession, the Diet did not convene until February 5, 1555."—J. Alzog, *Manual of Universal Church history*, v. 3, pp. 276-279.

ALSO IN: W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V*, v. 2-3, bk. 8-10.—L. von Ranke, *Civil wars and monarchy in France*, ch. 6.—E. E. Crowe, *Cardinal Granvelle and Maurice of Saxony (Eminent foreign statesmen, v. 1)*.—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 15-17.—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Reformation*, ch. 5.—F. Kohrausch, *History of Germany*, ch. 20.

1547.—Pragmatic Sanction of Charles V, changing the relations of the Netherland provinces to the empire. See NETHERLANDS: 1547.

1552-1561.—Battle of Sievershausen and death of Maurice.—Religious Peace of Augsburg.—Abdication of Charles V.—Succession of Ferdinand I.—Halting of the Reformation and the rally of Catholic resistance.—By the Treaty of Passau, Maurice of Saxony bound himself to de-

fend the empire against the French and the Turks. "He accordingly took the field against the latter, but with little success, the imperial commander, Castaldo contravening all his efforts by plundering Hungary and drawing upon himself the hatred of the people. Charles, meanwhile, marched against the French, and, without hesitation, again deposed the corporative governments reinstated by Maurice, on his way through Augsburg, Ulm, Esslingen, etc. Metz, valiantly defended by the Duke de Guise, was vainly besieged for some months, and the Emperor was at length forced to retreat. The French were, nevertheless, driven out of Italy. The aged emperor now sighed for peace. Ferdinand, averse to open warfare, placed his hopes on the imperceptible effect of a consistently pursued system of suppression and Jesuitical obscurantism. Maurice was answerable for the continuance of the peace, the terms of which he had prescribed. . . . Albert the Wild [of Brandenburg] was the only one among the princes who was still desirous of war. Indifferent to aught else, he marched at the head of some thousand followers through central Germany, murdering and plundering as he passed along, with the intent of once more laying the Franconian and Saxon bishoprics waste in the name of the gospel. The princes at length formed the Heidelberg confederacy against this monster and the emperor put him under the ban of the empire, which Maurice undertook to execute, although he had been his old friend and companion in arms. Albert was engaged in plundering the archbishopric of Magdeburg, when Maurice came up with him at Sievershausen. A murderous engagement took place (A. D. 1553). Three of the princes of Brunswick were slain. Albert was severely wounded, and Maurice fell at the moment when victory declared in his favour, in the 33d year of his age, in the midst of his promising career. . . . Every obstacle was now removed, and a peace, known as the religious peace of Augsburg, was concluded by the diet held in that city, A. D. 1555. This peace was naturally a mere political agreement provisionally entered into by the princes for the benefit, not of religion, but of themselves. Popular opinion was dumb, knights, burgesses, and peasants bending in lowly submission to the mandate of their sovereigns. By this treaty, branded in history as the most lawless ever concerted in Germany, the principle 'cujus regio, ejus religio,' the faith of the prince must be that of the people, was laid down. By it not only all the Reformed subjects of a Catholic prince were exposed to the utmost cruelty and tyranny, but the religion of each separate country was rendered dependent on the caprice of the reigning prince; of this the Pfalz offered a sad example, the religion of the people being thus four times arbitrarily changed. . . . Freedom of belief, confined to the immediate subjects of the empire, for instance, to the reigning princes, the free nobility, and the city councillors, was monopolized by at most 20,000 privileged persons. . . . [The Peace of Augsburg had two other serious defects, namely: that no Protestant sect was tolerated except the Lutheran, and that the provision that those princes who became Protestant must surrender their domains could not be enforced. Consequently it not only failed to establish peace but was the source of discontent.] The false peace concluded at Augsburg was immediately followed by Charles V's abdication of his numerous crowns [see NETHERLANDS: 1555]. He would willingly have resigned that of the empire to his son Philip, had not the Spanish education of that prince, his gloomy and bigoted character, inspired

the Germans with an aversion as unconquerable as that with which he beheld them. Ferdinand had, moreover, gained the favour of the German princes. Charles, nevertheless, influenced by affection towards his son, bestowed upon him one of the finest of the German provinces, the Netherlands, besides Spain, Milan, Naples, and the West Indies (America). Ferdinand received the rest of the German hereditary possessions of his house, besides Bohemia and Hungary. . . . Ferdinand I, opposed in his hereditary provinces by a predominating Protestant party, which he was compelled to tolerate, was politically overbalanced by his nephew, Philip II, in Spain and Italy, where Catholicism flourished. The preponderance of the Spanish over the Austrian branch of the house of Habsburg exercised the most pernicious influence on the whole of Germany, by securing to the Catholics a support which rendered reconciliation impossible. . . . The religious disputes and petty egotism of the several estates of the empire had utterly stifled every sentiment of patriotism, and not a dissentient voice was raised against the will of Charles V, which bestowed the whole of the Netherlands, one of the finest of the provinces of Germany, upon Spain, the division and consequent weakening of the powerful house of Habsburg being regarded by the princes with delight. At the same time that the power of the Protestant party was shaken by the peace of Augsburg, Cardinal Caraffa mounted the pontifical throne as Paul IV, the first pope who, following the plan of the Jesuits, abandoned the system of defence for that of attack. The Reformation no sooner ceased to progress, than a preventive movement began [see PAPACY: 1537-1563]. . . . Ferdinand I was in a difficult position. Paul IV refused to acknowledge him on account of the peace concluded between him and the Protestants, whom he was unable to oppose, and whose tenets he refused to embrace, notwithstanding the expressed wish of the majority of his subjects. Like his brother, he intrigued and diplomatized until his Jesuitical confessor, Bobadilla, and the new pope, Pius IV, again placed him on good terms with Rome, A. D. 1550. . . . Augustus, elector of Saxony, the brother of Maurice, alarmed at the fresh alliance between the emperor and pope, convoked a meeting of the Protestant leaders at Naumberg. His fears were, however, allayed by the peaceful proposals of the emperor (A. D. 1561). . . . A last attempt to save the unity of the German church, in the event of its separation from that of Rome, was made by Ferdinand, who convoked the spiritual electoral princes, the archbishops and bishops, for that purpose to Vienna, but the consideration with which he was compelled to treat the pope rendered his efforts weak and ineffectual. . . . The Protestants, blind to the unity and strength resulting from the policy of the Catholics, weakened themselves more and more by division."—W. Menzel, *History of Germany*, v. 2, sect. 197-198.

1556.—Map showing division of country into free cities and principalities. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe: 1556.

1556-1558.—Abdication of the emperor, Charles V, and election of his brother, Ferdinand. See NETHERLANDS: 1555.

1556-1609.—Violations of the Peace of Augsburg.—Tolerant reigns of Ferdinand I and Maximilian II.—Renewed persecution under Rudolf II.—"The two great principles laid down at the peace of Augsburg for a compromise between the two religious parties were, first, that called the Ecclesiastical Reservation, intended to restrain the Protestants from any further appropriation of the

property of the Church, and secondly, the Imperial Declaration of Toleration, which was intended to preserve to the Protestants the toleration of their religious freedom. It cannot be said that either party honestly or sincerely accepted the compromise. But the guilt of breaking it first belongs to the Protestant princes, who were unchecked by any scruple in their attempts to appropriate the abbey and bishoprics, at a moment when the Catholic party was far too much humiliated to attempt open persecution. During the reigns of Ferdinand [1558-1564] and Maximilian [1564-1576] the imperial power was but little exerted to compel the parties to keep the compromise: bishops renounced Popery and retained their sees in spite of the Ecclesiastical Reservation; and, by means of indults from the Empire, Protestant princes were elected to, and retained all their lives, the government of ecclesiastical states without taking orders. On the other hand, the Catholic party, as it revived from the severe shock it had experienced, stirred up by the Jesuits and by the restored life and discipline that flowed from the Council of Trent, began largely to proselytise, more largely to repress religious freedom, and, where there was room, to persecute. [See also PAPACY: 1570-1597.] The later years of Maximilian II., during which he fell more completely under the influence of Philip II., saw him less and less inclined to oppose the restoration of Popery. The Catholic reaction set in strongly both in Germany and France; and very considerable portions of Central Germany, which had been regarded as lost to the Church, were effectually and permanently reclaimed: Franconia especially, under the influence of the bishops of Bamberg and Würzburg, returned in large proportion to the faith."—W. Stubbs, *Lectures on European history* (A. Hassall, ed.), pp. 282-283.—See also HUNGARY: 1526-1567.—"The princes unanimously elected the son of Maximilian as King of the Romans, and Max received another gratification: he was elected king by the gallant nation of the Poles. Thus the house of Austria was again powerfully strengthened. Hungary, Poland, Bohemia, and Germany, united under one ruler, formed a power which could meet Turkey and Russia. The Turks and the Russians were pressing forward. The Turkish wars, more than anything else, prevented Max from carrying out his long-cherished plan and giving a constitution to the empire and church of the Germans. . . . But in the midst of his great projects, Maximilian II. died, in his 49th year, on the 12th of October, 1576."—W. Zimmerman, *Popular history of Germany*, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 2.—"The Emperor Rudolf, who succeeded Maximilian, went in far more completely than his father had done for the reaction. Maximilian had simply allowed both parties to take their own course, but Rudolf and several others of the imperial family determined to give a firm support to orthodoxy. And the field for their action in this respect was principally their own immediate states: Bohemia, which had long before Luther been leavened by Huss with tenets opposed to the doctrine of Rome, and Austria, where the whole of the nobles and large portions of the country population had embraced Protestantism. The character of the policy of repression which was adopted in the Austrian states was not the same as that which had been exercised so cruelly and so unsuccessfully in France and the Netherlands. The Protestants were not burned, but their teachers were forbidden to hold services for more than a limited number of worshippers; they were next imprisoned and banished; then the professors of Protestantism were compelled to emigrate, and

their places were filled by strangers, who both religiously and politically were bound to be faithful to their patrons. . . . The great start of the reaction in the Austrian states dates from 1597, when Ferdinand of Styria, the archduke who ultimately became Ferdinand II., set his shoulder to the wheel and rapidly succeeded in turning back the tide of the Reformation in that country. The zeal of Ferdinand revived the zeal of Rudolf, who also began to proscribe and banish Protestants in Austria; and, wherever the imperial jurisdiction gave him any power, to throw his weight into the Catholic scale. The able man of the party was, however, Maximilian of Bavaria, whose long reign covers a great part of the Catholic counter-reformation and the Thirty Years' War also . . . [see also PAPACY: 1570-1597]. The success of the reaction at last awoke the fears of the Protestant princes. As early as 1594 at Heilbronn, several of them had formed a confederation for mutual defence, and resistance to the imperial claims. In 1597 they renewed this league at Frankfurt, with additional provisos bearing on religious points: thus united they had concluded at Heidelberg in 1603 an alliance with Henry IV. of France, the object of which was the destruction of the house of Hapsburg and the remodelling of the state system of Europe."—W. Stubbs, *Lectures on European history* (A. Hassall, ed.), pp. 283-284.—In the meantime the ardor of Rudolf's determination to rid his dominions of heretics increased, "but in Hungary the nation rose in defence of its liberty and faith. The receipt of the intelligence that the Hungarian malcontents were progressing victoriously produced—what there had been symptoms of before—insanity. The members of the house of Austria assembled, and declared 'The Emperor Rudolf can be no longer head of the house, because unfortunately it is too plain that this Roman Imperial Majesty . . . was not competent or fit to govern the kingdoms.' The Archduke Matthias [eldest brother of Rudolf] was elected head of the Austrian house [1606]. He collected an army of 20,000 men, and made known that he would depose the emperor from the government of his hereditary domains. Rudolf's Jesuitical flatterers had named him the 'Bohemian Solomon.' He now, in terror, without drawing sword, ceded Hungary and Austria to Matthias, and gave him also the government of Moravia. Matthias guaranteed religious liberty to the Austrians. Rudolf did the same to the Bohemians and Silesians by the 'Letters of Majesty' [July 5, 1609]."—W. Zimmerman, *Popular history of Germany*, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 2.—See also HUNGARY: 1567-1604.

1564-1581.—Efforts to establish authority of papal index. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1564-1581.

1592-1671.—Educational reforms of Comenius. See EDUCATION: Modern: 1592-1671.

17th century.—Educational advances.—Pietistic movement. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Germany: Francke, etc.; Schools after Thirty Years' War.

1608-1618.—Protestant Union and the Catholic League.—Jülich-Cleve contest.—Negotiations with Henry IV of France.—Ferdinand in Bohemia.—The concessions granted by Matthias "were offensive to the two princes, the archduke Ferdinand of Styria, and Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, who had taken the lead already in a vigorous movement of Catholic reaction. Some proceedings on the part of Maximilian, which the emperor sanctioned, against the Protestant free city of Donauwörth, had caused certain Protestant princes and cities [members of the League of Frankfurt

(1597)], in 1608, to form a defensive union [Evangelical Union]. But the elector palatine, who attached himself to the Reformed or Calvinist church, was at the head of this union, and the bigoted Lutherans, especially the elector of Saxony, looked coldly upon it. On the other hand, the Catholic states formed a counter organization a 'holy league' [Catholic League]—which was more compact. The two parties being thus in array, there arose suddenly between them a political question of the most disturbing kind. It related to the right of succession to an important duchy, that of Juliers, Clèves, and Berg. There were several powerful claimants, and, as usual, the political question took possession of the religious issue and used it for its own ends. . . . Henry [IV of France] began active preparations for campaigns in both Germany and Italy, with serious intent to humble and diminish the Austrian power. The Dutch came into the alliance, and there were promises of English aid. The combination was formidable, and might have changed the course of events that awaited unhappy Germany, if the whole plan had not been frustrated by the assassination of Henry IV, in 1610. All the parties to the alliance drew back after that event. In 1611, Rudolph was deposed in Bohemia, and in the following year he died. Matthias, already King of Hungary, succeeded Rudolph in Bohemia, and in the empire. [See HUNGARY: 1606-1660]. But Matthias was scarcely stronger in mind or body than his brother, and the same family pressure which had pushed Rudolph aside now forced Matthias to accept a coadjutor, in the person of the vigorous Ferdinand, archduke of Styria. For the remainder of his reign Matthias was a cipher, and all power in the government was exercised by Ferdinand. His bitter opposition to the tolerant policy which had prevailed for half a century was well understood. Hence, his rise to supremacy in the empire gave notice that the days of religious peace were ended. The outbreak of civil war was not long in coming."—J. N. Larned, *Seventy centuries*, v. 2, pp. 126-127.

ALSO IN: F. Kohlrausch, *History of Germany*.

1612.—Election of the Emperor Matthias.—Union with Hungary, Bohemia and the Empire. See HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

1615.—First newspaper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1612-1650.

1618.—Military organization and use of mercenaries in Thirty Years' War. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16.

1618.—Religious and political conditions at the beginning of the Thirty Years' War.—"What was the Germany of the Thirty Years' War? In it what was there besides the Empire and the imperial house? What were the grounds of the differences between the North and the South, between the princes, the prelates, the people, and the nominal sovereign? Germany at the beginning of the imperial history was an aggregate of four nations, the Franks, the Bavarians, the Alemannians, and the Saxons; of whom the Franks and Alemannians or Swabians soon lose their distinctive national identities, but the Saxons and Bavarians retain both strong identity and strong antagonism. In all the early struggles of the Empire, North and South are opposed. Whilst the imperial dynasty is Saxon, Bavaria and Swabia are anti-imperial; when the imperial dynasty is Swabian or Bavarian, North Germany is in opposition to the Empire. As the imperial dignity settled down permanently into the South German houses, the Bavarian, Austrian, and Luxemburg lines, Saxony, that is North Germany, became the seat of constant dis-

affection. Against the Hohenstaufen it was the great bulwark of Papal interests; against the Luxemburgers and earlier Hapsburgs it was in armed independence. So long as the struggle between the Empire and the Papacy lasted, North Germany was enthusiastically Papal. As soon as Austria and the Papacy reconciled their differences and became, as for the most part of modern history has been the case, firm allies, North Germany took up with ardour the doctrines of the Reformation; her antipathy to a Southern Cæsar was great enough to overcome her ancient and as yet unshaken constancy to the Chair of St. Peter. Of course this was not the only ground for the characteristic position and attitude of the two divisions. Early Saxony was faithfully Catholic not merely because it hated the Emperor and his antipopes, but because it had been brought to Christianity and civilization under men and principles according to which Roman Papalism was an integral portion of religion; and modern Saxony was not enthusiastically Protestant only because the Empire was Catholic and Southern, but because Luther and his friends the Saxon electors were natives of the land and spoke directly to the hearts of the people, and quite as much because the prelates who had grown wealthy on the old Papal support offered a rich booty to men to whom the change of religion was the relaxing of all ties of honour, duty, and regard for right of property, and who saw in the downfall of the old system the readiest way to aggrandise themselves. The three influences, the Empire, the faith, and the plunder, all affected the North Germans in the same way. And so the South: whilst the Papacy was politically strong, the imperial influence, mainly South German, was in opposition. . . . With the great schism of the West, and the termination of the Babylonish exile, begins the drawing together of the Empire and Papacy. When the Reformation begins, the North accepts it and the South rejects it. But here with a great difference. In the North, princes and people alike reject the Papal authority in religion. In the South the princes are faithful, but the people become Protestant; and this adds a distinct complication to the many other complications that we are obliged to consider as leading to the great crisis of the Thirty Years' War. . . . In the North the princes and the people went together, in the South they went different ways. In Austria, Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia, the people became Protestant, the princes continuing Catholic. At one time the middle nobles in South Germany were also Protestant, but that was not long; strong repressive measures soon brought them back or disabled them, and chiefly they were discouraged by finding that Protestantism and plunder would not be allowed to go on together as they were doing in the North. But although German Protestantism quickly took in the South, it was distinctly a Northern product, distinctly Northern in affinities; that is, Lutheranism presented itself to the rulers of South Germany as the political programme of their enemies and rivals in the North. Scarcely less hateful was the aspect of Calvinism. Calvinism was not only uncatholic, but it was French, it was Dutch, it was republican. Bavaria and Austria saw not merely doctrinal but political and dynastic principles arrayed against them under the name of Protestantism; and their struggle against it was a struggle on the part of the dynasties for existence. . . . How was it that Protestantism failed in South Germany when it was backed up by the North, and had so little real strength set against it? The answer to this question should be supplied

by the study of the period of sixty years that intervened between the death of Charles V. and the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War. It was caused, first, by the divisions of the Protestants themselves, the disputes between the Lutherans and the Calvinists, between the Saxon and Palatine Electors, and between the two branches of the house of Saxony; secondly by the enormous exertions of the Jesuits, who by every means in their power or in the power of man, by preaching, by educating, by intriguing, by persecution, by persuasion, by bribing, by taxing, by force and fraud, threw their great and intricate organization against the advancing tide of Protestantism and effectually stayed it; thirdly, by the material power and assistance which the German Hapsburgs and other Catholic princes could invariably look for from Spain under Philip II.—a power which the Jesuits directly or indirectly could bring to bear where and when they pleased. By these three causes the victory of Protestantism was cut short, the interests of the Bavarian and Austrian dynasties thoroughly consolidated with those of the Papacy, and the South enabled to present a strong, united, and in the main a victorious opposition to the North. Among the secondary causes were the retention of the imperial power by the house of Hapsburg, and the constantly available implement which was thus put in their hands for interfering with the chronic quarrels and jealousies of their rivals. So long as the machinery of the Empire, election and jurisdiction, was kept up, so long as the three ecclesiastical electorates continued Catholic, and the King of Bohemia's vote gave the Austrians a majority in the electoral college, so long it was in the power of the Austrian house to play off their opponents at their discretion. This had been early apparent when Charles V. broke the power of the Smalkaldic league, by setting up Maurice as competitor to his cousin in the Saxon Electorate; and as long as the Empire lasted this weapon remained effective. It was unquestionably a great fulcrum, by which Austria stopped the progress of Protestantism; Protestantism which it hated no doubt for its own sake sufficiently, but scarcely less because in the political programme of the Protestant North the first article was its own humiliation."—W. Stubbs, *Lectures on European history* (A. Hassall, ed.), pp. 279-282.

1618-1620.—**Thirty Years' War: Hostilities in Bohemia precipitated by Ferdinand.—His election to the imperial throne and his deposition in Bohemia.—Acceptance of the Bohemian crown by Frederick, the Palatine elector.—His unsupported situation.—Treaty of Ulm.—The destructive conflict known as the "Thirty Years' War" began in Bohemia. A violation of the Protestant rights guaranteed by the "letter of majesty" provoked a rising under Count Thurn. Two of the King's councilors, with their secretary, were flung from a high window of the royal castle, May 23, 1618; a provisional government of thirty directors was set up, and the King's authority set aside. "The emperor was not a little disconcerted when he received the news of what was passing [in Bohemia]. For whence could he receive the aid necessary to put down these revolutionary acts and restore order in Bohemia? Discontent, indeed, was scarcely less formidably expressed even in his Austrian territories, whilst in Hungary its demonstration was equally as serious. Conciliation appeared to be the only means of preserving to the house of Austria that important country, and even the confessor and usual counsellor of the emperor, Cardinal Klesel, the most zealous opponent of the**

Protestants, advised that course. But such considerations were most strenuously opposed by young Ferdinand. . . . At his instigation, and that of the other archdukes, backed by the pope, the pacific Cardinal Klesel was unexpectedly arrested, and charged with a variety of crimes. The intention was to remove him from the presence of the old and weak emperor, who was now without support, and obliged to resign all to the archdukes. From this moment the impotency of the emperor was complete, and all hopes of an amicable pacification of Bohemia lost. The Bohemians, likewise, took to arms, and possessed themselves of every city in their country as far as Budweis and Pilsen, which were still occupied by the imperial troops. They obtained assistance, quite unlooked for, in the person of one who may be regarded as one of the most remarkable heroes of that day. . . . Count Ernest of Mansfeld, a warrior from his youth, was of a bold and enterprising spirit; he had already encountered many dangers, and had just been raising some troops for the Duke of Savoy against the Spaniards. The duke, who now no longer required them, gave him permission to serve in the cause of the Evangelical Union in Germany; and by that body he was despatched with 3,000 men to Bohemia, as having apparently received his appointment from that country. He appeared there quite unexpectedly, and immediately took from the imperial army the important city of Pilsen [November 21, 1618]. . . . The Emperor Matthias died on the 10th of March, 1619, . . . and the Bohemians, who acknowledged his sovereignty while living, now resolved to renounce his successor Ferdinand, whose hostile intentions were already too clearly expressed. Ferdinand [II] attained the throne under circumstances the most perplexing. Bohemia in arms, and threatening Vienna itself with invasion; Silesia and Moravia in alliance with them; Austria much disposed to unite with them; Hungary by no means firmly attached, and externally menaced by the Turks; besides which, encountering in every direction the hatred of the Protestants, against whom his zeal was undisguised. . . . Count Thurn advanced upon Vienna with a Bohemian army. . . . He came before Vienna, and his men fired, even upon the imperial castle itself, where Ferdinand, surrounded by open and secret foes, had taken up his quarters. He dared not leave his capital, for by so doing Austria, and with it the preservation of the empire itself, must have been sacrificed. But his enemies looked upon him as lost; and they already spoke of confining him in a convent, and educating his children in the Protestant faith. . . . Count Thurn was obliged soon to return to Bohemia, as Prague was menaced by the armies of Austria, and Ferdinand availed himself of this moment in order to undertake another hazardous and daring project. . . . He . . . resolved to proceed to Frankfort to attend the election of emperor. The spiritual electors had been gained over; Saxony also adhered closely to the house of Austria; Brandenburg was not unfriendly; hence the opposition of the palatinate alone against him could accomplish nothing; accordingly Ferdinand was unanimously chosen emperor on the 28th of August, 1619." Just two days previously, on the 26th of August, the Bohemians, at a general assembly of the states, had formally deposed Ferdinand from the kingship of their nation, and proceeded to elect another king (Frederick V, elector of the Rhenish palatinate) in his place. "The Catholics proposed the Duke of Savoy and Maximilian of Bavaria, whilst, in the Protestant interest, the Elector John George of Saxony, and Frederick V., of the palatinate,

were put forward. The latter obtained the election, being a son-in-law of King James I, of England, from whom they expected assistance, and who personally was regarded as resolute, magnanimous, and generous. The incorporated provinces of Moravia, Silesia and Lusatia supported the election, and even the Catholic states of Bohemia pledged their fidelity and obedience. Frederick was warned against accepting so dangerous a crown by Saxony, Bavaria, and even by his father-in-law; but his chaplain, Scultetus, and his own consort, Elizabeth, who as the daughter of a king aspired to a royal crown, persuaded him with all their influence to accept it. Frederick was accordingly ruled by them, received the regal dignity in Bohemia, and was crowned at Prague with great pomp on the 25th of October, 1619. . . . Ferdinand in returning from Frankfort passed on to Munich, and there concluded with the Duke of Bavaria that important treaty which secured to him the possession of Bohemia. These two princes had been companions in youth, and the Evangelical Union had by several incautious proceedings irritated the duke. Maximilian undertook the chief command in the cause of the Catholic party, and stipulated with the house of Austria that he should be indemnified for every outlay and loss incurred, to the extent even, if necessary, of the surrender of the territories of Austria itself into his hands. With Spain, also, the emperor succeeded in forming an alliance, and the Spanish general, Spinola, received orders to invade the countries of the palatinate from the Netherlands. Subsequently the Elector of Mentz arranged a convention at Mülhausen with the Elector John George of Saxony, the Elector of Cologne, and the Landgrave Lewis of Darmstadt, wherein it was determined to render all possible assistance to the emperor for the maintenance of his kingdom and the imperial dignity. Frederick, the new Bohemian king, was now left with no other auxiliary but the Evangelical Union; for the Transylvanian prince, Bethlen Gabor, was, notwithstanding all his promises, a very dubious and uncertain ally, whilst the troops he sent into Moravia and Bohemia were not unlike a horde of savage banditti. Meanwhile the union commenced its preparations for war, as well as the league. The whole of Germany resembled a grand depot for recruiting. Every eye was directed to the Swabian district, where the two armies were to meet; there, however, at Ulm, on the 3rd of July, 1620, they unexpectedly entered into a compact in which the forces of the union engaged to lay down their arms, and both parties pledged each other to preserve peace and tranquillity. The unionists felt themselves too weak to maintain the contest, since Saxony was now likewise against them, and Spinola threatened them from the Netherlands. It was, however, a great advantage for the emperor, that Bohemia was excluded from this treaty, for now the forces of the league were at liberty to aid him in subjugating his royal adversary. Maximilian of Bavaria therefore immediately took his departure, and on his way reduced the states of Upper Austria to the obedience due to Ferdinand, joined the imperial army, and made a spirited attack upon Bohemia. On the other side, the Elector of Saxony took possession of Lusatia in the name of the emperor."—F. Kohlrausch, *History of Germany*, ch. 22.

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *History of England, 1603-1642*, v. 3, ch. 20-32.—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 46-48.—W. Stubbs, *Lectures on European history* (A. Hassall, ed.), pp. 288 ff.



1618-1700.—Rise of Prussia. See PRUSSIA: 1618-1700.

1620.—Thirty Years' War: Disappointment of the Bohemians in their elected king.—Frederick's offensive Calvinism.—Defeat of his army before Prague.—Loss of Bohemian liberties.—Prostration of Protestantism.—“The defection of the Union accelerated the downfall of Frederick; but its cordial support could scarcely have hindered it. For the Bohemians had been disappointed in their king, disappointed in the strength they had expected from him through his connexions, equally disappointed in the man, and in the hopes of protection and sympathy which they had expected from him in the exercise of their religion. Within a month of his coronation the metropolitan church was spoiled of its images, the crucifix cut in pieces, the statues of the saints cast out, broken, and burnt, the ornaments used in divine service, and venerable in the eyes of Catholics and Lutherans alike, scattered here and there, and turned upside down with contempt and execration. These proceedings, which were presumed, not without reason, to have the king's authority—for during their enactment the court chaplain addressed the people in praise of this purgation of the temple—called forth loud complaints and increased the disaffection which, more than any external force brought against Frederick, produced his ruin. Early in November Maximilian appeared before Prague, and found the Bohemians, under Christian van Anhalt, skilfully and strongly posted on the Weissenberg [White Mountain] to offer battle. [Maximilian's colleagues in the leadership of the imperial army were Tilly and Bucquoi.] The cautious Bucquoi would have declined the offer, and attacked the city from another point; but an enthusiastic friar who broke in upon the conference of the leaders, and, exhibiting a mutilated image of the Virgin, reproached them with their hesitation, put to flight all timid counsels. The battle began at twelve o'clock. It was a Sunday, the octave of the festival of All Saints [November 8, 1620]. . . . In the Catholic army Bucquoi was at the head of the Imperial division. Tilly commanded in chief, and led the front to the battle. He was received with a heavy fire; and for half an hour the victory trembled in the balance; then the Hungarians, who had been defeated by the Croats the day before, fled, and all the efforts of the Duke of Saxe Weimar to rally them proved fruitless. Soon the whole Bohemian army, Germans, English, horse and foot, fled in disorder. One gallant little band of Moravians only, under the Count of Thurn and the young Count of Sehlick, maintained their position, and, with the exception of their leaders, fell almost to a man. The battle lasted only an hour; but the victory was not the less complete. A hundred banners, ten guns, and a rich spoil fell into the hands of the victors. Four thousand of the Bohemian army, but scarcely as many hundreds of their opponents (if we may believe their account), lay dead upon the field. . . . Frederick had returned from the army the day before, with the intelligence that the Bavarians were only eight (English) miles distant; but relying on the 28,000 men which he had to cover his capital, he felt that night no uneasiness. . . . He had invited the English ambassadors to dine; and he remained to entertain them. After dinner he mounted his horse to ride to the Star Park; but before he could get out of the city gate, he was met with the news of the total overthrow of his army. His negotiations with Maximilian failing, or receiving no answer, the next morning he prepared for flight. . . . Accompanied

by his queen, Van Anhalt, the Prince of Hohenlohe, and the Count of Thurn, he made a precipitate retreat from Prague, leaving behind him the insignia of that monarchy which he had not the wisdom to firmly establish, nor resolution to defend to the last. It must be confessed, however, that his position, after the defeat at Prague, was not altogether so promising, and consequently his abandonment of his capital not altogether so pusillanimous, as some have represented.”—B. Chapman, *History of Gustavus Adolphus*, ch. 5.—See also BOHEMIA: 1621-1648.

ALSO IN: C. A. Peschek, *Reformation and Anti-Reformation in Bohemia*, v. 1, ch. 9.—S. R. Gardiner, *Thirty Years' War*, ch. 3, sect. 1.

1621-1623—Thirty Years' War: Elector Palatine placed under the ban.—Dissolution of the Evangelical Union.—Invasion and conquest of the Palatinate.—Transfer of the electoral dignity to the duke of Bavaria.—“Never, probably, in European history had been a reverse so sudden and so entire as that of Frederick of Bohemia; the victory of the Weissenberg made him in a moment a beggar and an exile. But it did not follow immediately that Ferdinand's position became correspondingly strong, or strong enough to enable him to be merciful. He determined to hold no terms with either the usurper or his supporters, and he was not the man at any time to temporise or to make any secret of his intentions. . . . Outside of Germany, the world had enough to do to mind its own business just now. James I. was deep in the plans of the Spanish marriage. France was just beginning a religious war waged by the Court against the Protestants under Bohan and Soubise. The truce of twelve years, made between the United Provinces and Spain, was on the point of expiring (April 10, 1621), and, as soon as hostilities should recommence, Spinola would have to be recalled from the Palatinate. In Spain Philip III. was approaching the end of his reign, and although he was well disposed, as he had shown, towards the Austrian branch of his house, any attempt at common action was viewed with the greatest jealousy by both France and the Italian powers; it was at this moment proved by the resistance opposed by France and Venice to the attempt made by the Spanish and Austrian armies to seize the Valtelline and so establish a communication between Milan and the Tyrol. Ferdinand, in view of these complications, seeing that any moment might so alter the state of affairs as to throw the forces that were now keeping one another in suspension into energetic action, determined that on his part no time should be lost. He could not afford to be merciful; he might as well push his severities to the point of vindictiveness. The [Protestant] Union had had in November a meeting at Heilbronn at which nothing was done. The imperial policy was to strike such terror into it that it should fall to pieces. On January 22, 1621, Ferdinand took a first and most decided step. He published from Vienna the ban of the Empire against Frederick the Count Palatine, John George of Brandenburg-Jägerndorf, the Count of Hohenlohe, and Christian of Anhalt: the execution of the ban in the Upper Palatinate was entrusted to Maximilian of Bavaria, and in the Lower to the Archduke Albert, sovereign of the Netherlands. At the same time the Emperor prepared to take savage revenge on the Bohemians; forty of the leaders of the insurgents were arrested, and after four months' imprisonment twenty-three of them were put to death: Count Thurn and twenty-seven others who had fled were proscribed and their estates forfeited: a proclama-

tion was issued directing all landholders who had been implicated in the rebellion to sue for pardon, or to suffer entire confiscation in case of subsequent information. Over seven hundred nobles submitted and had their lives spared, but their estates were seized, and their families beggared. The whole fabric of society in Bohemia was subverted. . . . These proceedings of Ferdinand are in themselves indefensible. They were impolitic as well as unjust. It may be true that the Bohemians had no constitutional standing-ground, for they had prosecuted internecine war against their king and could have no claim to the mercies of a constitution which they not less than their oppressor had set at nought, but the ruthless, relentless character of the revenge was more likely to inspire the remaining enemies of Austria with a desperate spirit of resistance than to frighten them into hopeless submission. And the proceedings against Frederick were carried out in defiance of the constitution of the Empire, without the consent, against the wish, of the electoral body, and in breach of the capitulation made at the election of a new Emperor. All this Ferdinand overlooked in his anxiety to make an end of Frederick and out of his estates to find means for repaying the services of Bavaria and Saxony, getting his own dominions out of pawn. At the moment these severities were successful. A meeting of the Catholic League in February alarmed the Union into the expectation of a general attack; and on April 12, at Mentz, peace between the League and the Union was concluded. Peace was made also between Spinola [commanding the Spanish auxiliaries from the Netherlands] and the Union, who could not wait even for the week that intervened before the truce between Spain and Holland expired; and almost immediately after the Evangelical Union broke up, having done no work except the production of the Thirty Years' War, in which on every occasion it shirked fighting. The Palatinate was thus left in the hands of Spinola, save the three towns that held out for Frederick, and these were besieged in execution of the ban. Now, however, there is again a turn in the tide. The King of Spain died on March 31, 1621; the truce between Holland and Spain expired on April 21; and on July 13 the Archduke Albert died at Brussels. Spinola was recalled from the Palatinate, the forces being placed under Gonzalvo de Cordova; and at the other side of the Empire, the force of Bethlen Gabor [prince of Transylvania, a famous member of an old Hungarian family] was increased by the arrival of the Bohemian refugees, with whose aid he defeated Boucquoi at Neuhausel, the imperial commander falling in the battle [see also HUNGARY: 1606-1660]. Just now for the first time we find Christian of Denmark beginning to move, calling together the estates of Lower Saxony and giving signs of the action that he took two years later. But all interest now centres in Mansfeld, whom we left at Pilsen in November, and who still kept the standard of Frederick hoisted in Bohemia. Tilly was the general pitted against him by Ferdinand, and they were well matched; both were brilliant generals, strong religious partisans, and unscrupulous men. Mansfeld is known chiefly as a plunderer and ravager, Tilly as a sacker of cities; both of them have had their admirers, Mansfeld among the Puritans, Tilly among the Jesuits. Both of them may have had redeeming points; but they do not come out in history. For many months they watched one another with very inferior forces. Mansfeld had about 8,000 men, Tilly had not many more; the

imperial army in Hungary had sunk to 8,000 men too. At length the Elector of Saxony came into the field with 5,000 men, and Tilly got some other reinforcements. Mansfeld had exhausted the resources of the country and the patience of the people. Pilsen was surrendered by his men against his will, and he was compelled to leave Bohemia; by a forced march of singular daring he struck across the Upper Palatinate, what is now the north-eastern part of Bavaria, and encamped at Bosskopf, near Nuremberg. Tilly was hot in pursuit, and Mansfeld made proposals to surrender. Whilst these were in consideration, on October 4, he broke out of his entrenchments in the night and marched at full speed into the Lower Palatinate, where he was joined by the English contingent, making up an army of 20,000 men. With these he expelled Gonzalvo and the Spaniards, relieved Mannheim, Heidelberg, and Frankenthal, and revived the hopes of Frederick. Tilly failed to prevent the union of the forces, and as the winter approached hostilities, as usual, ceased. Mansfeld took his army to Alsace, where they could find subsistence by exactions from the Emperor's subjects, and there he was joined by Frederick. The Margrave of Baden put his army in preparation; the Duke of Würtemberg also moved, and Christian of Brunswick set to work on the Protestants of Lower Saxony—in pursuance of the line taken by the King of Denmark early in the year. But before these successful proceedings of Mansfeld and his allies gained anything like completeness, the luck of Ferdinand on the Hungarian and Silesian frontiers had put him in a condition to make Western Germany the chief seat of the war. Silesia had made complete submission in October. In January 1622, by the peace of Niklasburg, Bethlen Gabor reconciled himself with Ferdinand, resigned the title of King and surrendered the regalia, receiving from Ferdinand in return large endowments in lands, titles, and treasure. . . . The interest of the year 1622 depends on the military movements of Tilly against Mansfeld, the Margrave George Frederick of Baden Durlach, and Christian of Brunswick. The margrave was an unlucky man; he had been one of the supporters of Frederick's election to Bohemia, and by his consent to let the Austrian troops cross from Alsace through his territories towards Bohemia had acted, unfortunately and against his own will, in a manner fatal to the elector's interest. Now he determined to devote himself entirely to the cause; going so far as to divest himself of his dominions in favour of his son lest the house should suffer, by his incurring the imperial ban. Christian of Brunswick was a different sort of man, much more of the selfish adventurer: he was a young man, a violent and cruel persecutor. As Bishop of Halberstadt he had a stake in the Protestant cause which made him an irreconcilable foe to the Catholics; his atrocities on the priests were such that it was said they believed him to be Antichrist in person. He, however, was a much more able general than the margrave. These three armies, then, supported the Palatine or Protestant cause against Tilly, and together they would have been too much for him. At Mingolsheim, on April 29, 1622, he was beaten by Mansfeld and the margrave; and took care not to meet them together again. The separation between the two, caused by an attempt of the margrave to penetrate into Bavaria, gave him his opportunity: he met and defeated the army of Baden at Wimpfen on the Neckar on May 6; left Mansfeld to tire himself at the siege of Ladenburg, and marched to meet

Christian. Him he met at Höchst on the Main on June 20, and beat him, pursued him until he joined Mansfeld, and then drove them both into Alsace. They were still far from discouraged; the Protestant feeling of Germany was but half roused, when all at once Frederick let them down and left them without a legal standing-ground. [He was persuaded by his father-in-law James I. of England to trust his cause to negotiations in which the latter was being duped by the emperor.] . . . Christian and Mansfeld, finding themselves forsaken, looked out for an escape. Mansfeld even entered into negotiations for taking service with the Emperor, whose most dangerous enemy he had been so long. At length, however, they determined to join Maurice in the Netherlands. They pushed accordingly from Alsace, through to Verdun; there they parted, Mansfeld passing through Champagne, to the terror of the French, and Christian through Bouillon and Luxemburg. They met again at Breda, and there strengthened Maurice so thoroughly that he was able to raise the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom. At Fleury in Hainault Mansfeld met Cordova on August 29, and a severe engagement followed, but he succeeded in making his way to Breda. The Margrave of Baden submitted to the Emperor and disbanded his forces. Tilly was now free to repossess himself of the Palatinate, and to anticipate the claims which the Spaniards by whose armies it had been overrun might make upon it. This was speedily done. On September 6, Heidelberg was taken by assault; Mannheim capitulated; and with the exception of Frankenthal, Frederick had no longer a spot of ground that acknowledged him. Ferdinand was contemplating a measure that would seal his deprivation; the transfer of the electoral dignity to the other branch of the Wittelsbachs, in the person of Maximilian of Bavaria, whose claims on Upper Austria he intended to buy off by a gift of the Upper Palatinate. His preparations for this severe act were completed in the winter; and a Diet . . . met at Ratisbon on November 24, 1622. . . . Ferdinand managed, by playing off the smaller princes against one another, as their family disputes very generally enabled him to do, to get his own way at last. The question was considered from January 7 to February 25, 1623, and on the latter day the Emperor formally declared the electoral vote transferred from the elder to the younger branch of the Wittelsbachs, as Charles V. had transferred that of Saxony from the Ernestine to the Albertine line of Wettin. The new elector was recognised by all his fellows, Brandenburg alone objecting; and by the ambassadors of France. The Elector of Saxony was put in possession of Lusatia; Lewis of Darmstadt was reconciled by the investiture of Marburg; Christian of Anhalt was admitted to favour; John George of Hohenzollern was made a Prince of the Empire. But although the Diet had been thus easily managed, Mansfeld and Christian were far too active and determined to allow this to be a settlement of all claims. Mansfeld during the winter had led his forces into East Friesland, the Count of which country was friendly to the Emperor, and had there, as usual, maintained them by pillage. Christian had again stirred up the princes of Lower Saxony; they had formed a league, of which the King of Denmark, the Elector of Brandenburg, the Dukes of Brunswick, Holstein, and Mecklenburg were members: which avowed as its object the defence of the country against Tilly on one side and Mansfeld on the other, but which Christian intended to use for the recovery of the Palatinate.

Before the Diet of Ratisbon separated, which was in March, the Emperor found it necessary to send Tilly to break up this combination. The princes urged Christian to make his submission to Ferdinand; and he found it necessary to evacuate Westphalia. On his way to join Mansfeld in East Friesland, Tilly overtook him at Stadtholm on August 6, and thoroughly routed him. After some months manœuvring they found themselves helpless and the country they were occupying exhausted; and in January 1624 these two renowned adventurers broke up their forces."—W. Stubbs, *Lectures on European history* (A. Hassall, ed.), pp. 298-305.

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*.—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War*.—F. Schiller, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 2.—C. R. Markham, *Fighting Veres*, pt. 2.

1624-1626. — French ambitions. — Richelieu's policy and the Thirty Years' War. See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

1624-1626.—Thirty Years' War: Alliance of England, Holland, and Denmark to support Protestant cause.—Creation of the imperial army of Wallenstein, and its first campaigns.—"Had the Emperor been as wise as he was resolute, it is probable that, victorious in every direction, he might have been able to conclude a permanent peace with the Protestant Party. But the bigotry which was a very part of his nature was spurred on by his easy triumphs to refuse to sheathe the sword until heresy had been rooted out from the land. In vain did the Protestant princes, who had maintained a selfish and foolish neutrality, remonstrate against the continuance of hostilities after the avowed object for which those hostilities were undertaken had been gained. In the opinion of Ferdinand II. the real object still remained to be accomplished. Under these critical circumstances the emigrants, now grown numerous [see BOHEMIA: 1621-1648], and the awakened Protestant princes, earnestly besought the aid of a foreign power. It was their representations which at length induced three nations of the reformed faith—England, Holland, and Denmark—to ally themselves to assist their oppressed brethren [see also FRANCE: 1624-1626]. England agreed to send subsidies, Holland to supply troops. The command of the delivering army was confided to Christian IV., King of Denmark (1625) [as duke of Holstein he was a prince of the empire]. He was to be supported in Germany by the partisan Mansfeldt, by Prince Christian of Brunswick, and by the Protestants of Lower Saxony, who had armed themselves to resist the exactions of the Emperor. Ferdinand II., after vainly endeavouring to ward off hostilities by negotiations, despatched Tilly to the Weser to meet the enemy. Tilly followed the course of that river as far as Minden, causing to be occupied, as he marched, the places which commanded its passage. Pursuing his course northwards, he crossed the river at Neuburg (midway between Minden and Bremen), and occupied the principality of Kalenberg. The King of Denmark was near at hand, in the Duchy of Brunswick, anxious, for the moment, to avoid a battle. Tilly, superior to him in numbers, was as anxious to fight one. As though the position of the King of Denmark were not already sufficiently embarrassing, the Emperor proceeded at this period to make it almost unendurable by launching upon him likewise an imperial army. . . . Up to the period of the complete overthrow and expulsion from the Palatinate of Frederick V., ex-King of Bohemia, Ferdinand had been indebted for all his successes to Maximilian of Ba-

varia. It was Maximilian who, as head of the Holy League, had reconquered Bohemia for the Emperor: it was Maximilian's general, Tilly, who had driven the Protestant armies from the Palatinate; and it was the same general who was now opposing the Protestants of the north in the lands watered by the Weser. Maximilian had been rewarded by the cession to him of the Palatinate, but it was not advisable that so near a neighbour of Austria should be made too strong. It was this feeling, this jealousy of Maximilian, which now prompted Ferdinand to raise, for the first time in this war, an imperial army, and to send it to the north. This army was raised by and at the expense of Albert Wenzel Eusebius of Waldstein, known in history as Wallenstein. A Czech by nationality, born in 1583 of noble parents, who belonged to one of the most advanced sects of the reformers but who died whilst their son was yet young, Wallenstein had, when yet a child, been committed to the care of his uncle, Albert Slavata, an adherent of the Jesuits, and by him educated at

latter, and, though his troops were fewer in number, took up a position at Dessau in full view of the imperial camp, and there entrenched himself. Here Wallenstein attacked (25th April 1626) and completely defeated him. Not discouraged by this overthrow, and still bearing in mind the main object of the campaign, Mansfeldt fell back into Brandenburg, recruited there his army, called to himself the Duke of Saxe-Weimar and then suddenly dashed, by forced marches, towards Silesia and Moravia, with the intention of reaching Hungary, where Bethlen Gabor had promised to meet him." Wallenstein followed and "pressed him so hard that, though Mansfeldt did effect a junction with Bethlen Gabor, it was with but the skeleton of his army. Despairing of success against numbers vastly superior, Bethlen Gabor withdrew from his new colleague, and Mansfeldt, reduced to despair, disbanded his remaining soldiers, and sold his camp-equipage to supply himself with the means of flight (September). He died soon after (30th November). . . . Wallenstein then retraced his steps



TILLY



WALLENSTEIN

Olmütz in the strictest Catholic faith." By marrying, first, a rich widow, who soon died, and then an heiress, daughter of Count Harrach, and by purchasing with the fortune thus acquired many confiscated estates, he had become possessed of enormous wealth. He had already won distinction as a soldier. "For his faithful services, Ferdinand in 1623 nominated Wallenstein to be Prince, a title changed, the year following, into that of Duke of Friedland. At this time the yearly income he derived from his various estates, all economically managed, was calculated to be 30,000,000 florins—little short of £2,500,000." Wallenstein now, in 1625, "divining his master's wishes, and animated by the ambition born of natural ability, offered to raise and maintain, at his own cost, an army of 50,000 men, and to lead it against the enemy. Ferdinand eagerly accepted the offer. Named Generalissimo and Field Marshal in July of the same year, Wallenstein marched at the head of 30,000 men, a number which increased almost daily, first to the Weser, thence, after noticing the positions of Tilly and of King Christian, to the banks of the Elbe, where he wintered. . . . In the spring . . . Mansfeldt, with the view to prevent a junction between Tilly and Wallenstein, marched against the

to the north. Meanwhile Tilly, left to deal with Christian IV, had followed that prince into Lower Saxony, had caught, attacked, and completely defeated him at Lutter (am Barenberge), the 27th July 1626. This victory gave him complete possession of that disaffected province, and despite a vigorous attempt made by the Margrave George Frederic of Baden to wrest it from him, he held it till the return of Wallenstein from the pursuit of Mansfeldt. As two stars of so great a magnitude could not shine in the same hemisphere, it was then decided that Tilly should carry the war into Holland, whilst to Wallenstein should be left the honour of dealing with the King of Denmark and the Protestant princes of the north."—G. B. Malleon, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 1.—See also HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

ALSO IN: W. Zimmerman, *Popular history of Germany*, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 2.

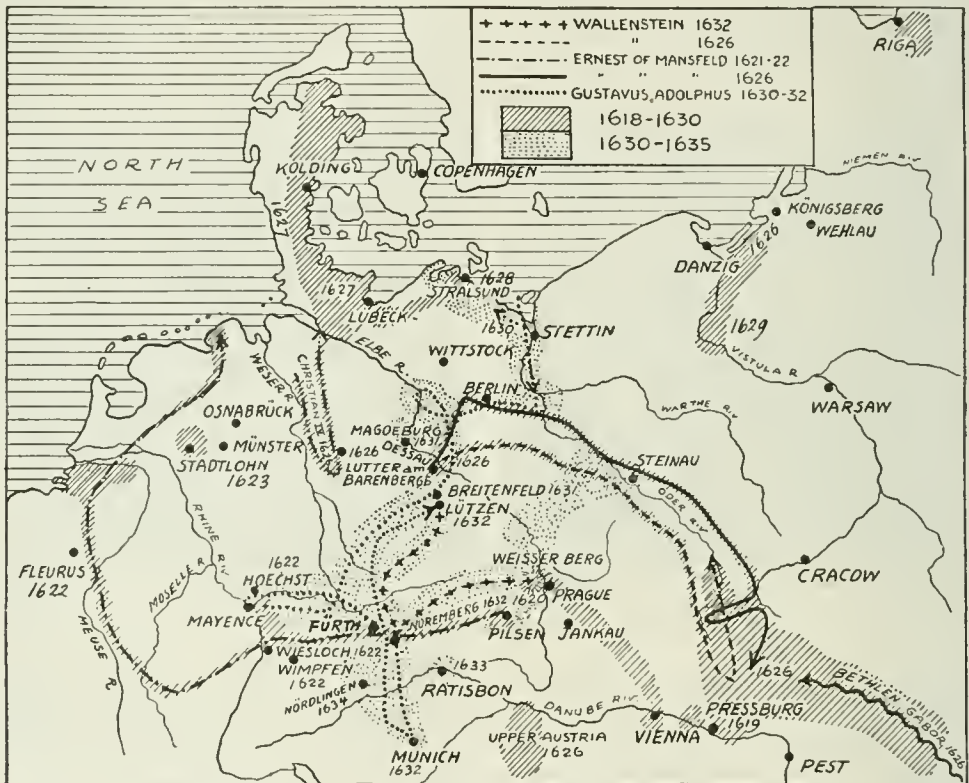
1627-1629.—Thirty Years' War: Wallenstein's campaign against the Danes.—His power and his oppression in Germany.—Country devoured by his army.—Unsuccessful siege of Stralsund.—First succor from the king of Sweden.—Peace of Lübeck.—Edict of Restitution.—"Wallenstein opened the campaign of 1627 at the head of a re-

freshed and well-equipped army of 40,000 men. His first effort was directed against Silesia; and the Danish troops, few in number, and ill commanded, gave way at his approach. To prevent the fugitives from infringing on the neutrality of Brandenburg, he occupied the whole electorate. Mecklenburg and Pomerania soon shared the same fate. Remonstrances and assurances of perfect neutrality were treated with absolute scorn; and Wallenstein declared, in his usual haughty style, that 'the time had arrived for dispensing altogether with electors; and that Germany ought to be governed like France and Spain, by a single and absolute sovereign.' In his rapid march towards the frontiers of Holstein, he acted fully up to the principle he had laid down, and naturally exercised despotic power, as the representative of the absolute monarch of whom he spoke. . . . He . . . followed up the Danes, defeated their armies in a series of actions near Heiligenhausen, overran the whole peninsula of Jutland before the end of the campaign, and forced the unhappy king to seek shelter, with the wrecks of his army, in the islands beyond the Belt. . . . Brilliant as the campaign of 1627 proved in its general result, few very striking feats of arms were performed during its progress. . . . Now it was that the princes and states of Lower Germany began to feel the consequences of their pusillanimous conduct; and the very provinces which had just before refused to raise troops for their own protection, were obliged to submit, without a murmur, to every species of insult and exaction. Wallenstein's army, augmented to 100,000 men, occupied the whole country; and the lordly leader following, on a far greater scale, the principle on which Mansfeld had acted, made the war maintain the war, and trampled alike on the rights of sovereigns and of subjects. And terrible was the penalty now paid for the short-sighted policy which avarice and cowardice had suggested, and which cunning had vainly tried to disguise beneath affected philanthropy, and a generous love of peace. Provided with imperial authority, and at the head of a force that could no longer be resisted, Wallenstein made the empire serve as a vast storehouse, and wealthy treasury for the benefit of the imperial army. He forbade even sovereigns and electors to raise supplies in their own countries, and was justly termed 'the princes' scourge and soldiers' idol.' The system of living by contributions had completely demoralised the troops. Honour and discipline were entirely gone; and it was only beneath the eye of the stern and unrelenting commander, that anything like order continued to be observed. Dissipation and profligacy, reigned in all ranks: bands of dissolute persons accompanied every regiment, and helped to extinguish the last sparks of morality in the breast of the soldier. The generals levied arbitrary taxes; the inferior officers followed the example of their superiors; and the privates, soon ceasing to obey those whom they ceased to respect, plundered in every direction; while blows, insults, or death awaited all who dared to resist. . . . The sums extorted, in this manner, prove that Germany must have been a wealthy country in the 17th century. . . . Complaints against the author of such evils were, of course, not wanting; but the man complained of had rendered the Emperor all-powerful in Germany: from the Adriatic to the Baltic, Ferdinand reigned absolute, as no monarch had reigned since the days of the Othos. This supremacy was due to Wallenstein alone; and what could the voice of the humble and oppressed effect against such an offender? Or when did the voice of suffering nations, arrest the progress of power and ambi-

tion? During the winter that followed on the campaign of 1627, Wallenstein repaired to Prague, to claim [and to receive] from the Emperor, who was residing in the Bohemian capital, additional rewards for the important services so lately rendered. The boon solicited was nothing less than the Duchy of Mecklenburg, which was to be taken from its legitimate princes, on the ground of their having joined the King of Denmark, and bestowed on the successful general. . . . Hitherto the ocean had alone arrested the progress of Wallenstein: a fleet was now to be formed, which should enable him to give laws beyond the Belts, and perhaps beyond the Baltic also. Every seaport in Mecklenburg and Pomerania is ordered to be taken possession of and fortified. . . . The siege of Stralsund, which was resolved upon early in 1628, constitutes one of the most memorable operations of the war. Not merely because it furnishes an additional proof of what may be effected by skill, courage and resolution, against vastly superior forces, but because its result influenced, in an eminent degree, some of the most important events that followed. When Wallenstein ordered the seaports along the coast of Pomerania to be occupied, Stralsund, claiming its privilege as an imperial and Hanseatic free town, refused to admit his troops. . . . After a good deal of negotiation, which only cost the people of Stralsund some large sums of money, paid away in presents to the imperial officers, Arnheim [Hans Georg von Arnim-Boytzenburg, Wallenstein's field marshal] invested the place on the 7th of May with 8,000 men. . . . The town, . . . unable to obtain assistance from the Duke of Pomerania, the lord superior of the province, who, however willing, had no means of furnishing relief, placed itself under the protection of Sweden: and Gustavus Adolphus, fully sensible of the importance of the place, immediately dispatched the celebrated David Leslie, at the head of 600 men, to aid in its defence. Count Brahe, with 1,000 more, soon followed; so that when Wallenstein reached the army on the 27th of June, he found himself opposed by a garrison of experienced soldiers, who had already retaken all the outworks which Arnheim had captured in the first instance. . . . Rain began to fall in such torrents that the trenches were entirely filled, and the flat moor ground, on which the army was encamped, became completely inundated and untenable. The proud spirit of Friedland, unused to yield, still persevered; but sickness attacked the troops, and the Danes having landed at Jasmund, he was obliged to march against them with the best part of his forces; and in fact to raise the siege. . . . The Danes having effected their object, in causing the siege of Stralsund to be raised, withdrew their troops from Jasmund, and landed them again at Wolgast. Here, however, Wallenstein surprised, and defeated them with great loss. . . . There being on all sides a willingness to bring the war to an end, peace was . . . concluded at Lübeck in January 1629. By this treaty the Danes recovered, without reserve or indemnity, all their former possessions; only pledging themselves not again to interfere in the affairs of the Empire. . . . The peace of Lübeck left Wallenstein absolute master in Germany, and without an equal in greatness: his spirit seemed to hover like a storm-charged cloud over the land, crushing to the earth every hope of liberty and successful resistance. Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick had disappeared from the scene; Frederick V. had retired into obscurity. Tilly and Pappenheim, his former rivals, now condescended to receive favours, and to solicit pensions and rewards through the medium of his intercession.

Even Maximilian of Bavaria was second in greatness to the all-dreaded Duke of Friedland: Europe held no uncrowned head that was his equal in fame, and no crowned head that surpassed him in power. . . . Ferdinand, elated with success, had neglected the opportunity, again afforded him by the peace of Lubbeck, for restoring tranquillity to the empire. . . . Instead of a general peace, Ferdinand signed the fatal Edict of Restitution, by which the Protestants were called upon to restore all the Catholic Church property they had sequestered since the religious pacification of 1555 [Peace of Augsburg]: such sequestration being, according to the Emperor's interpretation, contrary to the spirit of the treaty of Passau. The right of long-established possession was here entirely overlooked; and Ferdinand forgot, in his zeal for the

books, bibles and catechisms were seized; and gibbets were erected to terrify those who might be disposed to resist. All Protestants who refused to change their religion were expelled from Augsburg: summary proceedings of the same kind were resorted to in other places. Armed with absolute power, the commissioners soon proceeded from reclaiming the property of the church to seize that of individuals. The estates of all persons who had served under Mansfeld, Baden, Christian of Brunswick; of all who had aided Frederick V., or rendered themselves obnoxious to the Emperor, were seized and confiscated. . . . The Duke of Friedland, who now ruled with dictatorial sway over Germany, had been ordered to carry the Edict of Restitution into effect, in all the countries occupied by his troops. The task, if we believe historians, was



TERRITORY IN WHICH THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR WAS FOUGHT

church, that he was actually setting himself up as a judge, in a case in which he was a party also. It was farther added, that, according to the same treaty, freedom of departure from Catholic countries, was the only privilege which Protestants had a right to claim from Catholic princes. This decree came like a thunderburst over Protestant Germany. Two archbishopricks, 12 bishopricks, and a countless number of convents and clerical domains, which the Protestants had confiscated, and applied to their own purposes, were now to be surrendered. Imperial commissioners were appointed to carry the mandate into effect, and, to secure immediate obedience, troops were placed at the disposal of the new officials. Wherever these functionaries appeared, the Protestant service was instantly suspended; the churches deprived of their bells; altars and pulpits pulled down; all Protestant

executed with unbending rigour."—J. Mitchell, *Life of Wallenstein*, ch. 2-3.

ALSO IN: L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 33.

1627-1631.—War of the emperor and Spain with France over the succession to the duchy of Mantua. See ITALY: 1627-1631.

1630.—Thirty Years' War: Universal hostility to Wallenstein.—His dismissal by the emperor.—Rising of a new champion of protestantism in Sweden.—"Wallenstein had ever shown great toleration in his own domains; but it is not to be denied that . . . he aided to carry out the edict [Restitution] in the most barbarous and relentless manner. It would be as tedious as painful to dwell upon all the cruelties which were committed, and the oppression that was exercised, by the imperial commissioners; but a spirit of resist-

ance was aroused in the hearts of the German people, which only waited for opportunity to display itself. Nor was it alone against the emperor that wrath and indignation were excited. Wallenstein drew down upon his head even more dangerous enmity than that which sprung up against Ferdinand. He ruled in Germany with almost despotic sway; for the emperor himself seemed at this time little more than a tool in his hands. His manners were unpopular, stern, reserved, and gloomy. . . . Princes were kept waiting in his antechamber; and all petitions and remonstrances against his stern decrees were treated with the mortifying scorn which adds insult to injury. The magnificence of his train, the splendor of his household, the luxury and profusion that spread everywhere around him, afforded continual sources of envy and jealous hate to the ancient nobility of the empire. The Protestants throughout the land were his avowed and implacable enemies; and the Roman Catholic princes viewed him with fear and suspicion. Maximilian of Bavaria, whose star had waned under the growing luster of Wallenstein's renown, who had lost that authority in the empire which he knew to be due to his services and his genius, solely by the rise and influence of Wallenstein, and whose ambitious designs of ruling Germany through an emperor dependent upon him for power, had been frustrated entirely by the genius which placed the imperial throne upon a firm and independent basis, took no pains to conceal his hostility to the Duke of Friedland. . . . Though the soldiery still generally loved him, their officers hated the hand that put a limit to the oppression by which they thrived, and would fain have resisted its power. . . . While these feelings were gathering strength in Germany; while Wallenstein, with no friends, though many supporters, saw himself an object of jealousy or hatred to the leaders of every party throughout the empire; and while the suppressed but cherished indignation of all Protestant Germany was preparing for the emperor a dreadful day of reckoning, events were taking place in other countries which hurried on rapidly the dangers that Wallenstein had foreseen. In France, a weak king, and a powerful, politic, and relentless minister, appeared in undissembled hostility to the house of Austria; and the famous Cardinal de Richelieu busied himself, successfully, to raise up enemies to the German branch of that family. . . . In Poland, Sigismund [III, who claimed the Swedish crown], after vainly contending with Gustavus Adolphus [king of Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1611-1620], and receiving an inefficient aid from Germany, was anxious to conclude the disastrous war with Sweden. Richelieu interfered; Oxenstiern [Count Axel Gustafsson Oxenstjerna (1583-1654), chancellor of Sweden] negotiated on the part of Gustavus; and a truce of six years was concluded in August, 1629, by which the veteran and victorious Swedish troops were set free to act in any other direction. A great part of Livonia was virtually ceded to Gustavus, together with the towns and territories of Memel, Braunsberg and Elbingen, and the strong fortress of Pillau. At the same time, Richelieu impressed upon the mind of Gustavus the honor, the advantage, and the necessity of reducing the immense power of the emperor, and delivering the Protestant states of Germany from the oppression under which they groaned. . . . Confident in his own powers of mind and warlike skill, supported by the love and admiration of his people, relying on the valor and discipline of his troops, and foreseeing all the mighty combinations which were certain to take place in his favor, Gustavus hesitated but little. He consulted with his ministers, indeed

heard and answered every objection that could be raised; and then applied to the Senate at Stockholm to insure that his plans were approved, and that his efforts would be seconded by his people. His enterprise met with the most enthusiastic approbation; and then succeeded all the bustle of active preparation. . . . While this storm was gathering in the North, while the towns of Sweden were bristling with arms, and her ports filled with ships, Ferdinand was driven or persuaded to an act the most fatal to himself, and the most favorable to the King of Sweden. A Diet was summoned to meet at Ratisbon early in the year 1630; and the chief object of the emperor in taking a step so dangerous to the power he had really acquired, and to the projects so boldly put forth in his name, seems to have been to cause his son to be elected King of the Romans. . . . The name of the archduke, King of Hungary, is proposed to the Diet for election as King of the Romans, and a scene of indescribable confusion and murmuring takes place. A voice demands that, before any such election is considered, the complaints of the people of Germany against the imperial armies shall be heard; and then a perfect storm of accusations pours down. Every sort of tyranny and oppression, every sort of cruelty and exaction, every sort of licentiousness and vice is attributed to the emperor's troops; but the hatred and the charges all concentrate themselves upon the head of the great commander of the imperial forces; and there is a shout for his instant dismissal. . . . Ferdinand hesitated, and affected much surprise at the charges brought against his general and his armies. He yielded in the end, however; and it is said, upon very good authority, that his ruinous decision was brought about by the arts of the same skillful politician who had conjured up the storm which now menaced the empire from the north. Richelieu had sent an ambassador to Ratisbon. . . . In the train of the ambassador came the well-known intriguing friar, Father Joseph, the most unscrupulous and cunning of the cardinal's emissaries; and he, we are assured, found means to persuade the emperor that, by yielding to the demand of the electors and removing Wallenstein for a time, he might obtain the election of the King of Hungary, and then reinstate the Duke of Friedland in his command as soon as popular anger had subsided. However that might be, Ferdinand, as I have said, yielded, openly expressing his regret at the step he was about to take, and the apprehensions which he entertained for the consequences. Count Questenberg and another nobleman, who had been long on intimate terms with Wallenstein, were sent to the camp to notify him of his removal from command, and to soften the disgrace by assuring him of the emperor's gratitude and affection."—G. P. R. James, *Dark scenes of history: Wallenstein, ch. 3-4.*

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *Thirty Years' War, ch. 7, sect. 3.*—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War, v. 2, ch. 1.*

1630-1631.—Thirty Years' War: Coming of Gustavus Adolphus.—His occupation of Pomerania and Brandenburg.—Horrible fate of Magdeburg at the hands of Tilly's ruffians.—"On June 24, 1630, one hundred years, to a day, after the Augsburg Confession was promulgated, Gustavus Adolphus landed on the coast of Pomerania, near the mouth of the river Peene, with 13,000 men, veteran troops, whose rigid discipline was sustained by their piety, and who were simple-minded, noble, and glowing with the spirit of the battle. He had reasons enough for declaring war against Ferdinand, even if 10,000 of Wallenstein's troops had not been sent to aid Sigismund against him. But the

controlling motive, in his own mind, was to succor the imperiled cause of religious freedom in Germany. Coming as the protector of the evangelical Church, he expected to be joined by the Protestant princes. But he was disappointed. Only the trampled and tortured people of North Germany, who in their despair were ready for revolts and conspiracies of their own, welcomed him as their deliverer from the bandits of Wallenstein and the League. Gustavus Adolphus appeared before Stettin, and by threats compelled the old duke, Bogislaw XIV. [of Pomerania], to open to him his capital city. He then took measures to secure possession of Pomerania. His army grew rapidly, while that of the emperor was widely dispersed, so that he now advanced into Brandenburg. George William, the elector, was a weak prince, though a Protestant, and a brother of the Queen of Sweden; he was guided by his Catholic chancellor, Schwarzenberg, and had painfully striven to keep neutral throughout the war, neither side, however, respecting his neutrality. In dread of the plans of Gustavus Adolphus concerning Pomerania and Prussia, he held aloof from him. Meanwhile Tilly, general-in-chief of the troops of the emperor and the League, drew near, but suddenly turned aside to New Brandenburg, in the Mecklenburg territory, now occupied by the Swedes, captured it after three assaults, and put the garrison to the sword (1631). He then laid siege to Magdeburg. Gustavus Adolphus took Frankfurt-on-the-Oder, where there was an imperial garrison, and treated it, in retaliation, with the same severity. Thence, in the spring of 1631, he set out for Berlin. . . . In Potsdam he heard of the fall of Magdeburg. He then marched with flying banners into Berlin, and compelled the elector to become his ally. Magdeburg was the strong refuge of Protestantism, and the most important trading centre in North Germany. It had resisted the Augsburg Interim of 1548, and now resisted the Edict of Restitution, rejected the newly appointed prince bishop, Leopold William, son of the emperor himself, and refused to receive the emperor's garrison. The city was therefore banned by the emperor, and was besieged for many weeks by Pappenheim, a general of the League, who was then reinforced by Tilly himself with his army. Gustavus Adolphus was unable to make an advance, in view of the equivocal attitude of the two great Protestant electors, without exposing his rear to garrisoned fortresses. From Brandenburg as well as Saxony he asked in vain for help to save the Protestant city. Thus Magdeburg fell, May 10, 1631. The citizens were deceived by a pretended withdrawal of the enemy. But suddenly, at early dawn, the badly guarded fortifications were stormed."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, ch. 18, sect. 3-4.—Two gates of the city having been opened by the storming party, "Tilly marched in with part of his infantry. Immediately occupying the principal streets, he drove the citizens with pointed cannon into their dwellings, there to await their destiny. They were not long held in suspense; a word from Tilly decided the fate of Magdeburg. Even a more humane general would in vain have recommended mercy to such soldiers; but Tilly never made the attempt. Left by their general's silence masters of the lives of all the citizens, the soldiery broke into the houses to satiate their most brutal appetites. The prayers of innocence excited some compassion in the hearts of the Germans, but none in the rude breasts of Pappenheim's Walloons. Scarcely had the savage cruelty commenced, when the other gates were thrown open, and the cavalry, with the fearful hordes of the Croats, poured in upon the devoted

inhabitants. Here commenced a scene of horrors for which history has no language—poetry no pencil. Neither innocent childhood, nor helpless old age; neither youth, sex, rank, nor beauty, could disarm the fury of the conquerors. Wives were abused in the arms of their husbands, daughters at the feet of their parents; and the defenceless sex exposed to the double sacrifice of virtue and life. No situation, however obscure, or however sacred, escaped the rapacity of the enemy. In a single church fifty-three women were found beheaded. The Croats amused themselves with throwing children into the flames; Pappenheim's Walloons with stabbing infants at the mother's breast. Some officers of the League, horror-struck at this dreadful scene, ventured to remind Tilly that he had it in his power to stop the carnage. 'Return in an hour,' was his answer; 'I will see what I can do; the soldier must have some reward for his danger and toils.' These horrors lasted with unabated fury, till at last the smoke and flames proved a check to the plunderers. To augment the confusion and to divert the resistance of the inhabitants, the Imperialists had, in the commencement of the assault, fired the town in several places. The wind rising rapidly, spread the flames, till the blaze became universal. Fearful, indeed, was the tumult amid clouds of smoke, heaps of dead bodies, the clash of swords, the crash of falling ruins, and streams of blood. The atmosphere glowed; and the intolerable heat forced at last even the murderers to take refuge in their camp. In less than twelve hours, this strong, populous, and flourishing city, one of the finest in Germany, was reduced to ashes, with the exception of two churches and a few houses. . . . The avarice of the officers had saved 400 of the richest citizens, in the hope of extorting from them an exorbitant ransom. But this humanity was confined to the officers of the League, whom the ruthless barbarity of the Imperialists caused to be regarded as guardian angels. Scarcely had the fury of the flames abated, when the Imperialists returned to renew the pillage amid the ruins and ashes of the town. Many were suffocated by the smoke; many found rich booty in the cellars, where the citizens had concealed their more valuable effects. On the 13th of May, Tilly himself appeared in the town, after the streets had been cleared of ashes and dead bodies. Horrible and revolting to humanity was the scene that presented itself. The living crawling from under the dead, children wandering about with heart-rending cries, calling for their parents; and infants still sucking the breasts of their lifeless mothers. More than 6,000 bodies were thrown into the Elbe to clear the streets; a much greater number had been consumed by the flames. The whole number of the slain was reckoned at not less than 30,000. The entrance of the general, which took place on the 14th, put a stop to the plunder, and saved the few who had hitherto contrived to escape. About a thousand people were taken out of the cathedral, where they had remained three days and two nights, without food, and in momentary fear of death."—F. Schiller, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 2.

Also in: E. Cust, *Lives of the warriors of the Thirty Years' War*, pt. 1.

1631 (January).—Thirty Years' War: Treaty of Bärwalde between Gustavus Adolphus and the king of France.—"On the 13th of January, 1631, the Treaty of Bärwalde was concluded between France and Sweden. Hard cash had been the principal subject of the negotiation, and Louis XIII. had agreed to pay Gustavus a lump sum of \$120,000 in consideration of his recent expenditure,



—a further sum of \$400,000 a year for six years to come. Until that time, or until a general peace, if such should supervene earlier, Sweden was to keep in the field an army of 30,000 foot and 6,000 horse. The object of the alliance was declared to be 'the protection of their common friends, the security of the Baltic, the freedom of commerce, the restitution of the oppressed members of the Empire, the destruction of the newly erected fortresses in the Baltic, the North Sea, and in the Grisons territory, so that all should be left in the state in which it was before the German war had begun.' Sweden was not to 'violate the Imperial constitution' where she conquered; she was to leave the Catholic religion undisturbed in all districts where she found it existing. She was to observe towards Bavaria and the League—the spoilt darlings of Richelieu's anti-Austrian policy—friendship or neutrality, so far as they would observe it towards her. If, at the end of six years, the objects were not accomplished, the treaty was to be renewed."—C. R. L. Fletcher, *Gustavus Adolphus and the struggle of Protestantism for existence*, ch. 9.

1631.—Thirty Years' War: Elector of Brandenburg brought to terms by the king of Sweden.—Elector of Saxony frightened into line.—Defeat of Tilly at Leipzig (Breitenfeld).—Effects of the great victory.—"Loud were the cries against Gustavus for not having relieved Magdeburg. To answer them he felt himself bound to publish a careful apology. In this document he declared, among other things, that if he could have obtained from the Elector of Brandenburg the passage of Küstrin he might not only have raised the siege of Magdeburg but have destroyed the whole of the Imperial army. The passage, however, had been denied him; and though the preservation of Magdeburg so much concerned the Elector of Saxony [John George], he could obtain from him a passage toward it neither by Wittemberg, nor the Bridge of Dessau, nor such assistance in provision and shipping as was necessary for the success of the enterprise. . . . Something more than mere persuasion had induced the Elector of Brandenburg, after the capture of Francfort, to grant Gustavus possession of Spandau for a month. The month expired on the 8th of June; and the elector demanded back his stronghold. The king, fettered by his promise, surrendered it; but the next day, having marched to Berlin and pointed his guns against the palace, the ladies came forth as mediators, and the elector consented both to surrender Spandau again and to pay, for the maintenance of the Swedish troops, a monthly subsidy of 30,000 rix-dollars. At the end of May Tilly removed from Magdeburg and the Elbe to Aschersleben. This enabled the king to take Werben, on the confluence of the Elbe and Havel, where, after the reduction of Tangermünde and Havelberg, he established his celebrated camp." In the latter part of July, Tilly made two attacks on the king's camp at Werben, and was repulsed on both occasions with heavy loss. "In the middle of August, Gustavus broke up his camp. His force at that time, according to the muster-rolls, amounted to 13,000 foot, and 8,850 cavalry. He drew towards Leipzig, then threatened by Tilly, who, having been joined at Eisleben by 15,000 men under Fürstenburg, now possessed an army 40,000 strong to enforce the emperor's ban against the Leipzig decrees [or resolutions of a congress of Protestant princes which had assembled at Leipzig in February, 1631, moved to some organized common action by the Edict of Restitution] within the limits of the electorate. The Elector of Saxony was almost frightened out of his wits by the impending danger. . . . His grief

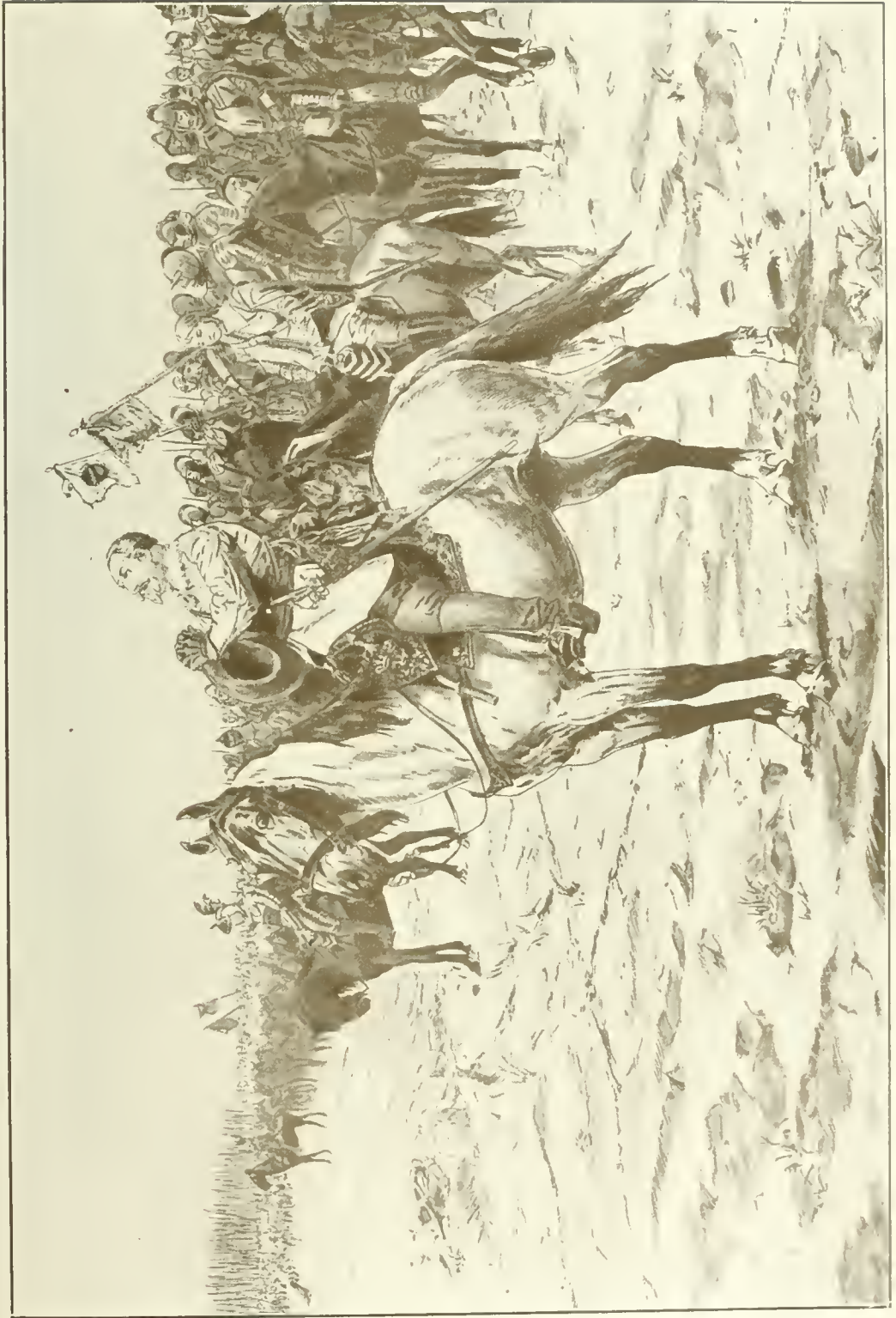
and rage at the fall of Magdeburg had been so great that, for two days after receiving the news, he would admit no one into his presence. But that dire event only added to his perplexity; he could resolve neither upon submission, nor upon vengeance. In May, indeed, terrified by the threats of Ferdinand, he discontinued his levies, and disbanded a part of his troops already enlisted; but in June he sent Armin [Wallenstein's general was now commander of the Saxon troops] to Gustavus with such overtures that the king drank his health, and seemed to have grown sanguine in the hope of his alliance. In July, his courage still rising, he permitted Gustavus to recruit in his dominions. In August, his courage falling again at the approach of Fürstenburg, he gave him and his troops a free passage through Thuringia." But now, later in the same month, he sent word to Gustavus Adolphus "that not only Wittemberg but the whole electorate was open to him; that not only his son, but himself, would serve under the king; that he would advance one month's payment for the Swedish troops immediately, and give security for two monthly payments more. . . . Gustavus rejoiced to find the Duke of Saxony in this temper, and, in pursuance of a league now entered into with him, and the Elector of Brandenburg, crossed the Elbe at Wittemberg on the 4th of September. The Saxons, from 16,000 to 20,000 strong, moving simultaneously from Torgau, the confederated armies met at Düben on the Mulda, three leagues from Leipzig. At a conference held there, it was debated whether it would be better to protract the war or to hazard a battle. The king took the former side, but yielded to the strong representations of the Duke of Saxony. . . . On the 6th of September the allies came within six or eight miles of the enemy, where they halted for the night. . . . Breitenfeld, the place at which Tilly, urged by the importunity of Pappenheim, had chosen to offer battle, was an extensive plain, in part recently ploughed, about a mile from Leipzig and near the cemetery of that city. Leipzig had surrendered to Tilly two days before. The Imperial army, estimated at 44,000 men, occupied a rising ground on the plain. . . . The army was drawn up in one line of great depth, having the infantry in the centre, the cavalry on the wings, according to the Spanish order of battle. The king subdivided his army, about 20,000 strong, into centre and wings, each of which consisted of two lines and a reserve. . . . To this disposition is attributed, in a great degree, the success of the day. . . . The files being so comparatively shallow, artillery made less havoc among them. Then, again, the division of the army into small maniples, with considerable intervals between each, gave space for evolutions, and the power of throwing the troops with rapidity wherever their services or support might be found requisite. . . . The battle began at 12 o'clock." It only ended with the setting of the sun; but long before that time the great army of Tilly was substantially destroyed. It had scattered the Saxons easily enough, and sent them flying, with their worthless elector; but Gustavus and his disciplined, brave, powerfully handled Swedes had broken and ruined the stout but clumsy imperial lines. "It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the importance of this success." On the event of that day, as Gustavus himself said, the whole (Protestant) cause, 'summa rei,' depended. The success was great in itself. The numbers engaged on either side had been nearly equal. Not so their loss. The Imperial loss in killed and wounded, according to Swedish computation, was from 8,000 to 10,000; according to the enemy's own account, between 6,000 and

7,000; while all seem to agree that the loss on the side of the allies was only 2,700, of which 2,000 were Saxon, 700 Swedes. Besides, Gustavus won the whole of the enemy's artillery, and more than 100 standards. Then the army of Tilly being annihilated left him free to choose his next point of attack, almost his next victory."—B. Chapman, *History of Gustavus Adolphus*, ch. 8.—"The battle of Breitenfeld was an epoch in war, and it was an epoch in history. It was an epoch in war, because first in it was displayed on a great scale the superiority of mobility over weight. It was an epoch in history, because it broke the force upon which the revived Catholicism had relied for the extension of its empire over Europe. . . . 'Germany might tear herself and be torn to pieces for yet another half-generation, but the actual result of the Thirty-Years' War was as good as achieved.'"—C. R. L. Fletcher, *Gustavus Adolphus and the struggle of Protestantism for existence*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 1.

1631-1632.—Thirty Years' War: Movements and plans of the Swedish king in southern Germany.—Temporary recovery of the Palatinate.—Occupation of Bavaria.—Saxons in Bohemia.—Battle of the Lech.—Death of Tilly.—Wallenstein's recall.—Siege and relief of Nuremberg.—Battle of Lützen, and death of Gustavus Adolphus.—The battle, "sometimes called Breitenwald [Breitenfeld], sometimes the First Battle of Leipsic, . . . was the first victory on the Protestant side that had been achieved. It was Tilly's first defeat after thirty battles. It filled with joy those who had hitherto been depressed and hopeless. Cities which had dreaded to declare themselves for fear of the fate of Magdeburg began to lift up their heads, and vacillating princes to think that they could safely take the part which they preferred. Gustavus knew, however, that he must let the Germans do as much as possible for themselves, or he should arouse their national jealousy of him as a foreign conqueror. So he sent the Elector of Saxony to awaken the old spirit in Bohemia. As for himself, his great counsellor, Oxenstiern, wanted him to march straight on Vienna, but this was not his object. He wanted primarily to deliver the northern states, and to encourage the merchant cities, Ulm, Augsburg, Nuremberg, which had all along been Protestant, and to deliver the Palatinate from its oppressors. And, out of mortification, a strange ally offered himself, namely, Wallenstein, who wanted revenge on the Catholic League which had insisted on his dismissal, and the Emperor who had yielded to them. . . . He said that if Gustavus would trust him, he would soon get his old army together again, and chase Ferdinand and the Jesuits beyond the Alps. But Gustavus did not trust him, though he sat quiet at Prague while the Saxons were in possession of the city, plundering everywhere, and the Elector sending off to Dresden fifty waggon-loads filled with the treasures of the Emperor Rudolf's museum. . . . Many exiles returned, and there was a general resumption of the Hussite form of worship. Gustavus had marched to Erfurt, and then turned towards the Maine, where there was a long row of those prince bishops established on the frontier by the policy of Charlemagne—Württemberg, Bamberg, Fulda, Köln, Trier, Mentz, Wurms, Spiers. These had never been secularised and were popularly called the Priests' Lane. They had given all their forces to the Catholic League, and Gustavus meant to repay himself upon them. He permitted no cruelties, no persecutions; but he levied heavy contributions,

and his troops made merry with the good Rhenish wine when he kept his Christmas at Mentz. He invited the dispossessed Elector Palatine to join him, and Frederick started for the camp, after the christening of his thirteenth child. . . . The suite was numerous enough to fill forty coaches, escorted by seventy horse—pretty well for an exiled prince dependent on the bounty of Holland and England. . . . There was the utmost enthusiasm for the Swede in England, and the Marquess of Hamilton obtained permission to raise a body of volunteers to join the Swedish standards, and in the August of 1631 brought 6,000 English and Scots in four small regiments; but they proved of little use, . . . many dying. . . . So far as the King's plans can be understood, he meant to have formed a number of Protestant principalities, and united them in what he called 'Corpus Evangelicorum' around the Baltic and the Elbe, as a balance to the Austrian Roman Catholic power in southern Germany. Frederick wanted to raise an army of his own people and take the command, but to this Gustavus would not consent, having probably no great confidence in his capacity. All the Palatinate was free from the enemy except the three fortresses of Heidelberg, Frankenthal, and Kreuznach, and the last of these was immediately besieged. . . . In the midst of the exultation Frederick was grieved to learn that his beautiful home at Heidelberg had been ravaged by fire, probably by the Spanish garrison in expectation of having to abandon it. But as Tilly was collecting his forces again, Gustavus would not wait to master that place or Frankenthal, and recrossed the Rhine. Sir Harry Vane had been sent as ambassador from Charles I. to arrange for the restoration of the Palatinate, the King offering £10,000 a month for the expense of the war, and proposing that if, as was only too probable, he should be prevented from performing this promise, some of the fortresses should be left as guarantees in the hands of the Swedes. Frederick took great and petulant offence at this stipulation, and complained, with tears in his eyes, to Vane and the Marquess of Hamilton. . . . He persuaded them to suppress this article, though they warned him that if the treaty failed it would be by his own fault. It did in fact fail for, as usual, the English money was not forthcoming, and even if it had been, Gustavus declared that he would be no man's servant for a few thousand pounds. Frederick also refused the King's own stipulation, that Lutherans should enjoy equal rights with Calvinists. Moreover, the Swedish success had been considerably more than was desired by his French allies. . . . Louis XIII., was distressed, but Richelieu silenced him, only attempting to make a treaty with the Swedes by which the Elector of Bavaria and the Catholic League should be neutral on condition of the restoration of the bishops. To this, however, Gustavus could not fully consent, and imposed conditions which the Catholics could not accept. Tilly was collecting his forces and threatening Nuremberg, but the Swedes advanced, and he was forced to retreat, so that it was as a deliverer that, on the 31st March [1632], Gustavus was received in beautiful old Nuremberg with a rapture of welcome. . . . Tilly had taken post on the Lech, and Maximilian was collecting an army in Bavaria. The object of Gustavus was now to beat one or other of them before they could join together: so he marched forward, took Donauwörth, and tried to take Ingolstadt, but found it would occupy too much time, and, though all the generals were of a contrary opinion, resolved to attack Tilly and force the passage of the Lech. The Imperialists had fortified it to the utmost, but in their very teeth the Swedes succeeded in taking



GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS BEFORE THE BATTLE OF LUTZEN, 1632



advantage of a bend in the river to play on them with their formidable artillery, construct a pontoon bridge, and, after a desperate struggle, effect a passage. Tilly was struck by a cannon-shot in the knee," and died soon afterwards. "On went Gustavus to Augsburg . . . where the Emperor had expelled the Lutheran pastors and cleared the municipal council of Protestant burgomasters. In restoring the former state of things, Gustavus took a fresh step, making the magistrates not only swear fidelity to him as an ally till the end of the war, but as a sovereign. This made the Germans begin to wonder what were his ulterior views. Then he marched on upon Bavaria, intending to bridge the Danube and take Ratisbon, but two strong forts prevented this. . . . He, however, made his way into the country between the Inn and the Lech, Maximilian retreating before him. . . . At Munich the inhabitants brought him their keys. As they knelt he said, 'Rise, worship God, not man.' . . . To compensate the soldiers for not plundering the city, the King gave them each a crown on the day of their entrance. . . . Catholic Germany was in despair. There was only one general in whom there was any hope, and that was the discarded Wallenstein. . . . He made himself be courted. He would not come to Vienna, only to Znaim in Moravia, where he made his terms like an independent prince. . . . At last he undertook to collect an army, but refused to take the command for more than three months. His name was enough to bring his Friedlanders flocking to his standard. Not only Catholics, but Protestants came, viewing Gustavus as a foreign invader. . . . Wallenstein received subsidies not only from the Emperor, but from the Pope and the King of Spain, towards levying and equipping them, and by the end of the three months he had the full 40,000 all in full order for the march. Then he resigned the command. . . . He affected to be bent only on going back to his tower and his stars at Prague [the study of astrology being his favorite occupation], and to yield slowly to the proposals made him. He was to be Generalissimo, neither Emperor nor Archduke was ever to enter his camp; he was to name all his officers, and have absolute control. . . . Moreover, he might levy contributions as he chose, and dispose as he pleased of lands and property taken from the enemy; Mecklenburg was to be secured to him, together with further rewards yet unspecified; and when Bohemia was freed from the enemy, the Emperor was to live there, no doubt under his control. . . . There was no help for it, and Wallenstein thus became the chief power in the Empire, in fact a dictator. The power was conferred on him in April. The first thing he did was to turn the Saxons out of Bohemia, which was an easy matter." At Eger, Wallenstein was joined by the Elector of Bavaria, which raised the Catholic force to 60,000. "The whole army marched upon Nuremberg, and Gustavus, with only 20,000 men, dashed back to its defence. Wallenstein had entrenched himself on an eminence called Fürth." As Nuremberg was terribly distressed, his own army suffering, and being infected with the lawless habits of German warfare, Gustavus found it necessary to attempt (August 24) the storming of the Imperialists' camp. He was repulsed, after losing 3,000 of his Swedes and thrice as many Germans. He then returned to Bavaria, while Wallenstein, abandoning his hope of taking Nuremberg, moved into Saxony and began ravaging the country. The Swedish king followed him so quickly that he had no time to establish the fortified camp he had intended, but was forced to take up an intrenched position at Lützen. There he was attacked on the

6th of November, 1632, and defeated in a desperate battle, which became one of the memorable conflicts in history because it brought to an end the great and splendid career of Gustavus Adolphus, the Swede. The king fell as he was leading a charge, and the fierce fight went on over his body until the enemy had been driven from the field.—C. M. Yonge, *Cameos from English history*, 6th series, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleon, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 2-3.—R. C. Trench, *Gustavus Adolphus in Germany*.—J. L. Stevens, *History of Gustavus Adolphus*, ch. 15-18.

1631-1641.—Thirty Years' War: War in Lorraine.—Possession of the duchy taken by the French. See LORRAINE: 1624-1663.

1632-1634.—Thirty Years' War: Retirement of Wallenstein to Bohemia.—Oxenstiern in the leadership of the Protestant cause.—Union of Heilbronn.—Inaction and suspicious conduct of Wallenstein.—Ban pronounced against him.—His assassination.—"The account of the battle [of Lützen] transmitted by Wallenstein to the Imperial Court, led Ferdinand to think that he had gained the day. . . . But . . . the reputed conqueror was glad to shelter himself behind the mountains of the Bohemian frontier. After the battle, Wallenstein found it necessary to evacuate Saxony in all haste; and, leaving garrisons at Leipsic, Plauen, Zwickau, Chemnitz, Freiburg, Meissen, and Frauenstein, he reached Bohemia without further loss, and put his army into winter-quarters. After his arrival at Prague, he caused many of his officers to be executed for their conduct at Lützen, among whom were several who belonged to families of distinction, nor would he allow them to plead the Emperor's pardon. A few he rewarded. The harshness of his proceedings increased the hatred already felt for him by many of his officers, and especially the Italian portion of them. . . . Axel Oxenstiern, the Swedish Chancellor, succeeded, on the death of Gustavus Adolphus, to the supreme direction of the affairs of Sweden in Germany, and was invested by the Council at Stockholm with full powers both to direct the army and to negotiate with the German courts. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar retained the military command of the Swedish-German army, divisions of which were cantoned from the Baltic to the Danube. After driving the Imperialists from Saxony, Bernhard had hastened into Franconia, the bishoprics of which, according to a promise of Gustavus, were to be erected in his favour into a duchy; but, after taking Bamberg, his assistance was invoked by General Horn [Swedish general who fought under Gustavus at Breitenfeld], on the Upper Danube. One of the first cares of Oxenstiern was to consolidate the German alliance; and, in March 1633, he summoned a meeting at Heilbronn of the States of the four Circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine, Franconia, and Suabia, as well as deputies from Nuremberg, Strasburg, Frankfort, Ulm, Augsburg, and other cities of the empire. The assembly was also attended by ambassadors from France, England, and Holland; and on April 6th was effected the Union of Heilbronn. Brandenburg and Saxony stood aloof; nor was France, though she renewed the alliance with Sweden, included in the Union. The French minister at Heilbronn assisted, however, in the formation of the Union, although he endeavoured to limit the power of Oxenstiern, to whom the conduct of the war was intrusted. At the same time, the Swedes also concluded a treaty with the Palatinate, now governed, or rather claimed to be governed, by Louis Philip brother of the Elector Frederick V., as guardian

and regent for the latter's youthful son Charles Louis. The unfortunate Frederick had expired at Mentz in his 37th year, not many days after the death of Gustavus Adolphus. . . . Swedish garrisons were to be maintained in Frankenthal, Bacharach, Kaub, and other places; Mannheim was to be at the disposal of the Swedes so long as the war should last. . . . After the junction of Duke Bernhard with Horn, the Swedish army,—for so we shall continue to call it, though composed in great part of Germans,—endeavoured to penetrate into Bavaria; but the Imperial General Altringer [or Aldringer], aided by John von Werth, a commander of distinction, succeeded in covering Munich, and enabled Maximilian to return to his capital. The Swedish generals were also embarrassed by a mutiny of their mercenaries, as well as by their own misunderstandings and quarrels; and all that Duke Bernhard was able to accomplish in the campaign of 1633, besides some forays into Bavaria, was the capture of Ratisbon in November."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 6.—Wallenstein, meantime, had been doing little. "After a long period of inaction in Bohemia, he marched, during the summer of 1633, with imperial pomp and splendor, into Silesia. There he found a mixed army of Swedes, Saxons, and Brandenburgers, with Matthias Thurn, who began the war, among them. Wallenstein finally shut in this army [at Steinau] so that he might have captured it; but he let it go, and went back to Bohemia, where he began to negotiate with Saxony for peace. Meanwhile the alliance formed at Heilbronn had brought Maximilian of Bavaria into great distress. Regensburg [Ratisbon], hitherto occupied by him, and regarded as an outwork of Bavaria and Austria, had been taken by Bernard of Weimar. But Wallenstein, whom the emperor sent to the rescue, only went into the Upper Palatinate, and then returned to Bohemia. He seemed to look upon that country as a strong and commanding position from which he could dictate peace. He carried on secret negotiations with France, Sweden, and all the emperor's enemies. He had, indeed, the power to do this under his commission; but his attitude toward his master became constantly more equivocal. The emperor was anxious to be rid of him without making him an enemy, and wished to give to his own son, the young King of Hungary, the command in chief. But the danger of losing his place drove Wallenstein to bolder schemes. At his camp at Pilsen, all his principal officers were induced by him to unite in a written request that he should in no case desert them—a step which seemed much like a conspiracy. But some of the generals, as Gallas, Aldringer, and Piccolomini, soon abandoned Wallenstein, and gave warning to the emperor. He secretly signed a patent deposing Wallenstein, and placed it in the hands of Piccolomini and Gallas, January 24, 1634, but acted with the profoundest dissimulation until he had made sure of most of the commanders who served under him. Then, suddenly, on February 18, Wallenstein, his brother-in-law Tertzski, How, Neumann, and Kinsky were put under the ban, and the general's possessions were confiscated. Now, at length, Wallenstein openly revolted, and began to treat with the Swedes for desertion to them; but they did not fully trust him. Attended only by five Slavonic regiments, who remained faithful to him, he went to Eger, where he was to meet troops of Bernard of Weimar; but before he could join them, he and the friends named above were assassinated, February 25, by traiters who had remained in his intimate companionship, and whom he trusted,

under the command of Colonel Butler, an Irishman, employed by Piccolomini."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, ch. 18, sect. 10.

ALSO IN: F. Schiller, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 4.—J. Mitchell, *Life of Wallenstein*, ch. 8-10.—E. Cust, *Lives of the warriors of the Thirty Years' War*, pt. 1.

1634-1639.—Thirty Years' War: Successes of the imperialists.—Their victory at Nördlingen.—Richelieu and France become active in the war.—Duke Bernhard's conquest of Alsace.—Richelieu's appropriation of the conquest for France.—"Want of union among the Protestants prevented them from deriving all the benefit which they had at first anticipated from Wallenstein's death. The King of Hungary assumed the command of the army, and by the aid of money, which was plentifully distributed, the soldiers were, without difficulty, kept in obedience; not the slightest attempt was anywhere made to resist the Emperor's orders. On the other hand, Bernhard of Weimar and Field-Marshal Horn were masters of Bavaria. In July 1634, they gained a complete victory at Landshut, over General Altringer, who was slain in the action. . . . The Swedes, who had so long been victorious, were, in their turn, destined to taste the bitterness of defeat. 15,000 Spaniards, under the Cardinal Infant, son of Philip III., entered Germany [see NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647], and in conjunction with the imperial army, under the King of Hungary, laid siege to Nördlingen. Field-Marshal Horn, and Bernhard of Weimar, hurried to the relief of the place. Owing to the superiority of the enemy, who was besides strongly intrenched, the Swedish commanders had no intention to hazard a battle, before the arrival of the Rhin-graff Count Otho, with another division of the army, which was already close at hand; but the impetuosity of the Duke of Weimar lost everything. Horn had succeeded in carrying a hill, called the Amsberg, a strong point, which placed him in communication with the town, and almost secured the victory. Bernhard, thinking that so favourable an opening should not be neglected, hurried on to the attack of another post. It was taken and retaken; both armies were gradually, and without method, drawn into the combat, which, after eight hours' duration, ended in the complete defeat of the Swedes. Horn was made prisoner; and Bernhard escaped on a borrowed horse. . . . The defeat of Nördlingen almost ruined the Swedish cause in Germany; the spell of invincibility was gone, and the effects of the panic far surpassed those which the sword had produced. Strong fortresses were abandoned before the enemy came in sight; provinces were evacuated, and armies, that had been deemed almost unconquerable, deserted their chiefs, and broke into bands of lawless robbers, who pillaged their way in every direction. Bavaria, Suabia and Franconia were lost; and it was only behind the Rhine that the scattered fugitives could again be brought into something like order. . . . The Emperor refused to grant the Swedes any other terms of peace than permission to retire from the empire. The Elector of Saxony, forgetful of what was due to his religion, and forgetful of all that Sweden had done for his country, concluded, at Prague, a separate peace with the Emperor; and soon afterwards joined the Imperialists against his former allies. The fortunes of the Protestants would have sunk beneath this additional blow, had not France come to their aid. Richelieu had before only nourished the war by means of subsidies, and had, at one time, become nearly as jealous of the Swedes as of the

Austrians; but no sooner was their power broken, than the crafty priest took an active share in the contest."—J. Mitchell, *Life of Wallenstein*, ch. 10.—"Richelieu entered resolutely into the contest, and in 1635 displayed enormous diplomatic activity. He wished not only to reduce Austria, but, at the same time, Spain. Spanish soldiers, Spanish treasure, and Spanish generals made in great part the strength of the imperial armies, and Spain besides never ceased to ferment internal troubles in France. Richelieu signed the treaty of Compiègne with the Swedes against Ferdinand II. By its conditions he granted them considerable subsidies in order that they should continue the war in Germany. He made the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye with Bernard of Saxe Weimar, to whom he promised an annual allowance of money as well as Alsace, provided that he should remain in arms to wrest Franche-Comté from Philip IV. He made the treaty of Paris with the Dutch, who were to help the King of France to conquer Flanders, which was to be divided between France and the United Provinces. He made the treaty of Rivoli with the dukes of Savoy, of Parma, and of Mantua, who were to undertake in concert with France the invasion of the territories of Milan and to receive a portion of the spoils of Spain. At the same time he declared war against the Spanish Government, which had arrested and imprisoned the Elector of Trèves, the ally of France, and refused to surrender him when demanded. Hostilities immediately began on five different theatres of war—in the Low Countries, on the Rhine, in Eastern Germany, in Italy, and in Spain. The army of the Rhine, commanded by Cardinal de la Valette, was to operate in conjunction with the corps of Bernard of Saxe Weimar against the Imperialists, commanded by Count Gallas. To this army Turenne was attached. It consisted of 20,000 infantry, 5,000 cavalry, and 14 guns. This was the army upon which Richelieu mainly relied. . . . Valette was to annoy the enemy without exposing himself, and was not to approach the Rhine; but induced by Bernard, who had a dashing spirit and wished to reconquer all he had lost, encouraged by the terror of the Imperialists who raised the siege of Mayence, he determined to pass the river. He was not long in repenting of that step. He established his troops round Mayence and revictualled this place, which was occupied by a Swedish garrison, throwing in all the supplies of which the town had need. The Imperialists, who had calculated on this imprudence, immediately took to cutting off his supplies, so that soon everything was wanting in the French camp. . . . The scourge of famine threatened the French: it was necessary to retreat, to recross the Rhine, to pass the Sarre, and seek a refuge at Metz. Few retreats have been so difficult and so sad. The army was in such a pitiable condition that round Mayence the men had to be fed with roots and green grapes, and the horses with branches of trees. . . . The sick and the weary were abandoned, the guns were buried, villages were burnt to stay the pursuit of the enemy, and to prevent the wretched soldiers who would fall out of the ranks from taking refuge in them."—H. M. Hozier, *Turenne*, ch. 2.—"Meanwhile, Saxony had concluded with the Emperor at Pirna, at the close of 1634, a convention which ripened into a treaty of alliance, to which almost all the princes of Northern Germany subscribed, at Prague, in the month of May following. The Electors of Saxony and Brandenburg were thus changed into enemies of Sweden. The Swedish General, Banner

[or Banér], who, at the period of the battle of Nördlingen, had been encamped side by side with the Saxon army on the White Hill near Prague, had, on the first indication of wavering on the part of its Elector, managed skilfully to withdraw his troops from the dangerous proximity. On the 22nd October 1635, he defeated the Saxon army, at Dömitz on the Elbe, then invaded Brandenburg, took Havelberg, and even threatened Berlin. Compelled by the approach of a Saxon and Imperialist army to quit his prey, he turned and beat the combined army at Wittstock (24th September 1636). After that battle, he drew the reinforced Imperialists, commanded by Gallas, after him into Pomerania; there he caused them great losses by cutting off their supplies, then forced them back into Saxony, and, following them up closely, attacked and beat them badly at Chemnitz (4th April, 1639)." In the south, Duke Bernhard had gained meantime some solid successes. After his retreat from Mainz, in 1635, he had concluded his secret treaty with Richelieu, placing himself wholly at the service of France, and receiving the promise of 4,000,000 francs yearly, for the support of his army, and the ultimate sovereignty of Alsace for himself. "Having concerted measures with La Valette [1636], . . . he invaded Lorraine, drove the enemy thence, taking Saarburg and Pfalzburg, and then, entering Alsace, took Saverne. His career of conquest in Alsace was checked by the invasion of Burgundy by Gallas, with an army of 40,000 men. Duke Bernhard marched with all haste to Dijon, and forced Gallas to fall back, with great loss, beyond the Saone (November 1636). Pursuing his advantages, early the following year he forced the passage of the Saone at Gray, despite the vivid resistance of Prince Charles of Lorraine (June 1637), and pursued that commander as far as Besançon. Reinforced during the autumn, he marched towards the Upper Rhine, and, undertaking a winter campaign, captured Lauffenburg, after a skirmish with John of Werth; then Säckingen and Waldshut, and laid siege to Rheinfelden. The Imperialist army, led by John of Werth, succeeded, indeed, after a very hot encounter, in relieving that place; but three days later Duke Bernhard attacked and completely defeated it (21st February 1638), taking prisoners not only John of Werth himself, but the generals, Savelli, Enkefort, and Sperreuter. The consequences of this victory were the fall of Rheinfelden, Rötteln, Neuenberg, and Freiburg. Duke Bernhard then laid siege to Breisach (July 1638). . . . The Imperial general, Götz, advanced at the head of a force considerably outnumbering that of Duke Bernhard. Leaving a portion of his army before the place, Duke Bernhard then drew to himself Turenne, who was lying in the vicinity with 3,000 men, fell upon the Imperialists at Wittenweiber (30th July), completely defeated them, and captured their whole convoy. Another Imperialist army, led by the Duke of Lorraine in person, shared a similar fate at Thann, in the Sundgau, on the 4th October following. Götz, who was hastening with a strengthened army to support the Duke of Lorraine, attacked Duke Bernhard ten days later, but was repulsed with great loss. Breisach capitulated on the 7th December. Duke Bernhard took possession of it in his own name, and foiled all the efforts of Richelieu to secure it for France, by garrisoning it with German soldiers. To compensate the French Cardinal Minister for Breisach, Duke Bernhard undertook a winter campaign to drive the Imperialists from Franche-Comté. Entering that

province at the end of December, he speedily made himself master of its richest part. He then returned to Alsace with the resolution to cross the Rhine and carry the war once again into Bavaria," and then, in junction with Baner, to Vienna. "He had made all the necessary preparations for this enterprise, had actually sent his army across the Rhine, when he died very suddenly, not without suspicion of poison, at Neuberg am Rhein (8th July, 1639). The lands he had conquered he bequeathed to his brother. . . . But Richelieu paid no attention to the wishes of the dead general. Before any of the family could interfere, he had secured all the fortresses in Alsace, even Breisach, which was its key, for France."—G. B. Malleson, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 5.—"During [1639] Piccolomini, at the head of the Imperialist and Spanish troops, gave battle to the French at Diedenhofen. The battle took place on the 7th of June, and the French were beaten and suffered great losses."—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: E. Cust, *Lives of the warriors of the Thirty Years' War*, pt. 2.—S. R. Gardiner, *Thirty Years' War*, ch. 9, sect. 5.

1635-1638.—Thirty Years' War: Campaigns in the Netherlands.—Dutch and French against the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

1636-1637.—Diet at Ratisbon.—Attempted negotiations of peace.—Death of the Emperor Ferdinand II.—"An electoral diet was assembled at Ratisbon, by the emperor in person, on the 15th of September, 1636, for the ostensible purpose of restoring peace, for which some vague negotiations had been opened under the mediation of the pope and the king of Denmark, and congresses appointed at Hamburg and Cologne; but with the real view of procuring the election of his son Ferdinand as king of the Romans. . . . Ferdinand was elected with only the fruitless protest of the Palatine family, and the dissenting voice of the elector of Trèves. . . . The emperor did not long survive this happy event. He died on the 15th of February, 1637. . . . Ferdinand . . . seems to have been the first who formally established the right of primogeniture in all his hereditary territories. By his testament, dated May 10th, 1621, he ordered that all his Austrian dominions should devolve on his eldest male descendant, and fixed the majority at 18 years."—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 56.

1637.—Election of the Emperor Ferdinand III.

1640-1645.—Thirty Years' War: Campaigns of Baner and Torstensson.—Second Breitenfeld.—Jankowitz.—Mergentheim.—Allerheim.—War in Denmark.—Swedish army in Austria.—Saxony forced to neutrality.—"The war still went on for eight years, but the only influence that it exerted upon the subsequent Peace was that it overcame the last doubts of the Imperial court as to the indispensable principles of the Peace. . . . The first event of importance on the theatre of war after Bernhard's death was Baner's attempt to join the army of Weimar in central Germany. Not in a condition to pass the winter in Bohemia, and threatened in Saxony and Silesia, he . . . commenced [March, 1640] a retreat amidst fearful devastations, crossed the Elbe at Leitmeritz, and arrived April 3rd at Zwickau. He succeeded in joining with the mercenaries of Weimar and the troops of Lüneburg and Hesse at Saalfeld"; but no joint action was found possible. "Until December, the war on both sides consisted of marches hither and thither, accompanied with horrible devastation; but nothing decisive occurred. In

September the Diet met at Ratisbon. While wearisome attempts were being made to bend the obstinacy of Austria, Baner resolved to compel her to yield by a bold stroke, to invade the Upper Palatinate, to surprise Ratisbon, and to put an end to the Diet and Emperor together. . . . Not without difficulty Guébriant [commanding the French in Alsace] was induced to follow, and to join Baner at Erfurt. . . . But the surprise of Ratisbon was a failure. . . . The armies now separated again. Baner exhausted his powers of persuasion in vain to induce Guébriant to go with him. The French went westward. Hard pressed himself, Baner proceeded by forced marches towards Bohemia, and by the end of March reached Zwickau, where he met Guébriant again, and they had a sharp conflict with the Imperialists on the Saal. There Baner died, on the 21st of May, 1641, leaving his army in a most critical condition. The warfare of the Swedish-French arms was come to a standstill. Both armies were near dissolution, when, in November, Torstensson, the last of the Gustavus Adolphus school of generals, and the one who most nearly equalled the master, appeared with the Swedish army, and by a few vigorous strokes, which followed each other with unexampled rapidity, restored the supremacy of its arms. . . . After three months of rest, which he mainly devoted to the reorganization and payment of his army, by the middle of January [1642] he had advanced towards the Elbe and the Altmark; and as the Imperial forces were weakened by sending troops to the Rhine, he formed the great project of proceeding through Silesia to the Austrian hereditary dominions. On April 3rd he crossed the Elbe at Werben, between the Imperial troops, increased his army to 20,000 men, stormed Glogau on May 4th, stood before Schweidnitz on the 30th, and defeated Francis Albert of Lauenburg; Schweidnitz, Neisse, and Oppeln fell into his hands. Meanwhile Guébriant, after subduing the defiant and mutinous spirit of his troops by means of money and promises, had, on January 17th, defeated the Imperialists near Kempen, not far from Crefeld [at Hulst], for which he was honoured with the dignity of marshal. But this was a short-lived gleam of light, and was soon followed by dark days, occasioned by want of money and discontent in the camp. . . . He had turned eastward from the Rhine to seek quarters for his murmuring troops in nether Germany, when Torstensson effected a decision in Saxony. After relieving Glogau, and having in vain tried to enter Bohemia, he had joined the detachments of Königsmark and Wrangel [Swedish generals], and on October 30th he appeared before Leipzig. On November 2nd there was a battle near Breitenfeld, which ended in a disastrous defeat of the Imperialists and Leipzig surrendered to Torstensson three weeks afterwards. In spite of all the advantages which Torstensson gained for himself, it never came to a united action with the French; and the first victory won by the French in the Netherlands, in May, 1643, did not alter this state of things. Torstensson . . . was suddenly called to a remote scene of war in the north. King Christian IV. of Denmark had been persuaded, by means of the old Danish jealousy of Sweden, to take up arms for the Emperor. He declared war just as Torstensson was proceeding to Austria. Vienna was now saved; but so much the worse for Denmark. In forced marches, which were justly admired, Torstensson set out from Silesia towards Denmark at the end of October, conducted a masterly campaign against the Danes, beat them wherever he met with them,



conquered Holstein and Schleswig, pushed on to Jutland, then, while Wrangel and Horn carried on the war (till the peace of Brömsebro, August, 1645), he returned and again took up the war against the Imperialists, everywhere an unvanquished general. The Imperialists under the incompetent Gallas intended to give Denmark breathing-time by creating a diversion; but it did not save Denmark, and brought another defeat upon themselves. Gallas did not bring back more than 2,000 men from Magdeburg to Bohemia, and they were in a very disorganized state. He was pursued by Torstenson, while Ragozy threatened Hungary. The Emperor [Ferdinand III] hastily collected what forces he could command and resolved to give battle. Torstenson had advanced as far as Glattau in February, and on March 6th, 1645, a battle was fought near Jankowitz, three miles from Tabor. It was the most brilliant victory ever gained by the Swedes. The Imperial army was cut to pieces; several of its leaders imprisoned or killed. In a few weeks Torstenson conquered Moravia and Austria as far as the Danube. Not far from the capital itself he took possession of the Wolfsbrücke. As in 1618, Vienna was in great danger." But the ill-success of the French "always counterbalanced the Swedes' advantages. Either they were beaten just as the Swedes were victorious, or could not turn a victory to account. So it was during this year [1645]. The west frontier of the empire was guarded on the imperial side by [Count Franz von] Mercy, together with John of Werth, after he was liberated from prison. On 26th March, Turenne crossed the Rhine, and advanced towards Franconia. There he encamped near Mergentheim and Rosenberg. On 5th May, a battle near Mergentheim ended with the entire defeat of the French, and Turenne escaped with the greatest difficulty by way of Rammelburg, towards Fulda. The victors pushed on to the Rhine. To avenge this defeat, Enghien was sent from Paris, and, at the beginning of July, arrived at Spire, with 12,000 men. His forces, together with Königsmark's, the remnant of Turenne's and the Hessians, amounted to 30,000 men. At first Mercy dexterously avoided a battle under unfavourable circumstances, but on August 3d the contest was inevitable. A bloody battle was fought between Nördlingen and Donauwörth, near Allerheim [called the battle of Nördlingen, by the French], which was long doubtful, but, after tremendous losses, resulted in the victory of the French. Mercy's fall, Werth's imprudent advance, and a final brave assault of the Hessians, decided the day. But the victors were so weakened that they could not fully take advantage of it. Condé was ill; and in the autumn Turenne was compelled not without perceptible damage to the cause, to retreat with his army to the Neckar and the Rhine. Neither had Torstenson been able to maintain his position in Austria. He had been obliged to raise the siege of Brünn, and learnt at the same time that Rakoczy had just made peace with the Emperor. Obligated to retire to Bohemia, he found his forces considerably diminished. Meanwhile, Königsmark had won an important advantage. While Torstenson was in Austria he gained a firm footing in Saxony. Then came the news of Allerheim, and of the peace of Brömsebro. Except Dresden and Königstein, all the important points were in the hands of the Swedes; so, on the 6th of September [1645], the Elector John George concluded a treaty of neutrality for six months. Besides money and supplies, the Swedes received Leipzig, Torgau, and the right of

passage through the country. Meanwhile, Torstenson had retreated into the north-east of Bohemia, and severe physical sufferings compelled him to give up the command. He was succeeded by Charles Gustavus Wrangel."—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 39.

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 58.

1642-1643.—Thirty Years' War: Condé's victory at Rocroi and campaign on the Moselle. See FRANCE: 1642-1643; 1643.

1643-1644.—Thirty Years' War: Campaigns of Turenne and Condé against Mercy, on the upper Rhine.—Dütlingen.—Freiburg.—Philipsburg.—"After the death of Bernard of Saxe Weimar, Marshal Guébriant had been placed in command of the troops of Weimar. He had besieged and taken Rottweil in Suabia, but had there been killed. Rantzau, who succeeded him in command of the Weimar army, marched (24-25 Nov., 1643) upon Dütlingen [or Tuttlingen], on the Upper Rhine, was there beaten by Mercy and made prisoner, with the loss of many officers and 7,000 soldiers. This was a great triumph for the Bavarians; a terrible disaster for France. The whole of the German infantry in the French service was dispersed or taken, the cavalry retreated as they best could upon the Rhine. . . . Circumstances required active measures. Plenipotentiaries had just assembled at Münster to begin the negotiations which ended with the peace of Westphalia. It was desired that the French Government should support the French diplomatist by quick successes. . . . Turenne was sent to the Rhine with reinforcements. . . . He re-established discipline, and breathed into [the army] a new spirit. . . . At the same time, by negotiations, the prisoners who had been taken at Dütlingen were restored to France, the gaps in the ranks were filled up, and in the spring of 1644 Turenne found himself at the head of 9,000 men, of whom 5,000 were cavalry, and was in a position to take the field." He "pushed through the Black Forest, and near the source of the Danube gained a success over a Bavarian detachment. For some reason which is not clear he threw a garrison into Freiburg, and retired across the Rhine. Had he remained near the town he would have prevented Mercy from investing it. So soon as Turenne was over the river, Mercy besieged Freiburg, and although Turenne advanced to relieve the place, a stupid error of some of his infantry made him fail, and Freiburg capitulated to Mercy."—H. M. Hozier, *Turenne*, ch. 3 and 5.—"Affairs being in so bad a state about the Black Forest, the Great Condé, at that time Duc d'Enghien, was brought up with 10,000 men; thus raising the French to a number above the enemy's. He came crowned with the immortal laurels of Rocroi; and in virtue of his birth, as a prince of the blood-royal, took precedence of the highest officers in the service. Merci, a capable and daring general, aware of his inferiority, now posted himself a short distance from Freyburg, in a position almost inaccessible. He garnished it with felled trees and intrenchments, mountains, woods, and marshes, which of themselves defied attack." Turenne advocated a flank movement, instead of a direct assault upon Mercy's position; but Condé, reckless of his soldiers' lives, persisted in leading them against the enemy's works. "A terrible action ensued (August 3, 1644). Turenne made a long detour through a defile; Condé, awaiting his arrival on the ground, postponed the assault till three hours before sunset, and then ascended the steep. Merci had the worse, and retreated to a fresh position on the Black

Mountain, where he successfully repulsed for one day Condé's columns (August 5). . . . Condé now adopted the flank movement, which, originally recommended by Turenne, would have saved much bloodshed; and Merzi, hard pressed, escaped by a rapid retreat, leaving behind him his artillery and baggage (August 9). These are the 'three days of Freyburg.' To retake the captured Freyburg after their victory . . . was the natural suggestion first heard." But Turenne persuaded Condé that the reduction of Philipsburg was more important. "Philipsburg was taken after a short siege; and its fall was accompanied by the submission of the adjacent towns of Germersheim, Speier, Worms, Mentz, Oppenheim and Landau. Condé at this conjuncture left the Upper Rhine, and took away his regiments with him."—T. O. Cockayne, *Life of Turenne*, pp. 20-22.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 6.—Lord Mahon, *Life of Louis, Prince of Condé*.

1646-1648.—Thirty Years' War: Final campaigns.—Sufferings of Bavaria.—Truce and peace negotiations initiated by the Elector Maximilian.—Ending of the war at Prague.—"The retreat of the French [after the battle of Allerheim] enabled the enemy to turn his whole force upon the Swedes in Bohemia. Gustavus Wrangel, no unworthy successor of Banner and Torstensohn, had, in 1646, been appointed Commander-in-chief of the Swedish army. . . . The Archduke, after reinforcing his army . . . moved against Wrangel, in the hope of being able to overwhelm him by his superior force before Koenigsmark could join him, or the French effect a diversion in his favour. Wrangel, however, did not await him." He moved through Upper Saxony and Hesse, to Weimar, where he was joined by the flying corps of Königsmark. Finally, after much delay, he was joined likewise by Turenne and the French. "The junction took place at Giessen, and they now felt themselves strong enough to meet the enemy. The latter had followed the Swedes into Hesse, in order to intercept their commissariat, and to prevent their union with Turenne. In both designs they had been unsuccessful; and the Imperialists now saw themselves cut off from the Maine, and exposed to great scarcity and want from the loss of their magazines. Wrangel took advantage of their weakness to execute a plan by which he hoped to give a new turn to the war. . . . He determined to follow the course of the Danube, and to break into the Austrian territories through the midst of Bavaria. . . . He moved hastily, . . . defeated a Bavarian corps near Donauwerth, and passed that river, as well as the Lech, unopposed. But by wasting his time in the unsuccessful siege of Augsburg, he gave opportunity to the Imperialists, not only to relieve that city, but also to repulse him as far as Lauingen. No sooner, however, had they turned towards Suabia, with a view to remove the war from Bavaria, than, seizing the opportunity, he repassed the Lech, and guarded the passage of it against the Imperialists themselves. Bavaria now lay open and defenceless before him; the French and Swedes quickly overran it; and the soldiery indemnified themselves for all dangers by frightful outrages, robberies, and extortions. The arrival of the Imperial troops, who at last succeeded in passing the Lech at Thierhaupten, only increased the misery of this country, which friend and foe indiscriminately plundered. And now, for the first time during the whole course of this war, the courage of Maximilian, which for eight-and-twenty years had stood unshaken amidst fearful dangers,

began to waver. Ferdinand II., his school-companion at Ingolstadt, and the friend of his youth, was no more; and, with the death of his friend and benefactor, the strong tie was dissolved which had linked the Elector to the House of Austria. . . . Accordingly, the motives which the artifices of France now put in operation, in order to detach him from the Austrian alliance, and to induce him to lay down his arms, were drawn entirely from political considerations. . . . The Elector of Bavaria was unfortunately led to believe that the Spaniards alone were disinclined to peace, and that nothing but Spanish influence had induced the Emperor so long to resist a cessation of hostilities. Maximilian detested the Spaniards, and could never forgive their having opposed his application for the Palatine Electorate. . . . All doubts disappeared; and, convinced of the necessity of this step, he thought he should sufficiently discharge his obligations to the Emperor if he invited him also to share in the benefit of the truce. The deputies of the three crowns, and of Bavaria, met at Ulm, to adjust the conditions. But it was soon evident, from the instructions of the Austrian ambassador, that it was not the intention of the Emperor to second the conclusion of a truce, but if possible to prevent it. . . . The good intentions of the Elector of Bavaria, to include the Emperor in the benefit of the truce, having been thus rendered unavailing, he felt himself justified in providing for his own safety. . . . He agreed to the Swedes extending their quarters in Suabia and Franconia, and to his own being restricted to Bavaria and the Palatinate. The conquests which he had made in Suabia were ceded to the allies, who, on their part, restored to him what they had taken from Bavaria. Cologne and Hesse Cassel were also included in the truce. After the conclusion of this treaty, upon the 14th March, 1647, the French and Swedes left Bavaria. . . . Turenne, according to agreement, marched into Wurtemberg, where he forced the Landgrave of Darmstadt and the Elector of Mentz to imitate the example of Bavaria, and to embrace the neutrality. And now, at last, France seemed to have attained the great object of its policy, that of depriving the Emperor of the support of the League, and of his Protestant allies. . . . But . . . after a brief crisis, the fallen power of Austria rose again to a formidable strength. The jealousy which France entertained of Sweden, prevented it from permitting the total ruin of the Emperor, or allowing the Swedes to obtain such a preponderance in Germany, which might have been destructive to France herself. Accordingly, the French minister declined to take advantage of the distresses of Austria; and the army of Turenne, separating from that of Wrangel, retired to the frontiers of the Netherlands. Wrangel, indeed, after moving from Suabia into Franconia, taking Schweinfurt, . . . attempted to make his way into Bohemia, and laid siege to Egra [Eger], the key of that kingdom. To relieve this fortress, the Emperor put his last army in motion, and placed himself at its head. But . . . on his arrival Egra was already taken." Meantime the Emperor had engaged in intrigues with the Bavarian officers and had nearly seduced the whole army of the Elector. The latter discovered this conspiracy in time to thwart it; but he now suddenly, on his own behalf, struck hands with the Emperor again, and threw over his late agreements with the Swedes and French. "He had not derived from the truce the advantages he expected. Far from tending to accelerate a general peace, it had a pernicious influence upon the negotiations at

Münster and Osnabrück, and had made the allies bolder in their demands." Maximilian, therefore, renounced the truce and began hostilities anew. "This resolution, and the assistance which he immediately despatched to the Emperor in Bohemia, threatened materially to injure the Swedes, and Wrangel was compelled in haste to evacuate that kingdom. He retired through Thuringia into Westphalia and Lünenburg, in the hope of forming a junction with the French army under Turenne, while the Imperial and Bavarian army followed him to the Weser, under Melander and Gronsfeld. His ruin was inevitable if the enemy should overtake him before his junction with Turenne; but the same consideration which had just saved the Emperor now proved the salvation of the Swedes. . . . The Elector of Bavaria could not allow the Emperor to obtain so decisive a preponderance as, by the sudden alteration of affairs, might delay the chances of a general peace. . . . Now that the power of the Emperor threatened once more to attain a dangerous superiority, Maximilian at once ceased to pursue the Swedes. . . . Melander, prevented by the Bavarians from further pursuing Wrangel, crossed by Jena and Erfurt into Hesse. . . . In this exhausted country, his army was oppressed by want, while Wrangel was recruiting his strength, and remounting his cavalry in Lunenburg. Too weak to maintain his wretched quarters against the Swedish general, when he opened the campaign in the winter of 1648, and marched against Hesse, he was obliged to retire with disgrace, and take refuge on the banks of the Danube. . . . Turenne received permission to join the Swedes; and the last campaign of this eventful war was now opened by the united armies. Driving Melander before them along the Danube, they threw supplies into Egra, which was besieged by the Imperialists, and defeated the Imperial and Bavarian armies on the Danube, which ventured to oppose them at Zusmarshausen, where Melander was mortally wounded." They then forced a passage of the Lech, at the point where Gustavus Adolphus formerly overcame Tilly, and ravaged Bavaria once more; while nothing but a prolonged rain-storm, which flooded the Inn, saved Austria from a similar devastation. Königsmark, with his flying corps, entered Bohemia, penetrated to Prague and surprised and captured the lesser side of the city (the Kleinsite), thus acquiring the reputation of "closing the Thirty Years' War by the last brilliant achievement. This decisive stroke, which vanquished the Emperor's irresolution, cost the Swedes only the loss of a single man. But the old town, the larger half of Prague, which is divided into two parts by the Moldau, by its vigorous resistance wearied out the efforts of the Palatine, Charles Gustavus, the successor of Christina on the throne, who had arrived from Sweden with fresh troops. . . . The approach of winter at last drove the besiegers into their quarters, and in the meantime the intelligence arrived that a peace had been signed at Münster, on the 24th October,"—the "solemn and ever memorable and sacred treaty which is known by the name of the Peace of Westphalia."—F. Schiller, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 5.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malletson, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 7.

1648.—Thirty Years' War: Destructiveness.—State of the country at its close.—Decrease in population.—Oppression of the peasantry.—Creation of large estates out of vacated holdings.—Ending of the corporate activity of the Hanseatic League.—Decay of industry and universities.—Political aspects.—Low ebb of re-

ligious life.—"Among the effects which this War [Thirty Years' War] left behind it, . . . the very first, . . . is the numerical effect upon the population of the Empire. The German economists and political philosophers of the generation which followed upon that of the Thirty Years' War were remarkably alive, as well they might be, to the primary importance for the welfare of a state of a numerous population living under conditions suitable for its due support; but the science of statistics was still unborn, and estimates of the advance or decline of population even in quiet times can often only be accepted with the aid of a good deal of faith. . . . The estimated loss [tradition has it twelve millions out of a population of eighteen or twenty millions in Germany] of population in the course of the Thirty Years' War covers . . . together with an actual decrease, the failure of the ordinary increase of population, even if this be taken at a very low rate indeed. It covers, as a matter of course, the loss of female as well as of male population, or rather it makes no distinction between them. . . . The attempt, . . . was made even at the time to arrive at results which at least seemed accurate; and, while one daring—but, at the same time, temperate—statistician in 1631 reckoned the Emperor's military losses during the first nine years of the war at 51,011 men, he stated those of the chief leaders on the Protestant side (exclusive it would seem of the Bohemians in the first phase of the war) during the same period to have reached 57,686. . . . A broadside, printed in the last year of the War, extending the number of those who were killed during its course as 'at least' 325,000—a number not much out of proportion to earlier calculation. . . . A large number of statements as to actual loss of population from divers causes are at the same time so overpowering in their magnitude, and so reasonably well authenticated, proceeding as they do from actually official sources—administrative statistics, ecclesiastical registers, municipal records and the like—that it is futile either to seek to discredit them one and all, or to treat them as mere isolated phenomena from which no general conclusions are to be drawn. Such, for instance, are many of the detailed items supporting the total figures which are given as to the decrease in the population of the sorely-tryed Palatinate—a decrease from something like half a million to less than a tith of that number; or in that of electoral Saxony, where, in the critical years 1631 and 1632, when it was successively occupied by the Imperial and Liguistic forces, more than 900,000 lives are said to have succumbed to the sword or sickness; . . . or of Franconia, Gustavus's own chosen prize, where the population sank so low that monastic vows before the age of 60 had to be prohibited, the marriage of clerics was stopped, and laymen were allowed to take two wives each. . . . Many men, women and children, too, must have been absorbed into that floating element of population, which, after being unhoused and unsettled by the tide of the War, followed the endless marches of the armies as an untold and untellable contingent of beggars and brigands. When peace returned, this vagabond part of the population was not extinguished, but waited to be revived in later days of warfare. . . . Few economic historians of the present day and few statisticians seem prepared to quarrel, that during the Thirty Years' War the population of Germany had sunk to one-half its previous total, or perhaps between one-half and two-thirds. This is the conclusion of Schmoller, the results of whose investigations, especially for north-eastern and eastern Germany are authoritative; and I do not think that any hazard

will be run in accepting it. It was the peasantry, in which of course lay the real strength of the greater portion of the Empire, that beyond all doubt suffered most heavily from the effects of the War. . . . With the peasant there was no question of buying off the inroads of the soldiery by power or by payment; it is we who have to pay for everything 'with the skin off our own bones.' Among the agricultural districts of Germany, we have precise governmental information as to part of the rustic population of the Mark Bradenburg; a year or two after the close of the War, their settlements were in number less than half of what they had been at its commencement, and there was at least one county which had lost all its villages but four. . . . Even in those districts favoured by nature like the Palatinate or Wurtemberg, or blessed with a capable ruler like the Elector Charles Lewis, whose heart was set upon recalling both landlords and peasants to the land whither he had himself returned with the Peace, labour was almost impossible to obtain, agricultural wages having risen to four or five times their former height; and the peasant had long to manage as he could without labourers—in other words, to limit his production to what was necessary for the bare subsistence of himself and his family. During this cruel war, the peasant, even if he remained in his cottage on the soil, instead of being hounded out of it or burnt down with it, had not merely to toil at the desperate task of making a livelihood out of his imperilled land. Besides the taxes and dues imposed upon him by native or foreign governments, he was subjected to personal services (*Fronen*) which so far from being extinguished by the War, frequently rose to an unprecedented height during its course, in some places to such a height as to convert the position of the free peasant into that of serfdom, while elsewhere they became so intolerable as to empty the land of its peasantry. [See also SERFDOM: 14th-19th centuries.] Moreover, in times of unrestrained violence and licensed illegality, the instances were numerous of the actual expulsion of peasants from the lands which they held by the landlords, in order that these might possess themselves directly of the vacated holdings. This is the notorious practice of *Bauernlegen*—a rough and ready way of creating large estates which was to exercise a lasting influence in parts of Germany, notably in Mecklenburg. . . . In the general bankruptcy which prevailed after the War, when the armies had to be disbanded, and the payments and compensations of various sorts settled—though signs of financial collapse were perceptible both during the War and even before its outbreak—it was therefore not astonishing that the peasant should be the worst sufferer. And this, to whatever section of his class he belonged: whether to that bound to the domains of the several princes, or to the estates of the nobility, or to the free peasants in their own holdings. The peasants' holdings were largely mortgaged like the lands of the nobles themselves, the mortgages being for the most part the capitalists, large or small, in the towns; and now there was a general stoppage of payment and fear of foreclosing, because of the profitless condition of husbandry. . . . Hence, a general state of hopeless indebtedness, in which the peasant, unable any longer to obtain the slightest advance of either money or materials, was the earliest and most certain to go under. Within half-a-dozen years from the Peace of Westphalia the problem had assumed such dimensions that it was brought, as a matter of imperial interest, before the Diet of Ratisbon. A sort of *tabula novæ* was proclaimed, a promise being

held out to creditors who had made loans to agriculturists of various classes of repayment of their capital within ten years, and in return the debtors were relieved of three-quarters of the interest due from them since the troubles of the War began, while for the payment of the remaining quarter they were to be allowed a ten years' respite. But, like many another decree of the Diet, this decree, which does not seem to have stood on any firm footing, when it was not either anticipated or superseded by the action of particular governments, remained ineffectual. Although, then, it may be conceded that the intolerable burden of debt placed upon the land was not wholly due to the War, but began to weigh down the cultivators even before the outbreak of hostilities, yet it was enormously increased by the conflict, which thus crippled, and in many parts of the Empire paralysed, its most important and widespread industry, and with it the vitality of the greater part of its population. Let us turn from the country to the towns. Here, again, it would be futile not to allow that some of the causes which contributed to the all but general downfall of the commercial prosperity, and hence of the political influence, of the German towns were in operation already before the outbreak of the War. For many a decade it was only by holding together at home against the encroachments of the territorial sovereigns that the fifty-one free towns of the Empire had preserved their autonomy behind their ancient walls; and their prosperity had been sapped at its base ever since the change in the great trade routes of the world had set in in the 15th century, and since in the 16th the nations who followed the Spaniards and Portuguese as the leaders of Oceanic intercourse—the French, the Dutch, and the English—had begun to distance German maritime trade. [The Thirty Years' War brought an end to the corporate activity of the Hanseatic League (See HANSA TOWNS.)] . . . The decay of industry, as already observed, is even more striking than that of trade, though the prosperity of both was of course inseparably bound together. The former was not due to any falling off in the aptitude of the Germans as technical workmen, or to a more than ordinary unwillingness, fostered by the continued endurance of the guild-system, to make use of new inventions or improvements, especially in the direction of machinery; but it was intensified by the continuous competition of other countries not similarly hampered by a growing deficiency of labour. For the cloth looms of Westphalia and the potteries of Hesse could no more than the vineyards and orchards of the Palatinate be worked without labourers; in Bavaria too, where the cloth and linen manufactures had attained to considerable prosperity, a complete and lasting stagnation had set in throughout these widespread industries. In Saxony the recovery seems to have been quicker—hastened, no doubt, by qualities which have always distinguished her population—intelligence and frugality. [Among the most disastrous effects of the Thirty Years' War was the decay of the Universities. (See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1348-1826.)] . . . The political effects proper of the War . . . had destroyed most of what before its outbreak had remained to recall the earlier and more vigorous life, or substituted for it new and alien formation. So with its military organization, which had been rent in twain. So with its constitutional life, for the Ratisbon Diet, abandoning all thoughts of reconstruction, merely kept giving the machinery without which the Empire would have lacked even the semblance of unity. The Emperor was driven back upon the family policy,



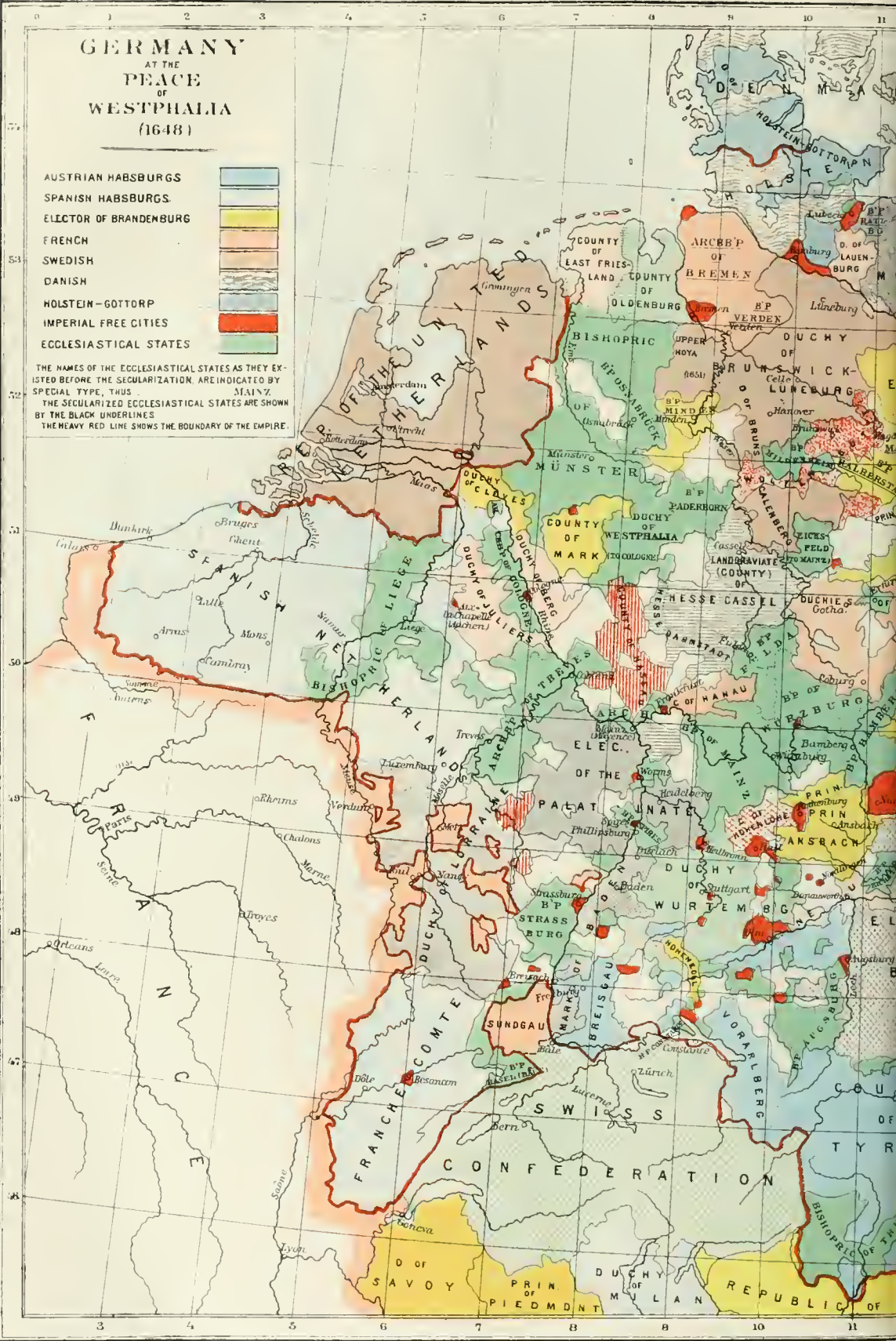
# GERMANY

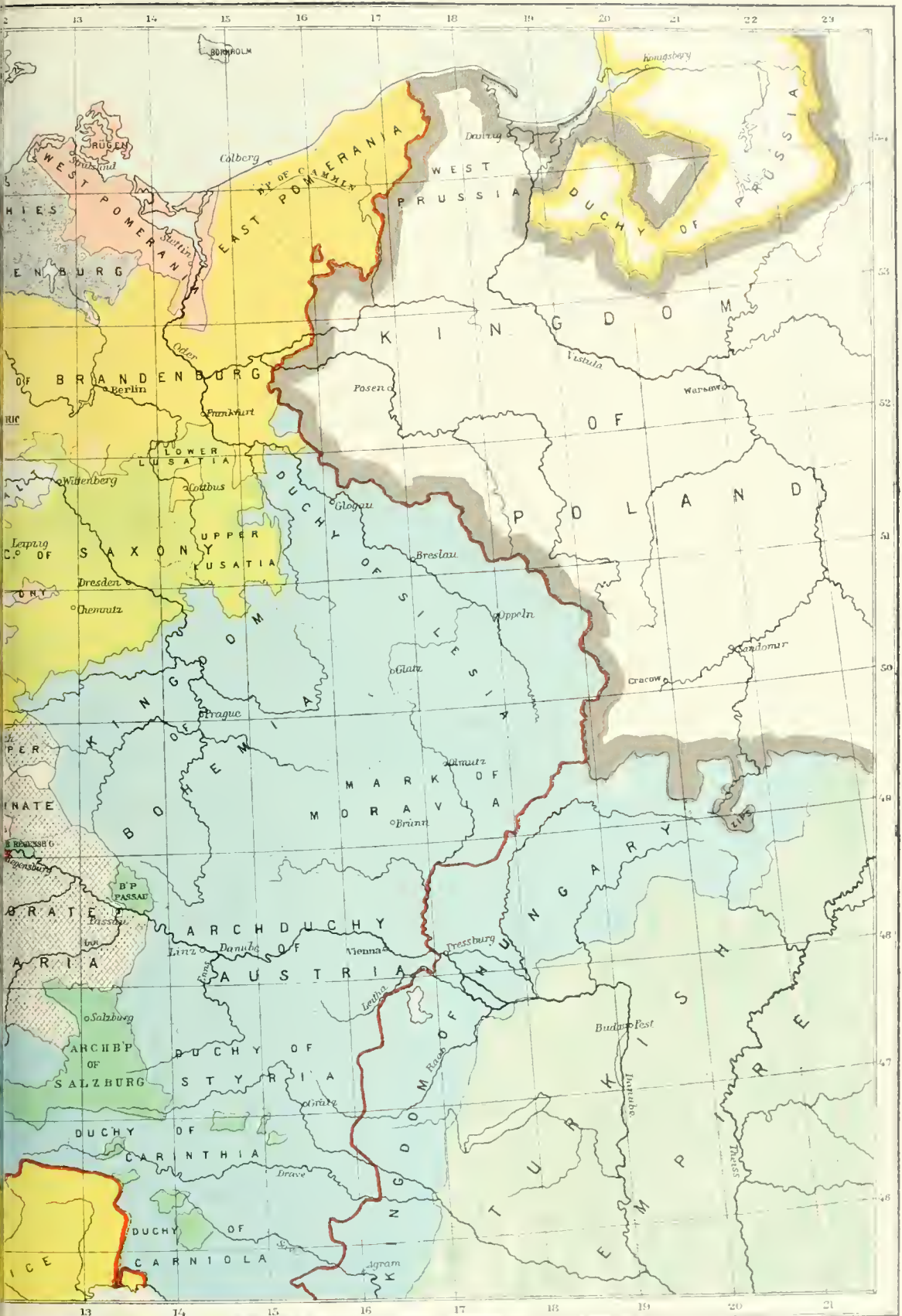
AT THE  
PEACE  
OF  
WESTPHALIA  
(1648)

- AUSTRIAN HABSBURGS
- SPANISH HABSBURGS
- ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG
- FRENCH
- SWEDISH
- DANISH
- HOLSTEIN-GOTTORP
- IMPERIAL FREE CITIES
- ECCLESIASTICAL STATES

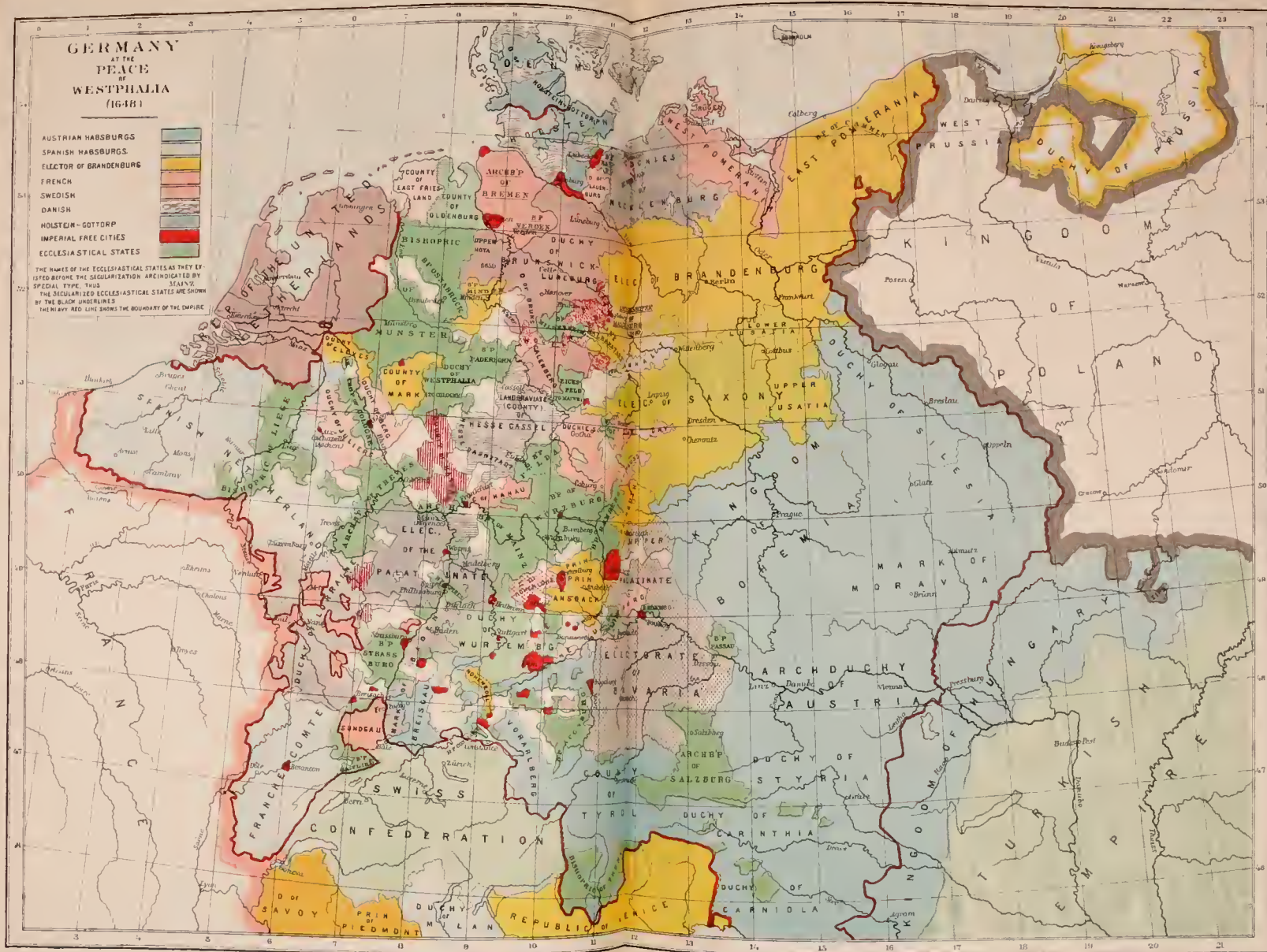


THE NAMES OF THE ECCLESIASTICAL STATES AS THEY EXISTED BEFORE THE SECULARIZATION, ARE INDICATED BY SPECIAL TYPE, THUS: MAINZ. THE SECULARIZED ECCLESIASTICAL STATES ARE SHOWN BY THE BLACK UNDERLINES. THE HEAVY RED LINE SHOWS THE BOUNDARY OF THE EMPIRE.





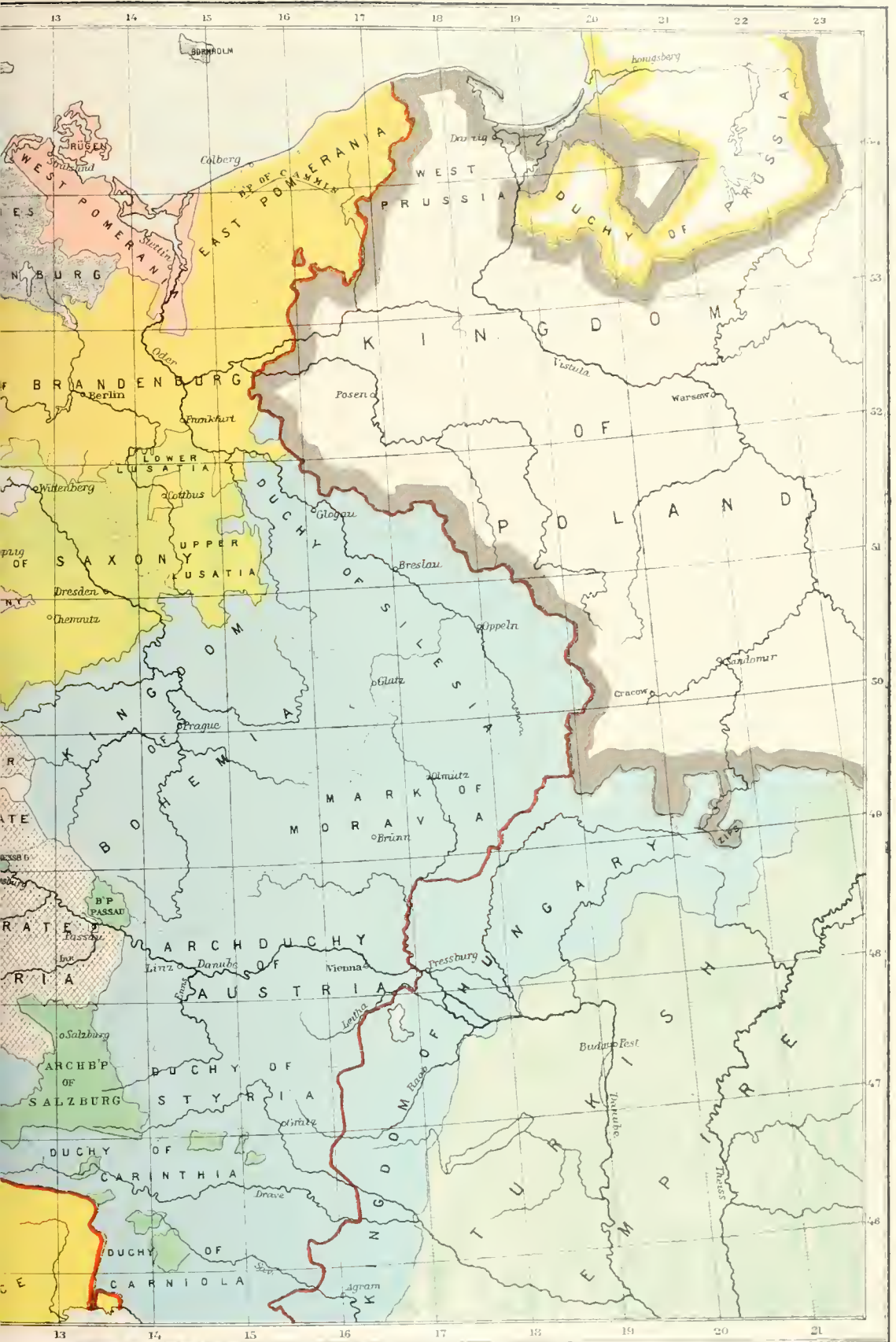
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which—unless it were in the warding off of the Eastern peril—could no longer even appeal for a common endeavour for national ends. The princes came to him for his alliance—though a vague prestige and the right of conferring favours of rank of place still attached to it—much as they came to any other power; or even resisted him in combination with other powers, whose alliance they had formally been justified in seeking. [See also AUSTRIA: 1618-1648.] . . . The religious life of Germany could not but suffer from the War more than any other side of the national existence. The gain secured by the Peace which concluded it to the cause of religious liberty was, as has been seen, marred by uncertainties and exceptions; while as to the establishment of the several forms of faith it was the *fiat* of the territorial prince, not the choice of his subjects, which, with certain limitations as to foundations that were to be left untouched as from a certain date, was pronounced to be the determining authority. But the religious life which underlay, or lay beyond, divergent confessions of faith or articles of belief could not be established or disestablished, settled or unmoored, by treaties and pacifications, and this life the War had constantly spoiled, broken and outraged. Except, in a measure, in the Bohemian or earliest stage of the War, and perhaps in the first siege of Magdeburg, and on some similar occasions in Silesia, the Palatinate and elsewhere, the War had even in its earliest stages not presented itself to the populations in the light of a religious war so much as in that of an endless series of invasions, occupations, devastations, bringing with it all the blankness as well as all the horrors belonging to a struggle carried on for ends to which those who suffered from it were more or less indifferent, or, worst of all, in that of a war carried on for its own sake. Thus religion, with all the emotions that nourish the religious sense, had been largely thrust out of the issues of the conflict, and by some of its agents frankly ignored. . . . Yet the voice of religion made heard its whisper—here and there its clear admonition—after the storms, and in the intervals allowed by darkness and riot; and out of the spiritual anarchy were born not mere passing murmurings or protests, but what were to prove the beginnings of new and far-reaching spiritual movements in the land. . . . The age of the Thirty Years' War is that in which the spiritual and intellectual life of Germany reached its lowest depths. The superstitious notions and misbelief which the Protestant Reformation had not only been unsuccessful in overcoming, but which it had allowed to continue their advance—at times almost under its protection—the belief in magic and witchcraft, and in the grotesque extravagances of astrology and alchemy—had corrupted all classes, from the highest to the lowest; had invaded the province of science— . . . and Kepler taught that each of the heavenly bodies possessed a soul of its own; had permeated the art and the practice of medicine; and, in the case of the peasantry, had congealed themselves into a mass of tenets which might almost be said to constitute a distinct religion. . . . Pietism has been held to have first taken its origin in a period partly coinciding with that of the War, it was nevertheless in the Lutheran body and on German soil that it attained to its first continuous growth.”—A. W. Ward, *Effects of the Thirty Years' War (Institution of Great Britain, Proceedings, v. 20, Mar. 8, 1012, pp. 372-377, 380, 303-305, 397).*

1648.—Peace of Westphalia.—Cession of Alsace to France.—Separation of Switzerland from the empire.—Loosening of the constitu-

tional bonds of the empire.—“The opening of the peace negotiations between the Emperor and his enemies was . . . fixed for the 25th of March, 1642, and the cities of Münster and Osnabrück as the places of the sitting; but neither in this year nor in the next did it take place. It was not until the year 1644 that in the former of the cities” were assembled the following: The Papal Nuncio and the envoy of the Republic of Venice, acting as mediators, two imperial ambassadors, two representatives of France, three of Spain, and the Catholic Electors; later came also the Catholic Princes. To Osnabrück, Sweden sent two ambassadors and France three, while the Electors, the German Princes and the imperial cities were represented. Questions of etiquette, which demanded prior settlement, occupied months, and serious matters when reached were dealt with slowly and jealously, with many interruptions. It was not until the 24th of October, 1648, that the articles of peace forming the two treaties of Münster and Osnabrück, and known together as the Peace of Westphalia, were signed by all the negotiators at Münster. The more important of the provisions of the two instruments were the following: “To France was secured the perpetual possession of the Bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, as also Moyenvic and Pignerol, with the right to keep a garrison in Philipsburg, and finally Breisach, Alsace, with its ten imperial cities, and the Sundgau. The Emperor bound himself to gain the assent of the Archduke Ferdinand, of Tyrol and Spain, to this last-named cession. France made good to the Archduke this loss by the payment of 3,000,000 francs. Although it was not expressly provided that the connection with the Empire of the German provinces ceded to France should be dissolved, yet the separation became, as a matter of fact, a complete one. The Emperor did not summon the Kings of France to the Diets of the Empire, and the latter made no demand for such summons. . . . In relation to Italy, the French treaty provided that the peace concluded in 1631 [see ITALY: 1627-1631] should remain in force, except the part relating to Pignerol.” [“Pinerolo was definitely put under the French overlordship.”—G. W. Kitchen, *History of France, v. 3, p. 98*]. Switzerland was made independent of the German Empire; but the Circle of Burgundy [the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté] was still to form a part of the Empire, and after the close of the war between France and Spain, in which the Emperor and the Empire were to take no part, was to be included in the peace. No aid was to be rendered to the Duke of Lorraine against France, although the Emperor and the Empire were left free to mediate for him a peace. Sweden received Hither Pomerania, including the Island of Rügen, from Further Pomerania the Island of Wollin and several cities, with their surroundings, among which were Stettin, as also the expectancy of Further Pomerania in case of the extinction of the house of Brandenburg. Furthermore, it received the city of Wismar, in Mecklenburg, and the Bishoprics of Bremen [secularized and made a Grand Duchy] and Verden, with reservation of the rights and immunities of the city of Bremen. Sweden was to hold all the ceded territory as feudal tenures of the Empire, and be represented for them in the Imperial Diet. . . . Brandenburg received for its loss of Pomerania the Bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Camin, and the expectancy of that of Magdeburg as soon as this should become vacant by the death of its Administrator, the Saxon Prince, although the four bailiwicks separated from it were to remain with Saxony as provided in the Peace of Prague. . . .

The house of Brunswick-Lüneberg was to renounce its right to the coadjutorship of Magdeburg, Bremen, Halberstadt, and Ratzeburg, and, in return for this renunciation, was to alternate with a Catholic prelate in the possession of the Bishopric of Osnabrück. . . . To Duke Maximilian of Bavaria was conveyed the Electorate, together with the Upper Palatinate, to be hereditary in his family of the line of William, for which he, on the other hand, was to surrender to the Emperor the account of the 13,000,000 florins which he had made for the execution of the sentence against the Palsgrave Frederic. To the Palsgrave, Charles Lewis, son of the proscribed Elector [Frederic, who had died in 1632], was given back the Lower Palatinate, while a new Electorate, the eighth, was created for him. . . . There were numerous provisions relating to the restoration of the Dukes of Würtemberg, the Margraves of Baden, and the Counts of Nassau and those of Hanau to several parts of the territories which either belonged to them or were contested. A general amnesty was indeed provided, and every one was to be restored to the possession of the lands which he had held before the war. This general article was, however, limited by various special provisions, as that in relation to the Palsgrave, and was not to be applied to Austria at all. . . . Specially important are the sections which relate to the settlement of religious grievances. The treaty of Passau and the Augsburg religious peace were confirmed; the 1st of January, 1624, was fixed as the time which was to govern mutual reclamations between the Catholics and Protestants; both parties were secured the right to all ecclesiastical foundations, whether in mediate or immediate connection with the Empire, which they severally held in possession on the first day of January, 1624; if any such had been taken from them after this date, restoration was to be made, unless otherwise specially provided. The ecclesiastical Reservation was acknowledged by the Protestants, and Protestant holders of ecclesiastical property were freely admitted to the Imperial Diets. The right of reformation was conceded to the Estates, and permission to emigrate to the subject; while it was at the same time provided that, if in 1624 Protestant subjects of Catholic Princes, or the reverse, enjoyed freedom of religion, this right should not in the future be diminished. It was specially granted for Silesia that all the concessions which had been made before the war to the Dukes of Liegnitz, Münsterburg, and Oels, and to the city of Breslau, relating to the free exercise of the Augsburg Confession, should remain in force. . . . Finally, the Reformed—that is, the adherents of Calvinism—were placed upon the same ground with those of the Augsburg Confession; and it was provided that if a Lutheran Estate of the Empire should become a Calvinist, or the reverse, his subjects should not be forced to change with their Prince.”—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, v. 2, ch. 10.—“The emperor, in his own name and in behalf of his family and the empire, ceded the full sovereignty of Upper and Lower Alsace, with the prefecture of Haguenau, or the ten towns [Haguenau, Schelestadt, Weisseburgh, Colmar, Landau, Obereenheim, Rosheim, Munster in the Val de St. Gregoire, Kaiserberg, and Turingheim], and their dependencies. But by one of those contradictions, which are common in treaties, when both parties wish to preserve their respective claims, another article was introduced, binding the king of France to leave the ecclesiastics and immediate nobility of those provinces in the immediacy which they had hitherto possessed with regard to the Roman empire, and not to pretend to any sov-

ereignty over them, but to remain content with such rights as belonged to the house of Austria. Yet this was again contradicted by a declaration, that this exception should not derogate from the supreme sovereignty before yielded to the king of France.”—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 50.—“Respecting the rights of sovereignty due to the princes and the relations of the states of the empire with the emperor, the Peace of Westphalia contained such regulations as must in the course of time produce a still greater relaxation of those ties, already partially loosened, which held together the empire in one entirety. . . . At the Peace of Westphalia the independence of the princes was made completely legal. They received the entire right of sovereignty over their territory, together with the power of making war, concluding peace, and forming alliances among themselves, as well as with foreign powers, provided such alliances were not to the injury of the empire. But what a feeble obstacle must this clause have presented? For henceforward, if a prince of the empire, having formed an alliance with a foreign power, became hostile to the emperor, he could immediately avail himself of the pretext that it was for the benefit of the empire, the maintenance of his rights, and the liberty of Germany. And in order that the said pretext might, with some appearance of right, be made available on every occasion, foreigners established themselves as the guardians of the empire; and accordingly France and Sweden took upon themselves the responsibility of legislating as guaranties not only for the Germanic constitution, but for everything else that was concluded in the Peace of Westphalia at Münster and Osnabrück. Added to this, in reference to the imperial cities, whose rights had hitherto never been definitively fixed, it was now declared that they should always be included under the head of the other states, and that they should command a decisive voice in the diets; thenceforth, therefore, their votes and those of the other states—the electoral and other princes—should be of equal validity.”—F. Kohlrausch, *History of Germany*, ch. 26.—See also WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF.—Peace between Spain and the United Provinces was embodied in a separate treaty, but negotiated at Münster, and concluded and signed a few months earlier in the same year. The war between Spain and France went on. See NETHERLANDS: 1648.

1648.—Effects of the Peace of Westphalia on the empire.—It becomes a loose confederacy and purely German.—“It may . . . be said of this famous peace, as of the other so-called ‘fundamental law of the Empire,’ the Golden Bull, that it did no more than legalize a condition of things already in existence, but which by being legalized acquired new importance. . . . While the political situation, to use a current phrase, had changed within the last two hundred years, the eyes with which men regarded it had changed still more. Never by their fiercest enemies in earlier times, not once by the Popes or Lombard republicans in the heat of their strife with the Franconian and Swabian Cæsars, had the Emperors been reproached as mere German kings, or their claim to be the lawful heirs of Rome denied. The Protestant jurists of the 16th or rather of the 17th century were the first persons who ventured to scoff at the pretended lordship of the world, and declare their Empire to be nothing more than a German monarchy, in dealing with which no superstitious reverence need prevent its subjects from making the best terms they could for themselves, and controlling a sovereign whose religious predilections made him the friend of their enemies. . . . It was by

these views . . . that the states, or rather France and Sweden acting on their behalf, were guided in the negotiations of Osnabrück and Münster. By extorting a full recognition of the sovereignty of all the princes, Catholics and Protestants alike, in their respective territories, they bound the Emperor from any direct interference with the administration, either in particular districts or throughout the Empire. All affairs of public importance, including the rights of making war or peace, of levying contributions, raising troops, building fortresses, passing or interpreting laws, were henceforth to be left entirely in the hands of the Diet. . . . Both Lutherans and Calvinists were declared free from all jurisdiction of the Pope or any Catholic prelate. Thus the last link which bound Germany to Rome was snapped, the last of the principles by virtue of which the Empire had existed was abandoned. For the Empire now contained and recognized as its members persons who formed a visible body at open war with the Holy Roman Church; and its constitution admitted schismatics to a full share in all those civil rights which, according to the doctrines of the early Middle Age, could be enjoyed by no one who was out of the communion of the Catholic Church. The Peace of Westphalia was therefore an abrogation of the sovereignty of Rome, and of the theory of Church and State with which the name of Rome was associated. And in this light was it regarded by Pope Innocent X., who commanded his legate to protest against it, and subsequently declared it void by the bull 'Zelo domus Dei.' . . . The Peace of Westphalia is an era in imperial history not less clearly marked than the coronation of Otto the Great, or the death of Frederick II. As from the days of Maximilian it had borne a mixed or transitional character, well expressed by the name Romano-Germanic, so henceforth it is in everything but title purely and solely a German Empire. Properly, indeed, it was no longer an empire at all, but a Confederation, and that of the loosest sort. For it had no common treasury, no efficient common tribunals, no means of coercing a refractory member; its states were of different religions, were governed according to different forms, were administered judicially and financially without any regard to each other. . . . There were 300 petty principalities between the Alps and the Baltic, each with its own laws, its own courts, . . . its little armies, its separate coinage, its tolls and custom-houses on the frontier, its crowd of meddlesome and pedantic officials. . . . This vicious system, which paralyzed the trade, the literature, and the political thought of Germany, had been forming itself for some time, but did not become fully established until the Peace of Westphalia, by emancipating the princes from imperial control, had made them despots in their own territories."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 19.

1648-1705.—After the Peace of Westphalia.—French influence in the empire.—Creation of the ninth elector.—After the Peace of Westphalia, the remainder of the reign of Ferdinand III "passed in tranquillity. . . . He caused his son to be elected king of the Romans, under the title of Ferdinand IV.; but the young prince, already king of Bohemia and Hungary, preceded him to the tomb, and left the question of the succession to be decided by a diet. Ferdinand III. died in 1657. . . . The interregnum, and, indeed, the century which followed the death of Ferdinand, showed the alarming preponderance of the influence gained by France in the affairs of the empire, and the consequent criminality of the princes who had first invoked the assistance of that power. Her recent victories,

her character as joint guarantee of the treaty of Westphalia, and the contiguity of her possessions to the states of the empire, encouraged her ministers to demand the imperial crown for the youthful Louis XIV. Still more extraordinary is the fact that four of the electors were gained, by that monarch's gold, to espouse his views. . . . Fortunately for Germany and for Europe, the electors of Treves, Brandenburg, and Saxony were too patriotic to sanction this infatuated proposal; they threatened to elect a native prince of their own authority,—a menace which caused the rest to co-operate with them; so that, after some fruitless negotiations, Leopold, son of the late emperor, king of Bohemia and of Hungary, was raised to the vacant dignity. His reign was one of great humiliation to his house and to the empire. Without talents for government, without generosity, feeble, bigoted, and pusillanimous, he was little qualified to augment the glory of the country. . . . Throughout his long reign [1657-1705], he had the mortification to witness, on the part of Louis XIV., a series of the most unprovoked, wanton, and unprincipled usurpations ever recorded in history. . . . Internally, the reign of Leopold affords some interesting particulars. . . . Not the least is the establishment of a ninth electoral dignity in favour of Ernest Augustus, Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, who then became (1692) the first elector of Hanover. This was the act of Leopold, in return for important aid in money and troops from two princes of that house; but it could not be effected without the concurrence of the electoral body, who long resisted it. . . . The establishment of a permanent diet, attended, not by the electors in person, but by their representatives, is one of the most striking peculiarities of Leopold's reign."—S. A. Dunham, *History of the Germanic empire*, v. 3, bk. 3, ch. 3.—See also DIET, GERMANIC.

1648-1715.—Relations of Austria, Germany and France after the Thirty Years' War.—"The whole shamefulness of this disintegration of Germany, showed itself in the defenceless state of the empire. . . . Right under the greedy hands of France lay the weakest, the most unguarded members of the empire. All along that priest-avenue the Rhine, from Münster and Osnabrück up to Constance, stretched a confused mass of tiny states, incapable of in any way seriously arming themselves, compelled to betray their country through the feeling of their own utter weakness. Almost all the Rhenish courts held pensions from Versailles. . . . Fully one-third of Germany served in the wars of the empire as a dead burden. . . . The weakness of Germany was to blame for the new growth of power in Austria and France; . . . the foreigners laughed at the 'querelles allemandes' and the 'misère allemande'; the Frenchman Bonhours mockingly asked the question if it was possible that a German could have intellect. . . . As the born antagonist of the old order of things in Europe, the basis of which was Germany's weakness, Prussia stood in a world of enemies whose mutual jealousies formed her only safeguard. She was without any natural ally, for the German nation had not yet come to understand this budding power. . . . Just as the House of Savoy was able to tread its way through the superiority of the Hapsburgs on the one hand and of the Bourbons on the other, so did Prussia, although immeasurably harder pressed, have to find a path for herself between Austria and France, between Sweden and Poland, between the maritime powers and the inert mass of the German empire. She had to use every means of remorseless egoism, always ready to change front, always with two strings to her

bow. The electorate of Brandenburg felt to the very marrow of its being how deeply foreign ideas had eaten into Germany. All the disorganized forces . . . which opposed the strong lead of the new monarchy placed their faith in foreign help. Dutch garrisons were stationed on the Lower Rhine and favored the struggle of the Cleve estates against their German lords. The diets of Magdeburg and of the electoral Mark counted on Austria. . . . Frederick William broke down the barriers of the Netherlanders in the German Northwest; he drove their troops from Cleve and from East Friesland. . . . Then he called out to the deaf nation his warning words, 'Remember that you are Germans,' and sought to drive the Swedes from the soil of the empire. Twice did the ill-will of France and Austria succeed in robbing the Brandenburg prince of the reward of his victories, of the rule in Pomerania: the fame of the day at Fehrbellin [see BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688] they could not take from him. . . . When the republic of the Netherlands threatened to fall before the attack of Louis XIV, Brandenburg caught the raised arm of the conqueror [see NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678]. Frederick William carried on the only serious war that the empire ventured on for the recovery of Alsace [see AUSTRIA: 1672-1714]. . . . With the rise of Prussia began the long bloody work of freeing Germany from foreign rule. . . . In this one state there awoke again, still half unconscious as if drunken with long sleep, the old hearty pride in the fatherland. . . . The House of Hapsburgh recognized earlier than the Hohenzollerns did themselves how hostile this modern North German state was to the old constitution of the Holy Empire. In Silesia, in Pomerania, in the Jülich-Cleve war of succession—everywhere Austria stood and looked with distrust on its dangerous rival. . . . Equally dangerous to Hapsburgh and to the German empire were the French and the Turks; how natural was it for Hapsburgh to seek support from Germany, to involve the empire in its wars, to use it as a bulwark towards the west or for diversions against France in case the Turks threatened the walls of Vienna. [See HUNGARY: 1668-1683.] . . . Only it cannot be denied that in this common action the Austrian policy, under a more centralized guidance and backed by a firmer tradition, looked out for its own advantage better than did the German empire—loose, heavy, and without consistent leadership. When the might of Louis XIV began to oppress Germany the policy of the Hapsburghs was to remain for a long time lukewarm and inactive. This policy led Austria indeed even to make a league with France and, when she did at last decide to help the great elector of Brandenburg against the enemy of the empire, this happened so charily and equivocally as to give rise to the doubt whether the Austrian army was not placed there to keep watch over the Brandenburg forces or even to positively hinder their advance. An Austrian writer himself assures us that Montecuculi was in secret commanded only to make a show of using his weapons against the French. For a long time Austria stood by inactive while the Reannexations [see FRANCE: 1670-1681] were going on. . . . The whole war as conducted by Austria on the Rhine and in the West [see AUSTRIA: 1672-1714] was languid and sleepy; the empire and individual warlike princes were left to protect themselves. What an entirely different display of power did Austria make when it was a question of fighting for its own dynastic interests!"—H. von Treitschke, *Deutsche Geschichte im 10ten Jahrhundert* (tr. from the German), v. 1, pp. 21-23.—"As in the wars so in the diplomatic negotiations the sep-

aration of the Austrian dynastic interests from the advantage and needs of the German empire often enough came to light. It is only necessary to revert to the attitude which the emperor's diplomacy took at Nimeguen and Ryswick [see NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF; FRANCE: 1697]. . . . When in the conferences at Gertruidenburg (1710) Louis XIV was reduced to being willing not only to give up the 'Reannexations' and Strassburg but even to restore Alsace and the fortress of Valenciennes, it was also not the interests of the empire but solely those of the House of Hapsburgh which led to the rejection of these offers and to the continuance of a war by which, as it turned out eventually, not one of these demands was gained."—L. Häusser, *Deutsche Geschichte* (tr. from the German), v. 1, p. 23.—"Louis XIV regarded himself not exactly as enemy of the German empire and of the imperial power of the House of Hapsburgh, but rather as a pretendant to the throne. As he explains it in the political directions meant for his son, the empire of the West, the heritage of Charles the Great, belongs not of right to the Germans but to the kings who are crowned at Rheims."—*Ibid.*, v. 1, p. 509.

1648-1780.—Austrian incubus.—Growth of Austrian territory at the expense of a united empire.—Germany retarded by the medievalism of its ruling state.—"Before the Thirty Years' War the territories of the German Hapsburghs were not very considerable. The greatest part of Hungary was in the hands of the Turks; the Tyrol belonged to a collateral line, and, in the other provinces, the independence of the Nobility was much stronger than the sovereignty of the Archdukes. The Nobles were all zealous protestants, so that a monarchical power could only be created after a victory of the Catholic faith. For the first time since 1621, the crown was seen in these regions to assume a really dominant position. Efforts in this direction had been zealously carried on since 1648; the Tyrolese Estates now lost their most important privileges; and, above all, the Emperor succeeded, by the help of Polish and German troops, in driving out the Turks from Hungary, and at the same time crushing the national freedom of the Magyars with frightful bloodshed. By these victories the Monarchy gained, in the first place, a large increase of territory—which placed it nearly on a level with France. In the second place it acquired at home the power of raising as many taxes and soldiers as were necessary to increase the army to the extent of its wishes; and of distributing its officials and troops—without distinction of nation—as imperial servants, throughout its dominions. And thus it secured submission at home and disposable strength for its operations abroad. Here it stopped short. As it had no national, and, consequently, no warm and natural relation to any of its provinces—which were merely used as passive tools to promote the lofty aims of the Hapsburgh family—the Government had no intention of using its power at home for the furtherance of the public good, or the building up of a generally useful Administration. The Nobility had no longer the strength to resist the demands of the Crown for men and money, but it still retained exemption from taxes, the jurisdiction and police among its own peasants, and a multitude of feudal rights, which, often enough, degraded the peasant to the condition of a serf, and everywhere bound down agriculture in the most galling bonds. Of manufactures there were little or none; trade was carried on on the system of guilds. The State officials exercised but little influence over the internal affairs of the Communes, or Provinces; and the privileged orders had full liberty to prosecute their own in-

terests among their inferiors with inconsiderate selfishness. In this aristocracy, the Church, from its wealth and its close internal unity, assumed the first place; and its superior importance was still farther enhanced by the fact of its being the chief bond of unity between the otherwise so loosely compacted portions of the Empire. . . . The Church attached the Nobility to the Government; for we must not forget that a very considerable portion of the estates of the Nobles had passed into the hands of new possessors who had received them as a reward for being good Catholics. The Church, too, taught all the youth of the Empire—in all its different languages—obedience to the House of Hapsburgh, and received from the Crown, in return, exclusive control of the national education. It formed, in spite of the resistance of nationalities, a sort of public opinion in favour of the unity of the Empire; and the Crown, in return, excluded all non-Catholic opinions from the schools, from literature and religion. Austria, therefore, continued to be Catholic, even after 1648; and by this we mean, not only that its Princes were personally devout—or that the Catholic clergy were supported in the performance of their spiritual functions—or that the institutions of the Church were liberally supported—but also that the State directed its policy according to ecclesiastical views, made use of the Church for political purposes, and crushed every movement hostile to it in all other spheres of the national life. In Austria, therefore, it was not merely a question of theological differences, but of the deepest and most comprehensive points of distinction between the mediæval and the modern world. Austria was still, in its whole nature, a Mediæval State or Confederacy of States. The consequences of this condition were most strikingly seen in its relation to Germany. In the first place, there was a complete separation, in regard to all mental and spiritual matters, between the great body of the Empire, and its powerful Eastern member. This was the period in which Germany was awaking to a new intellectual life in modern Europe, and laying the foundation of its modern science in every branch—in History and Statistics, Chemistry and Geology, Jurisprudence and Philosophy—and assuming by its Literature, an equal rank with other nations in national refinement and civilization. By the works of genius which this period produced Austria remained entirely uninfluenced; and it has been said, that Werther had only been made known to the Viennese in the form of fireworks in the Prater. The literary policy allowed no seed of modern culture to enter the Empire; and the Jesuit schools had rendered the soil unfit for its reception. All the progress of German civilization, at this period, was based on the principle of the independence of the mind in art and science. The education of the Jesuits, on the contrary, though unsurpassed where the object is to prepare men for a special purpose, commences by disowning individual peculiarities, and the right of a man to choose his own career. There was, at this time, no other characteristic of an Austrian than an entire estrangement from the progress of the German mind. . . . The progress of the people in science and art, in politics and military strength, was only seen in the larger secular territories, which, after 1648, enjoyed their own sovereignty; and even these were checked in their movements at every step by the remnants of the Imperial Constitution. The Members of the Empire alone, in whom the decaying remains of Mediæval existence still lingered on—the Ecclesiastical Princes—the small Counts—the Imperial Knights and the Imperial Towns,—clung to the Emperor

and the Imperial Diet. In these, partly from their small extent of territory, partly from the inefficiency of their institutions, neither active industry, nor public spirit, nor national pride, were to be found. In all which tended to elevate the nation, and raise its hopes for the future, they took, at this period, as little part as Austria herself. . . . The Imperial constitution, therefore, was inwardly decayed, and stood in no relation to the internal growth of the nation. . . . There was the same divergence between Austria and Germany with respect to their foreign interests, as we have observed in their internal relations. After the Turks had been driven from Hungary, and the Swedes from the half of Pomerania, Germany had only two neighbours whom it was a matter of vital importance to watch,—the Poles and the French. In the South, on the contrary, it had no interests in opposition to Italy, except the protection of its frontier by the possession or the neutrality of the Alpine passes. And yet it was just towards Italy that the eyes of the House of Hapsburg had been uninterruptedly directed for centuries past. The favourite traditions of the family, and their political and ecclesiastical interest in securing the support of the Pope, and thereby that of the Clergy, constantly impelled them to consolidate and extend their dominion in that country. All other considerations yielded to this; and this is intelligible enough from an Austrian point of view; but it was not on that account less injurious to the German Empire. How strikingly was this opposition of interests displayed at the end of the glorious war of the Spanish succession, when the Emperor rejected a peace which would have restored Strasburg and Alsace to the Empire, because only Naples, and not Sicily also, was offered to Austria! How sharply defined to the same relations present themselves to our view, in the last years of the Hapsburg dynasty, at the peace of Vienna in 1738!—on which occasion the Emperor—in order at least to gain Tuscany, as a compensation for the loss of Naples,—gave up Lorraine to the French, without even consulting the Empire, which he had dragged into the war. Austria thus maintained a predominant influence in Italy; but the Empire, during the whole century after the Peace of Westphalia, did not obtain a single noteworthy advantage over France. How much more was this the case with respect to Poland, which during the whole period of the religious wars had been the most zealous ally of Spain and the Hapsburgs, and which subsequently seemed to threaten no danger to Austrian interests.”—H. von Sybel, *History of the French Revolution*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.

1658.—Election of the emperor, Leopold I.

1660-1664.—Renewed war with the Turks.—Victory of St. Gothard.—Transylvania liberated.—Twenty years' truce. See HUNGARY: 1660-1664.

1662.—Fixed contributions instituted for support of standing army. See TAXATION: Growth from earliest times.

1663-1727.—Pietistic movement in education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 1663-1727.

1668-1683.—War of Austria and Poland against Turkey and Hungary.—Unsuccessful siege of Vienna by Turks. See HUNGARY: 1668-1683.

1672-1679.—War of the Coalition against Louis XIV. See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674; 1674-1678; NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1675-1678.—War with Sweden.—Battle of Fehrbellin. See BRANDENBURG: 1640-1688; SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

1679-1681.—Final absorption of Alsace and Les Trois-Evêchés by France, with boundaries

widened.—Bold encroachments of the French Chambers of Reannexation.—Seizure of Strasbourg. See FRANCE: 1679-1681.

1684.—National Prussian code of poor relief. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1684-1748.

1686.—League of Augsburg against Louis XIV.—“The Duke of Orléans, the French King’s brother, had married the sister of the Elector Palatine, the last of the House of Simmern, who died in May 1685, when his next relative, the Count Palatine Philip William, Duke of Neuberg, took possession of the Electorate. The Duchess of Orléans had by her marriage contract renounced all her feudal rights to the Palatinate, but not her claims to the allodial property and the moveables of her family.” These latter claims, taken in hand by Louis XIV on behalf of his sister-in-law, were made so formidable that the new Elector appealed to the Empire for protection, “and thus redoubled the uneasiness felt in Germany, and indeed throughout the greater part of Europe, respecting the schemes of Louis. The Prince of Orange availed himself of these suspicions to forward his plans against Louis. He artfully inflamed the general alarm, and at length succeeded in inducing the Emperor Leopold, the Kings of Spain and Sweden, as princes of the Empire, the Electors of Saxony and Bavaria, the circles of Suabia, Franconia, Upper Saxony, and Bavaria, to enter into the celebrated League of Augsburg (July 9th 1686). The object of this league was to maintain the Treaties of Münster and Nimeguen and the Truce of Ratisbon. If any of the members of it were attacked he was to be assisted by the whole confederacy; 60,000 men were to be raised, who were to be frequently drilled, and to form a camp during some weeks of every year, and a common fund for their support was to be established at Frankfort. The League was to be in force only for three years, but might be prolonged at the expiration of that term should the public safety require it. The Elector Palatine, who was in fact the party most directly interested, acceded to the League early in September, as well as the Duke of Holstein Gottorp.”—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, bk. 5, ch. 5.—“To Madame’s great anger France set up a claim to the Palatinate on her behalf, Louvois persuading the King and the royal family that with a few vigorous measures the Palatinate would be abandoned by the Neubourgs and annexed to France as part of Madame’s dowry. This led to the devastation of the states, to which Madame [Charlotte Elizabeth, the Duchess of Orleans] so often and so bitterly alludes during the next ten years. Obligated by Louis XIV’s policy to represent herself as desirous to recover her rights over her father’s and brother’s succession, in many documents which she was never even shown, Madame protested in all her private letters against France’s action in the matter, and made every one at court thoroughly aware of her grief and disapproval of what the king was doing on her behalf.”—*Life and letters of Charlotte Elizabeth, Princess Palatine*, ch. 2.

1689-1696.—War of the League of Augsburg, or Grand Alliance, against Louis XIV. See FRANCE: 1689-1690 to 1695-1696.

1690.—Second devastation of the Palatinate. See FRANCE: 1689-1690.

18th century.—Advances in state and compulsory education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Germany.

18th-19th centuries.—Jews in Germany.—Numbers and treatment. See JEWS: Germany: 18th-19th centuries.

1700.—Interest in the question of the Spanish

succession. See SPAIN: 1698-1700; 1701-1702.

1700-1800.—Suffrage reforms and extensions. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1100-1800.

1701-1740.—First king of Prussia (Frederick I) and his bad administration.—Second king (Frederick William I) and his autocratic but able rule.—Up-bringing of Frederick the Great.—“During the forty-eight years of [Frederick William, the Great Elector’s] wise, energetic, but ruthless, reign, the territory of Brandenburg, Prussia was increased by nearly 50 per cent. Its population rose from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000, notwithstanding wars, famine, and pestilence. The success of the civil administration of a country can be gauged largely by the revenue returns. During the rule of the Great Elector the State revenue of Brandenburg-Prussia increased, incredible as it may seem, nearly five-fold, from 500,000 to 2,500,000 thalers. He had found a poor, devastated country without order and without an army. He left a greatly enlarged State, a comparatively wealthy and much larger population, and a large and excellent army to his successor. In 1688 the Great Elector died. His place was taken by Frederick the Third, who in 1701 assumed the royal crown and the title of King Frederick the First. Frederick was a vain and worthless monarch. Under his rule the country declined and decayed. Maladministration became general. However, he maintained and even increased the Prussian army. That was his only merit. Under the inept rule of this Frederick, who tried to ape Louis the Fourteenth, and who wasted the national resources in vain ostentation, luxury, and debauchery, the lifework of the Great Elector was largely destroyed. The unification, concentration, and organisation of the Prussian administration and of the whole national life which that great ruler had effected and the efficiency which he had created were temporarily lost.”—J. E. Barker, *Foundations of Germany*, p. 7.—“The ‘seed of ambition’ bore no fruit in the time of the first king, Frederick I., a man of somewhat feeble character, was satisfied with giving a lustre to his crown by the splendour of his ceremonials. His son and successor was of a totally different stamp. A coarse, uncultivated boor, with a passionate temper and a touch of insanity, Frederick William had nevertheless considerable merits as a sovereign.”—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years’ War*, p. 16.—“Frederick William was neither brilliant, nor had he winning ways. He was the organiser, the disciplinarian, the school-master, the true maker of modern Germany. History which has named his son ‘the Great’ should call Frederick William the First ‘the Thorough.’ . . . King Frederick William had seen the advantage of conscientious one-man rule in the case of the Great Elector. He resolved to administer Prussia autocratically, treating the whole country like a huge private estate, and to improve it in every direction to the utmost of his ability. He wrote on one of the first days of his government, according to Droysen, that he would be his own field-marshal and his own minister of finance. He might have added that he would be his own minister of war, agriculture, commerce, education, justice, religion, and home affairs as well. He ordered the affairs of the Church, and prescribed the nature of the services and of the sermons. In every sermon the duties of the subject, and especially the duty of paying the taxes punctually, had to be mentioned. Other creeds were not to be attacked by the clergy. Sermons were to be short. If a sermon lasted longer than an hour the clergyman was to be fined two thalers. Frederick William despised those citizens who lived without productive work,



especially lawyers, artists, scientists, actors, dancing-masters, and money-lenders, and he prosecuted usurers with the greatest energy. . . . He thought newspapers superfluous and wholly mischievous. He prosecuted them, and in 1713 and 1714 he prohibited their appearance in Berlin altogether."—J. E. Barker, *Foundations of Germany*, pp. 9-10.—"Frugal and simple in his own life, he could not endure that the wealth of the nation should be squandered on empty show, and he promptly curtailed the expenditure of the Court, which had been very lavish in his father's time, and introduced economy into every branch of the public expenditure. The resources thus obtained provided the means for adding regiment after regiment to the army, until from the 38,000 which it had numbered at the accession of Frederick William it rose by degrees to nearly 84,000. To give it a national character and to insure its being kept at the required strength, the whole country was divided into circles, and each regiment was assigned to a particular district, from which two-thirds of its members were recruited—by forcible enlistment if necessary. . . . Army organization was the one business of Frederick William's life. He took a delight in even the minutest details of the service, and though his mania for tall recruits and the prices he paid for them must provoke a smile, he still deserves great credit for the perseverance with which he went on perfecting the machine until in drill and discipline his army stood far in advance of any in Europe."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War*, pp. 16-17.—Frederick the Great made the following comment on his father's army: "My father had a passion for tall men: he adored the captains who got most of them: it was enough for a soldier to be six feet two or three inches for him to be allowed to do anything, and a captain who had twenty of this height was sure to enjoy the good graces of the King. From this sprang a lax and very variable discipline, and a service of parade."—H. von Treitschke, *The Confessions of Frederick the Great and The Life of Frederick the Great*, p. 76.—"Frederick the Great himself acknowledged in his writings that he owed his wonderful victories to the excellence of the army which his father had created by twenty-seven years of unceasing labour."—J. E. Barker, *Foundations of Germany*, p. 10.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 27.

ALSO IN: H. von Sybel, *Founding of the German empire by William I*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 2.

"Frederick William purposed to bring up his eldest son as an exact copy of himself. . . . Endowed by nature with an acute and refined mind, it is not surprising that Frederick revolted from the narrow groove into which his father attempted to force him. He soon became disgusted with the incessant round of drills and reviews to which he was subjected, and he took no pleasure in the great hunting-parties which were the king's favourite recreation. . . . On the other hand he developed at an early age a taste for literature and music, which was only intensified by the violent efforts made to suppress it. . . . The prince's character had been formed and hardened by his sufferings. He had grown from a boy into a man, proud, reserved, and capable of deep dissimulation. He saw the necessity for conforming, outwardly at least, to the will of the king, whose favour he gained by applying himself diligently to the affairs entrusted to his management. Gradually, too, he came to perceive the good qualities which lay underneath the rugged exterior of his father, who, in his turn, recognized with pleasure the abilities of his son."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and*

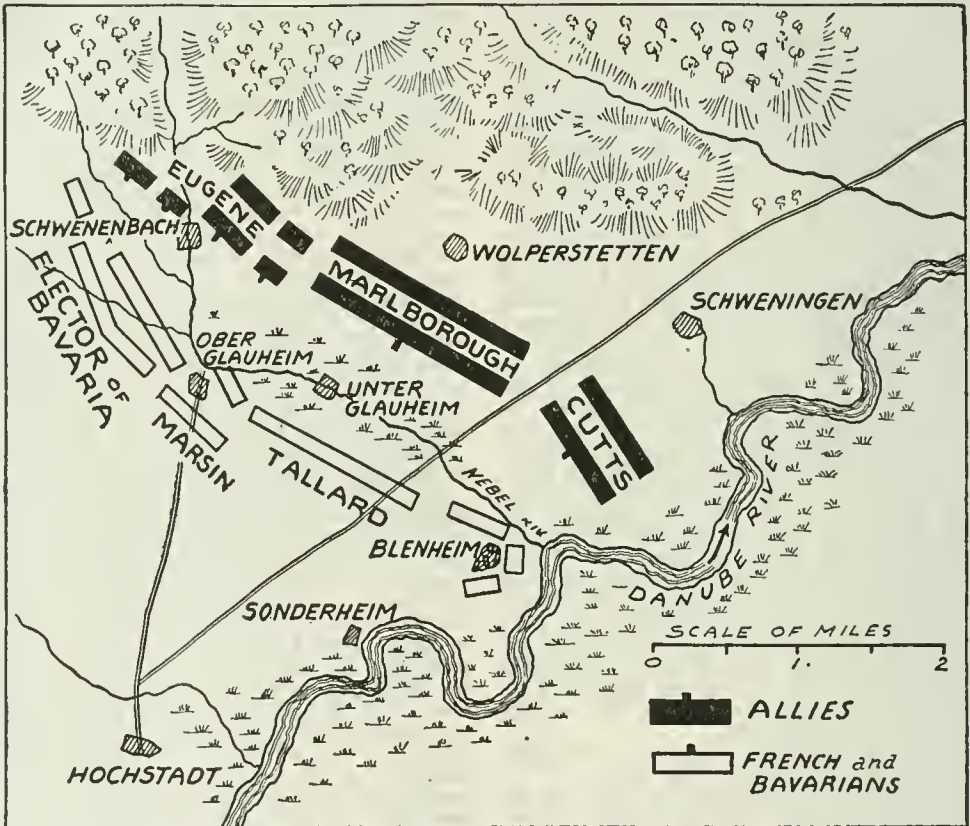
*the Seven Years' War*, pp. 25-27.—"The great Frederick was born with humanistic ideas uppermost; he took up military studies to escape some of the awful bullying inflicted on him by his father, who hated him so that he tried to persecute the unhappy child into his grave. Only the creator of 'Oliver Twist' could adequately describe the boyhood of Frederick the Great. Frederick had to do so many things to deceive his father that everyone thought that his interest and apparent progress in military studies were only clever pieces of acting. 'I have just drilled, I drill, I shall drill,' he wrote. So cruel was the father, that the son at the age of eighteen attempted to flee from Prussia with his 'chum' and confidant, the youthful Katte. They were arrested and flung into prison, and charged with high treason as military officers who had deserted. Katte, in spite of his acquittal by the courtmartial appointed to try him, was executed—a refinement of cruelty—before his eyes. Frederick, who had begged to die in Katte's place, fainted with anguish, and would have shared his fate but for the remonstrances of the Emperor. The ambassadors of other sovereigns joined in the protest, but probably weighed nothing in comparison. Frederick William only listened to the Emperor as his technical lord, from whom he lacked the military courage to declare himself free. He pursued his revenge in various ways. When he was tired of treating his son as a convict, he made him marry a woman he did not like, the same woman who was giving a party at Schönhausen while Frederick was dying."—D. Sladen, *Historical introduction* (H. von Treitschke, *Confessions of Frederick the Great and The Life of Frederick the Great*, pp. 7-8).—Frederick William died in 1740, and his son Frederick became king of Prussia when he had just completed his twenty-eighth year.

1702.—War of the Spanish Succession: Siege of Landau.—Battle of Friedlingen.—On the part of the Imperialists, the War of the Spanish Succession was opened on the Rhine frontier in June, 1702, by a movement of the army commanded by the Margrave Louis of Baden, which "came over the Rhine and laid siege to the important fortress of Landau,—the bulwark of Alsace as it was then regarded. The Margrave was subsequently joined by the Emperor's eldest son [Joseph], the young King of the Romans, who desired to share in the glory, though not in the toils of the expected conquest. . . . The Maréchal de Catinat, one of the soldiers of whom France has most reason to be proud,—the virtuous Catinat as Rousseau terms him—held command at this period in Alsace. So inferior were his numbers that he could make no attempt to relieve Landau. But after its reduction an opportunity appeared in which by detaching a portion of his army he might retrieve the fortunes of France in another quarter. The Elector of Bavaria, after much irresolution, had openly espoused the cause of Louis. He seized upon the city of Ulm and issued a proclamation in favor of his new ally. To support his movements an enterprising and ambitious officer, the Marquis de Villars, was sent across the Rhine with part of the army of Alsace. The declaration of the Elector of Bavaria and the advance of Villars into Germany disquieted in no slight degree the Prince Louis of Baden. Leaving a sufficient garrison in Landau, he also passed the Rhine. The two armies met at Friedlingen on the 14th of October. Louis of Baden, a ponderous tactician bred in the wars against the Turks, might out-manœuvre some Grand Vizier, but was no match for the quick-witted Frenchman. He was signally defeated with the loss of 3,000 men; soon after which, the season

being now far advanced, Villars led back his army to winter quarters in France. His victory of Friedlingen gained for him at Versailles the rank of *Maréchal de France*."—Lord Mahon, *History of England: Reign of Queen Anne*, ch. 2.—See also NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704; SPAIN: 1702.

1703.—War of the Spanish Succession: Campaigns on the Upper Rhine and in Bavaria.—"Early in June [1703], Marshal Tallard assumed the command of the French forces in Alsace, . . . took Prissac on the 7th of September, and invested Landau on the 16th of October. The allies, under the Prince of Hesse, attempted to raise the siege, but were defeated with considerable loss; and, soon after, Landau surrendered, thus terminating with

from the heart of Germany, by pouring down the valley of the Danube. The advanced post held there by the Elector of Bavaria in front, forming a salient angle, penetrating, as it were, into the Imperial dominions, the menacing aspect of the Hungarian insurrection in the rear, promised the most successful issue to this decisive operation. For this purpose, Marshal Tallard, with the French army on the Upper Rhine, received orders to cross the Black Forest and advance into Swabia, and unite with the Elector of Bavaria, which he accordingly did at Donawerth, in the beginning of July. Marshal Villeroy, with forty battalions and thirty-nine squadrons, was to break off from the army in Flanders and support the advance by a



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM, FOUGHT AUGUST 13, 1704

Fought on the left bank of the River Danube

disaster the campaign on the Upper Rhine. Still more considerable were the losses sustained in Bavaria. Marshal Villars commanded there, and, at the head of the French and Bavarians, defeated General Stirum, who headed the Imperialists, on the 20th of September. In December, Marshal Marsin, who had succeeded Villars in the command, made himself master of the important city of Augsburg, and in January, 1704, the Bavarians got possession of Passau. Meanwhile, a formidable insurrection had broken out in Hungary, which so distracted the cabinet of Vienna that the capital seemed to be threatened by the combined forces of the French and Bavarians after the fall of Passau. . . . Instead of confining the war to one of posts and sieges in Flanders and Italy, it was resolved [by the French] to throw the bulk of their forces at once into Bavaria, and operate against Austria

movement on the Moselle, so as to be in a condition to join the main army on the Danube, of which it would form as it were, the left wing; while Vendôme, with the army of Italy, was to penetrate into the Tyrol, and advance by Innsbruck on Salzburg. The united armies, which it was calculated, after deducting all the losses of the campaign, would muster 80,000 combatants, was then to move direct by Lintz and the valley of the Danube on Vienna, while a large detachment penetrated into Hungary to lend a hand to the already formidable insurrection in that kingdom. The plan was grandly conceived. . . . Marlborough, [England, Holland and the empire had united against Louis XIV], by means of the secret information which he obtained from the French headquarters, had got full intelligence of it, and its dangers to the allies, if it succeeded, struck him as

much as the chances of great advantage to them if ably thwarted. His line was instantly taken."—A. Alison, *Military life of Marlborough*, ch. 2, sect. 30-33.—For measures taken by Marlborough to defeat the plans of the French in this campaign, see NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1704.—War of the Spanish Succession: Marlborough and Prince Eugene on the Danube.—Battle of Blenheim.—"Marlborough, with his motley army of English, Dutch, Danes and Germans, concealing his main purpose, was marching south along the Rhine, with a design to strike his critical blow, by attacking the French armies that were forming for the campaign of the Danube, and thus protect the Emperor and Vienna, and punish the Elector of Bavaria, whose territories would be then exposed. On the route, Marlborough was joined by Prince Eugene [of Savoy] and the Margrave of Baden; but as a new French force was approaching, Prince Eugene was sent to keep it in check. Marlborough and the Prince of Baden, with united forces of about 60,000 men, then advanced, in rapid marches, and took, by gallant assault, the fortifications of the Schellenberg in Bavaria, and the old town of Donauworth, a critical and commanding position on the Danube. The allies were now masters of the main passages of the Danube—and had a strong place as a basis of action. The allied leaders thereupon sent troops into the heart of Bavaria, and devastated the country even to the vicinity of Munich—burning and destroying as they marched, and taking several minor fortresses. Marlborough's forces and those of Prince Eugene were distant from each other some forty miles, when came the news of the march of a French army of 25,000 men under Tallard, to form a junction with the others, to succor the Elector, and take revenge for the defeat of the Schellenberg. Two French Marshals, Tallard and Marsin, were now in command: their design was to attack Marlborough and Eugene's armies in detail. By rapid marches, Marlborough crossed the Danube and joined Prince Eugene near Donauworth, and thereupon occurred one of the most important and decisive contests of modern times, fought between the old town of Hochstadt and the village of Blenheim, about fifteen miles south of Donauworth. The skilful tactics of the allied generals precipitated the battle. The allied French and Bavarians numbered 60,000 [56,000; Malleson] men—the English, Dutch and Germans and other allies, about 53,000 [52,000; Malleson]. The allies were allowed to cross an intervening brook without opposition, and form their lines. A great charge, in full force, of the allies was then made; they broke the enemy's extended line; and an ensuing charge of cavalry scattered his forces right and left, and drove many into the Danube. More than 14,000 French and Bavarians, who had not struck a blow, except to defend their position, entrenched and shut up in the village of Blenheim, waiting for orders to move, were then surrounded by the victorious allies, and compelled to surrender as prisoners of war. The scattered remnants of the French and Bavarian army either disbanded, or were driven over the Rhine. The garrison at Ulm capitulated, and the Elector fled into France."—J. W. Gerard, *Peace of Utrecht*, ch. 16.—"The armies of Marchand and of Max Emanuel [of Bavaria] had been defeated; that of Tallard had been annihilated. Whilst the loss of the victors in killed and wounded reached 12,000 men, that of the French and Bavarians exceeded 14,000. In addition, the latter lost 13,000 men taken prisoners, 47 pieces of canon, 25 standards, and 90 colours. Such was the battle of Blenheim. It was one of the decisive battles of history, and it

changed the character of the war. Up to that moment, the action of France against Germany had been aggressive; thence forward it became purely defensive. Blenheim, in fact, dashed to the ground the hopes of Louis XIV. and Max Emanuel of Bavaria. It saved the house of Habsburg in Germany, and helped it greatly in Hungary. It showed likewise that it was possible to inflict a crushing defeat on the armies of Louis XIV."—G. B. Malleson, *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, ch. 6.—"Marlborough [after the battle], having detached part of his force to besiege Ulm, drew near with the bulk of his army to the Rhine, which he passed near Philipsburg on the 6th of September, and soon after commenced the siege of Landau, on the French side; Prince Louis, with 20,000 men, forming the besieging force, and Eugene and Marlborough, with 30,000, the covering army. Villeroi, with the French army, abandoned an entrenched camp which he had constructed to cover the town. Marlborough followed, and made every effort to bring the French marshal to battle, but in vain. . . . Ulm surrendered on the 16th of September, . . . which gave the allies a solid foundation on the Danube, and effectually crushed the power of the Elector of Bavaria, who, isolated now in the midst of his enemies, had no alternative but to abandon his dominions and seek refuge in Brussels, where he arrived in the end of September. . . . The Electress of Bavaria, who had been left regent of that state in the absence of the Elector in Flanders, had now no resource left but submission; and a treaty was accordingly concluded in the beginning of November, by which she agreed to disband all her troops. Trèves and Traebach were taken in the end of December; the Hungarian insurrection was suppressed; Landau capitulated in the beginning of the same month; a diversion which the enemy attempted toward Trèves was defeated by Marlborough's activity and vigilance, and that city put in a sufficient posture of defense; and, the campaign being now finished, that accomplished commander returned to the Hague and London."—A. Alison, *The military life of Marlborough*, ch. 2.

1705.—Election of the Emperor Joseph I.

1705.—War of the Spanish Succession: Dissolution of Bavaria.—"The campaign of 1705 was destitute of any important events on the side of Germany. . . . In Bavaria, the peasants, irritated by the oppressions of the Austrian government, rose in a body in the autumn, and, could they have been supported by France, would have placed the Emperor in great danger; but without that aid the insurrection only proved fatal to themselves. The insurgents were beaten in detail, and the Emperor now resolved on the complete dissolution of Bavaria as a state. The four elder sons of Maximilian were carried to Klagenfurt in Carinthia, to be there educated under the strictest inspection as Counts of Wittelsbach, while the younger sons were consigned to the care of a court lady at Munich, and the daughters sent to a convent. The Electress, who had been on a visit to Venice, was not permitted to return to her dominions, and the Elector Maximilian, as well as the Elector of Cologne, was, by a decree of the Electoral College, placed under the ban of the Empire. The Upper Palatinate was restored to the Elector Palatine. . . . The remaining Bavarian territories were confiscated, and divided among various princes."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, bk. 5, ch. 6.—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 3, ch. 72.—The campaign of 1705 in the Netherlands was unimportant; but in Spain it had brilliant results. See SPAIN: 1705; NETHERLANDS: 1705.

1706-1711.—War of the Spanish Succession:

Successes of the French.—During 1706, little was attempted on either side by the forces which watched each other along the Rhine. In 1707 Villars, the French commander, obtained liberty to act. "The Emperor, greatly preoccupied with Hungary, had furnished but indifferent resources to the new general of the army of the Rhine, Brandenbourg-Baireuth; the German army was ill paid and in bad condition in its immense lines on the right bank, which extended along the Rhine from Philippsburg as far as Stolhofen, then, in a square, from Stolhofen to the Black Mountains by Bühl. May 22, the lines were attacked simultaneously at four points. . . . The success was complete; the enemy fled into the mountains, abandoning artillery, baggage, and munitions, and did not stop till beyond the Neckar. The lines were razed; Swabia and a part of Franconia were put under contribution. Villars marched on Stuttgart, crossed the Neckar, and subjected the whole country to ransom as far as the Danube. The enemies in vain rallied and reinforced themselves with tardy contingents of the Empire; they could not prevent Villars from laying under contribution the Lower Neckar, then the country between the Danube and Lake Constance, and from maintaining himself beyond the Rhine till he went into winter-quarters. French parties scoured the country as conquerors as far as the fatal field of Hochstadt." At the beginning of the campaign of 1708, it was the plan of the allies to make their chief attack on France "by the way of the Rhine and the Moselle, with two armies of 60,000 men each, under the command of the Elector of Hanover and Eugene, whilst Marlborough occupied the great French army in Flanders." But this plan was changed. "Eugene left the Elector of Hanover in the north of Swabia, behind the lines of Etlingen, which the allies had raised during the winter to replace the lines of Bühl at Stolhofen, and, with 24,000 soldiers collected on the Moselle, he marched by the way of Coblenz towards Belgium (June 30). The French forces of the Rhine and the Moselle followed this movement." The campaign then ensuing in the Netherlands was that which was signalled by Marlborough and Eugene's victory at Oudenarde and the siege of Lille. In 1709, "the attention of Europe, as in 1708, was chiefly directed to Flanders; but it was not only on that side that France was menaced. France was to be encroached upon at once on the north and the east. Whilst the great allied army penetrated into Artois, the army of the Rhine and the army of the Alps were to penetrate, the latter into Bresse by the way of Savoy, the former into Franche-Comté by the way of Alsace, and to combine their operations. . . . The Germans had not taken the offensive in Alsace till in the month of August. Marshal Harcourt, with over 20,000 men, had covered himself with the lines of the Lauter; the Elector of Hanover, who had crossed the Rhine at Philippsburg with superior forces, did not attack Harcourt, and strove to amuse him whilst 8,000 or 9,000 Germans, left in Swabia with General Merci, moved rapidly on Neuberg. . . . and established there a tête-du-pont in order to enter Upper Alsace." By swiftly sending a sufficient force to attack and defeat Merci at Neuberg, Aug. 26, Harcourt completely frustrated these plans. "The Elector of Hanover recrossed the river and retired behind the lines of Etlingen." During the two following years the French and German forces on the side of the Rhine did little more than observe one another.—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV*, v. 2, ch. 5-6.—Meantime, Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet had been fought in the Netherlands; Prince

Eugene had won his victory at Turin, and the contest had been practically decided in Spain, at Almanza. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707; 1708-1709; 1710-1712; ITALY: 1701-1713; SPAIN: 1706; 1707; 1709-1710; ENGLAND: 1710-1712.

1711.—Election of the Emperor Charles VI. 1711.—War of the Spanish Succession: Change in the circumstances of the war. See AUSTRIA: 1711.

1713-1719.—Emperor's continued differences with king of Spain.—Triple Alliance.—Quadruple Alliance. See SPAIN: 1713-1714; 1713-1725.

1714.—Ending of the War of the Spanish Succession.—Peace of Utrecht and the Treaty of Rastadt. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1719.—Treaty with Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1719-1721.

1729-1731.—Treaty of Seville.—Second Treaty of Vienna. See SPAIN: 1726-1731.

1732-1733.—Interference in the election of the king of Poland. See POLAND: 1732-1733.

1733-1735.—War of the Polish Succession.—Cession of Lorraine to France. See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

1740.—Question of the Austrian Succession.—Pragmatic Sanction. See AUSTRIA: 1718-1738; 1740 (October); (October-November).

1740-1756.—Early years of Frederick the Great's reign.—Home policy.—Foreign policy.—War of the Austrian Succession.—The reign of Frederick II, who succeeded his father in 1740, "was expected to be an effeminate one; but when at the age of twenty-nine he became king, he forgot his pleasures, thought of nothing but glory, and no longer employed himself but in attention to his finances, his army, his policy, and his laws."—L. P. Ségur, the elder, *History of the principal events of the reign of Frederick William II, king of Prussia*, v. 1, p. 2.—"In the first year of his reign Frederick had created a fifth department of the General Directory. To it he entrusted first the trade and manufactures of the whole kingdom and later the posts and the settlement of immigrants from other lands. In 1746 he established in like manner a sixth department, that of Military Affairs. These changes merely developed the system of Frederick William a little further. By a new departure, however, the Government of Silesia was made independent of the General Directory. For reasons which the King never stated, Münchow became the only minister for the province, and he was responsible to Frederick alone. With this addition the whole framework of government was stereotyped by an ordinance of 1748. The years 1746-1756 are notable for Frederick's use of his machine rather than for the changes which he made in it. He now displayed in action the principles of domestic policy which were the fruit of his early training and the guide of his later years. His ideal is as simple to understand as it was difficult to realise in practice. He allowed his subjects to think as they pleased on condition that they acted as he pleased. Neither in home nor in foreign policy did the King recognise any bounds to the assistance that he might demand from the dwellers within his dominions. The main object of his foreign policy was to extend the borders of Prussia to the utmost limit consistent with the safety of the State. His home policy was to bring within those borders the greatest possible number of men, to prevent them from falling below a certain moderate level of righteousness, comfort, and knowledge, to organise a huge army, to collect a vast revenue, and to enable Prussia as far as possible to supply all the needs of every one of her people. Other states were useful to



BATTLE OF BLENHEIM, AUGUST 13, 1704

(From a painting by Jean Huchtenburg, at The Hague)

Showing the left bank of the Danube, between Blenheim and Hochstodt, looking down from the heights of Lutzingen. On the extreme left of the picture, on the Danube, is Blenheim, burning, attacked by Marlborough's troops. Further along the river are the French in flight toward Sonderheim, where Tallard was taken prisoner. In the right foreground is Prince Eugene directing the attack on Ober Glaubeim.

her because they supplied recruits to her army, teachers for her artisans, and gold and silver in exchange for her surplus manufactures. The gold and silver were drawn into the treasury by taxation and used to build villages, to establish new manufactures, to hire more soldiers, and to fill Frederick's war-chest. Then, by war or a display of force which made war superfluous, a new province would be joined to Prussia and the routine of development, taxation, armament, and acquisition could begin anew. It does not appear that Frederick regarded any single part of this programme as weightier than the rest. In spite of all his economies and accumulations he was no miser, cherishing money for its own sake. He hoarded treasure so that his army might be sure of pay in time of war and his subjects sure of help in case of devastating calamity. On the same principle he maintained and added to the huge Government granaries, which bought in years of plenty and sold, at high but not exorbitant prices, in years of dearth. Frederick did not refuse to make some profit from



FREDERICK THE GREAT

the institution, but his main object was to confer upon the State the inestimable boon of freedom from famine. The establishment of public warehouses for wool, silk, and cotton was similarly designed to guard against glut and shortage. It was merely a new adaptation of the policy of the Staple, which England had discarded at the end of the Middle Ages. But it secured a market to the Prussian producer and an unfailing source of supply to the Prussian manufacturer and placed the whole traffic in raw materials under the supervision and control of the State. Frederick is as little open to the charge of megalomania as to that of avarice. He was singularly free from foibles. He frankly admits that the adventure of 1740 was partly inspired by the desire to make himself a name. But before the Peace of Dresden his lust of mere conquest seems to have been extinguished. Thenceforward his armaments and acquisitions were strictly regulated by reasons of State, and in his conception of statecraft domestic policy stood on a par with foreign. He likened the Finances, Foreign Policy, and the Army to three steeds harnessed abreast to the car of State, and himself to the charioteer who directed them and

urged them on."—W. F. Reddaway, *Frederick the Great*, pp. 182-185.—"His provinces were scattered, his resources weak, his power precarious; his army of seventy thousand soldiers was more remarkable for handsomeness of the men, and the elegance of their appearance, than for their discipline. He augmented it, instructed it, exercised it, and fortune began to open the field of glory to him at the moment he was fully prepared to enjoy her favours. Charles XII. [of Sweden] was dead, and his station filled by a king without authority. Russia, deprived of Peter the Great, who had only rough-hewn her civilization, languished under the feeble government of the Empress Anne, and of a cruel and ignorant minister. Augustus III., King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, a Prince devoid of character, could not inspire him with any dread. Louis XV., a weak and peaceable king, was governed by Cardinal Fleuri, who loved peace, but always by his weakness suffered himself to be drawn into war. He presented to Frederick rather a support than an obstacle. The court of France had espoused the cause of Charles VII. [duke of Bavaria, who had himself elected to the imperial throne when Charles VI died without male heirs] against Francis I. [son-in-law of Charles VI]. Maria Theresa, wife of Francis, and Queen of Hungary, saw herself threatened by England, Holland, and France; and whilst she had but little reason to hope the preservation of her hereditary dominions, that arrogant princess wished to place her husband on the Imperial Throne. This quarrel kindled the flames of war in Europe; the genius of Frederick saw by a single glance that the moment was arrived for elevating Prussia to the second order of powers; he made an offer to Maria Theresa to defend her, if she would cede Silesia to him, and threatened her with war in case of refusal. The Empress, whose firmness nothing could shake, impolitically refused that proposition; war was declared, and Frederick entered Silesia at the head of eighty thousand men. This first war lasted eighteen months [see AUSTRIA: 1740 to 1741]. Frederick, by gaining five battles, shewed that Europe would recognize one great man more in her bloody annals. . . . Four years after in [1744], Frederick again took up arms [see AUSTRIA: 1743-1744 to 1744-1745]. He invaded Bohemia, Upper Silesia, and Moravia. Vienna thought him at her gates; but the defection of the Bavarians, the retreat of the French, and the return of Prince Charles into Bohemia, rapidly changed the face of affairs. The position of Frederick became as dangerous as it had been menacing; he was on the point of being lost, and he saw himself compelled to retire with as much precipitation, as he had advanced with boldness. The gaining the battle of Hohen-Friedberg saved him. That retreat and that victory fixed the seal to his reputation. . . . He displayed the same genius and the same activity in the campaign of 1745, and once more abandoned France in making his separate peace at Dresden. By this treaty Francis was peaceably assured of the empire, and the cession of Silesia was confirmed to Frederick. France during this war committed some wrongs, which might palliate the abandonment of Prussia. The French did not keep Prince Charles within bounds, they made no diversion into Germany, and fought no where but in Flanders. . . . In 1756, Europe was again in a flame. France and England declared war against each other, and both sought alliances; Frederick ranged himself on the side of England, and by that became the object of the unreflecting vengeance of the French, and of the alliance of that power with

Austria; Austria also formed an alliance with the Court of Petersburg by means of a Saxon secretary; Frederic discovered the project of the Courts of Petersburg, Dresden, and Vienna, to invade the Prussian dominions. He was beforehand with them, and began the war by some conquests."—L. P. Ségur, the elder, *History of the principal events of the reign of Frederic William II, king of Prussia*, v. 1, pp. 2-6.—See also AUSTRIA: 1742 (January-May), to 1744-1745.

1742.—Elector of Bavaria crowned emperor (Charles VII). See AUSTRIA: 1741 (October).

1745.—Consort of Maria Theresa elected emperor (Francis I).—Rise of the imperial house of Hapsburg-Lorraine. See AUSTRIA: 1745 (September-October); 1744-1745.

1748.—End and results of the War of the Austrian Succession. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1755-1756.—Seven Years' War: Its causes and provocations.—"The great national quarrel between England and the powers which restrained her free movements on the sea and her extension of colonies, had never ceased. . . . After much bickering, blows began in 1754, and at the beginning of 1755 England despatched the ill-fated Braddock [to North America] with a small force, which was destroyed in July. . . . As yet, however, the quarrel was only colonial. England embittered it by seizing French ships without any declaration of war. But why did Frederick [of Prussia] strike in, if indeed he desired peace?"—C. B. Brackenbury, *Frederick the Great*, ch. 9.—The foreign policy of George II since the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle had consisted chiefly in subsidizing German electors to vote with Hanover in all affairs of the empire and to fight for her if required. When hostilities broke out between French and English colonists he sought an alliance with Frederick of Prussia in order to strengthen Hanover against attack from the French. This broke the long-standing anti-French alliance of England with Austria, an alliance on which for three-quarters of a century the balance of power had rested. The determination of Marie Theresa to repossess herself of Silesia was the cardinal point to which her whole policy after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was directed. As a means to this end Austria joined fortune with her Bourbon enemy. The combination on the French side eventually consisted of France, Austria, Russia, Sweden, Poland, Saxony, and the Palatinate, and its secret agreements were to break Prussia and partition her territories. Frederick the Great, however, learned of these agreements, and shaped his actions accordingly. "As early as 1752-53 his secret agents had discovered that Austria, Russia and Saxony were hatching a plot for the destruction of Prussia, and such a partition as afterwards befell unhappy Poland. In 1753 a Saxon official, Mentzel by name, began to supply the Prussian agents with copies of secret documents from the archives at Dresden, which proved that, during the whole of the peace, negotiations had been proceeding for a simultaneous attack on Frederick, though the astute Brühl [Saxon minister], mindful of former defeats, objected to playing the part of jackal to the neighbouring lions. In short, by the end of 1755 the king knew that preparations were already on foot in Austria and Russia, and that he would probably be attacked next year certainly, or, at latest, the year after. A great war was coming between England and France, in which the continental power would attack Hanover, and tread closely on the skirts of Prussia. The situation was dangerous, and became terribly menacing when England bargained with Russia to subsidise a Mus-

covite army of 55,000 men for defence of Hanover. Russia consented with alacrity. Money was all that the czarina needed for her preparations against Frederick, and in the autumn of 1755 she assembled, not 55,000, but 70,000 men on the Prussian frontier, nominally for the use of England. But throughout the winter all the talk at St. Petersburg was of Frederick's destruction in the coming spring. It was time for him to stir. His first move was one of policy. He offered England a 'neutrality convention' by which the two powers jointly should guarantee the German Reich against all foreign intervention during the coming war. On the 16th of January, 1756, the convention was signed in London, and the Russian agreement thrown over, as it could well be, since it had not been ratified. Europe was now ranking herself for the struggle. In preceding years, the Austrian diplomatist, Kaunitz, had so managed the French court, especially through the medium of Madame de Pompadour, that Louis XV. was now on the side of Maria Theresa, who had bowed her neck so far as to write to the French king's mistress as 'Ma Cousine,' while Frederick forgot policy, and spoke of the Pompadour in slighting terms. 'Je ne la connais pas,' said he once, and was never forgiven. . . . The agreement with Russia to partition Prussia had already been made, and Frederick's sharp tongue had betrayed him into calling the czarina that 'Infame catin du nord.' Saxony waited for the appearance of her stronger neighbours in order to join them. England alone was Frederick's ally."—C. B. Brackenbury, *Frederick the Great*, ch. 9.—"The secret sources of the Third Silesian War, since called 'Seven-Years War,' go back to 1745; nay, we may say, to the First Invasion of Silesia in 1740. For it was in Maria Theresa's incurable sorrow at loss of Silesia, and her inextinguishable hope to conquer it, that this and all Friedrich's others Wars had their origin. . . . Traitor Menzel the Saxon Kanzellist . . . has been busy for Prussia ever since 'the end of 1752.' Got admittance to the Presses; sent his first Excerpt 'about the time of Easter-Fair 1753,'—time of Voltaire's taking wing. And has been at work ever since. Copying Despatches from the most secret Saxon Repositories; ready always on Excellency Maltzahn's indicating the Piece wanted [Maltzahn being the Prussian minister at Dresden]. . . . Menzel . . . lasted in free activity till 1757; and was then put under lock and key. Was not hanged; sat prisoner for twenty-seven years after; over-grown with hair, legs and arms chained together, heavy iron-bar uniting both ankles; diet bread-and-water;—for the rest, healthy; and died, not very miserable it is said, in 1784."—T. Carlyle, *History of Friedrich II*, v. 7, bk. 17, ch. 1.—See also ENGLAND: 1754-1755.

ALSO IN: Duc de Broglie, *King's secret*, v. 1, ch. 1-2.—Frederick II, *History of the Seven Years' War (Posthumous works)*, v. 2, ch. 3.—H. Tuttle, *History of Prussia, 1745-1756*, v. 3, ch. 6-9.—F. von Raumer, *Contributions to modern history: Frederick II and his times*, ch. 24-28.

1756.—Seven Years' War: Frederick strikes the first blow.—Saxony subdued.—"Finding that the storm was wholly inevitable, and must burst on him next year, he [Frederick], with bold sagacity, determined to forestall it. First, then, in August, 1756, his ambassador at Vienna had orders to demand of the Empress Queen a statement of her intentions, to announce war as the alternative, and to declare that he would accept no answer 'in the style of an oracle.' The answer, as he expected, was evasive. Without further delay an army of 60,000 Prussians, headed by Frederick in person, poured into Saxony. The Queen of Poland was

taken in Dresden: the King of Poland [Augustus III, elector of Saxony, and, by election, king of Poland] and his troops were blockaded in Pirna. Thus did Frederick commence that mighty struggle which is known to Germans by the name of the Seven Years' War. The first object of the Prussian monarch at Dresden was to obtain possession of the original documents of the coalition against him, whose existence he knew by means of the traitor Menzel. The Queen of Poland, no less aware than Frederick of the importance of these papers, had carried them to her own bed-chamber. She sat down on the trunk which contained the most material ones, and declared to the Prussian officer sent to seize them that nothing but force should move her from the spot. [The official account of this occurrence which Carlyle produces represents the queen as "standing before the door" of the "archive apartment" in which the compromising documents were locked up, she having previously sealed the door.] This officer was of Scottish blood, General Keith, the Earl Marischal's brother. 'All Europe,' said the Queen, 'would exclaim against this outrage; and then, sir, you will be the victim; depend upon it, your King is a man to sacrifice you to his own honour!' Keith, who knew Frederick's character, was startled, and sent for further orders; but on receiving a reiteration of the first he did his duty. The papers were then made public, appended to a manifesto in vindication of Frederick's conduct; and they convinced the world that, although the apparent aggressor in his invasion of Saxony, he had only acted on the principles of self-defence. Meanwhile, the Prussian army closely blockaded the Saxon in Pirna, but the Austrian, under Marshal Brown, an officer of British extraction, was advancing to its relief through the mountain passes of Bohemia. Frederick left a sufficient force to maintain the blockade, marched against Brown with the remainder, and gave him battle at Lowositz [or Lobositz] on the 1st of October. It proved a hard-fought day; the King no longer found, as he says in one of his letters, the old Austrians he remembered; and his loss in killed and wounded was greater than theirs [3,308 against 2,984]; but victory declared on his side. Then retracing his steps towards Pirna he compelled, by the pressure of famine, the whole Saxon army, 17,000 strong, to an unconditional surrender. The officers were sent home on parole, but the soldiers were induced, partly by force and partly by persuasion, to enlist in the Prussian ranks, and swear fidelity to Frederick. Their former sovereign, King Augustus, remained securely perched on his castle-rock of Königstein, but, becoming weary of confinement, solicited, and was most readily granted, passports to Warsaw. During the whole winter Frederick fixed his head-quarters at Dresden, treating Saxony in all respects as a conquered province, or as one of his own. Troops and taxes were levied throughout that rich and populous land with unsparing rigour, and were directed against the very cause which the sovereign of that land had embraced."—Lord Mahon, *History of England*, 1713-1783, v. 4, ch. 33.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *History of Friedrich II*, v. 7, bk. 17, ch. 4-8.—Lord Dover, *Life of Frederick II*, v. 2, ch. 1.

1756-1757.—Seven Years' War: Frederick under the ban of the empire.—Coalition against Frederick.—"All through the winter Austria strained every nerve to consolidate her alliances, and she did not scruple to use her position at the head of the Empire, in order to drag that body into the quarrel that had arisen between two of its members. On his own responsibility, without con-

sulting the electors, princes, and cities, the Emperor passed sentence on Frederick, and condemned him, unheard, as a disturber of the peace. Many of the great cities altogether refused to publish the Emperor's decree, and even among the states generally subservient to Austria there were some that were alarmed at so flagrant a disregard of law and precedent. It may have seemed a sign of what was to be expected should Prussia be annihilated, and no state remain in Germany that dared to lift up its voice against Austria. Nevertheless, in spite of this feeling, and in spite of the opposition of nearly all the Protestant states, Austria succeeded in inducing the Empire to espouse her cause. In all three colleges of electors, princes, and cities she obtained a majority, and at a diet, held on Jan. 17, 1757, it was resolved that an army of the Empire should be set on foot for the purpose of making war on Prussia. Some months later Frederick was put to the ban of the Empire. But the use of this antiquated weapon served rather to throw ridicule on those who employed it than to injure him against whom it was launched. . . . It has been calculated that the population of the States arrayed against Frederick the Great amounted to 90,000,000, and that they put 430,000 men into the field in the year 1757. The population of Prussia was 4,500,000, her army 200,000 strong; but, after deducting the garrisons of the fortresses, there remained little over 150,000 men available for service in the field. The odds against Frederick were great, but they were not absolutely overwhelming. His territories were scattered and difficult of defence, the extremities hardly defensible at all; but he occupied a central position from which he might, by rapidity of movement, be able to take his assailants in detail, unless their plans were distinguished by a harmony unusual in the efforts of a coalition."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War*, ch. 8, sect. 3.

1756-1758.—War of Prussia with Sweden in Pomerania. See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.

1757 (April-June).—Seven Years' War: Frederick's invasion of Bohemia.—Victory at Prague and defeat at Kolin.—"The year 1757 was the most brilliant of Frederick's life. . . . In no other year did the king gain such great victories, in no other did he experience so sharply the vicissitudes of fortune. The campaign opened for him with the brightest prospects. Entering Bohemia at the head of a vast army, he won a great battle which seemed to lay Austria prostrate at his feet, yet six weeks later he met with a disaster so crushing, as to appear the certain forerunner of his ruin. He was compelled to evacuate Bohemia, while his enemies, encouraged by the defeat of the hitherto restless conqueror, closed in upon him from every side. Austrians, French, Russians, Swedes, and Imperialists, all fell upon him at once. His position seemed desperate, when suddenly rising like a lion from his lair, he scattered his foes by two great victories, each of which resulted in the total rout of the beaten army. Unable to provide adequate means of defence at all points where attack was threatened, Frederick resolved to concentrate his forces against his principal antagonist, and to strike a severe blow at Austria as early in the year as possible. As soon as the snow was melted, and the roads had become practicable, an immense Prussian army poured into Bohemia through the passes of the Metal and Giant Mountains. As in 1744, it marched in three columns converging on Prague; two came from Saxony led by the king and the Duke of Brunswick-Bevern, the third from Silesia, under the command of Marshal Schwerin, who, at the advanced age of sev-



enty-two, retained the vigour and energy of youth. The Austrians never divined Frederick's design until it was almost ripe for execution. Affecting great trepidation, he had masked his real intentions, and lulled the suspicions of the enemy to rest, by putting Dresden in a state of defence; . . . the Austrians on their side made preparations for an invasion of the electorate later on in the year when their allies had taken the field. The news of the Prussian advance came on them like a thunderclap. Their troops, scattered through Bohemia, had to fall back on Prague in such haste that they were unable to carry off or destroy their magazines. . . . The partiality of Maria Theresa for her brother-in-law had placed the incompetent Prince Charles at its head, and Browne, who was really a great commander, was subordinated to the court favourite. Meanwhile the Prussian columns were rapidly closing in on Prague. . . . Schwerin was a day behind the time, and, on uniting his column with a portion of the king's early on the morning of the 6th, begged that his soldiers might be allowed a day's rest, as they had been on foot since midnight, and had made forced marches for three days. Frederick, however, refused to be diverted from his intention of attacking that very day, influenced, there is little doubt, not only by the knowledge that a second Austrian army, under Count Leopold Daun, was hovering in the neighbourhood, and might at any time effect a junction with Prince Charles, but perhaps still more by an obstinate determination to carry out his programme to the letter. . . . The battle began at 10 A.M., and for three hours raged with the utmost fury round Sterbohol, a farmstead on the lower slopes of the Ziscaberg. The Prussian infantry pressed impetuously forward, toiling through the marshy ground, and mowed down by the well-served Austrian artillery. Again and again they charged, and were as often repulsed. . . . The king himself brought up the second line, and, after strenuous efforts, Sterbohol was carried. At the same time the Austrian centre was pierced by a bold attack of General Mannstein. . . . The battle was lost to the Austrians, and, though the fresh troops of the left wing still made a gallant resistance, they were gradually forced back into Prague. . . . The Prussians had purchased their victory dearly, with the loss of at least 12,500 of their finest troops, besides old Schwerin, who, as Frederick said, alone was worth above 10,000. The Austrians lost 13,000, including prisoners. . . . The beaten army made good its retreat into the city, with the exception of 13,000, who escaped southwards, and eventually joined Daun. . . . The immediate result of the battle was the investment of Prague, where 46,000 Austrian troops were cooped up with little hope of escape unless relieved by Daun. Prague was not a strong fortress, but the presence of so large a force within its walls made a regular siege almost impossible, and compelled Frederick to have recourse to the slower mode of reduction by famine. . . . All over Europe the blockade was watched with intense interest; events seemed to pause in expectation of the result, on which it was everywhere felt that the issue of the war depended. Frederick at first had little doubt that Prague would speedily fall, and intended as soon as it was captured to detach 30,000 troops to march through Germany [and] disperse the army of the Empire. . . . Except Daun's army there was nothing between him and Vienna. The actual course of events was very different. Week after week Prague held out, giving Daun time to march to its relief. . . . On June 18 was fought the battle which wrecked the plans of Frederick the Great,

and first taught him that he was not invincible. The Austrians, 54,000 strong, were drawn up in a well-choſen position on a low range of hills to the west of the little town of Kollin [or Kolin], and a mile or so south of the great Prague and Vienna high-road, along which the Prussians were advancing. . . . The battle at first went entirely in favour of the Prussians. . . . By some strange mistake, which, notwithstanding all that has been written about it, has never been explained, Prince Maurice, who commanded the Prussian left wing, had directed its attack upon the wrong point. . . . Nor was this all. Frederick had given the most distinct orders that the right wing should not engage at all, but remain on the high roads as a reserve to be called up in case of need. But when the need came it was not to be had; the impetuosity of General Mannstein, who commanded a brigade in it, had involved it in a general engagement with the Austrian left, and it could not be recalled. These two mistakes lost the day. . . . The loss of the battle carried with it the loss of the campaign. Frederick was obliged to raise the blockade of Prague immediately, and to retreat from Bohemia. The retreat was attended with fresh losses from desertion, and from the unskilful tactics of his brother, the Prince of Prussia, to whom the command of a corps was entrusted; and when the king got back to Saxony, shortly before the end of July, barely 70,000 remained under his banner out of 117,000 who had entered Bohemia three months before."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War*, pp. 112-120.

ALSO IN: W. COXE, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 3, ch. 112.—C. B. BRACKENBURY, *Frederick the Great*, ch. 11-12.—F. KUGLER, *Pictorial history of Germany during the reign of Frederick the Great*, ch. 25.

1757 (July-December).—Seven Years' War: Darkening and brightening of Frederick's career.—Closter-Seven.—Rossbach.—Leuthen.—The enemies of the king of Prussia "were now closing upon him from every side. The provinces beyond the Vistula became the prey of Russian hordes, to which only one division of Prussians under Marshal Lehwald was opposed. In the result, however, their own devastations, and the consequent want of supplies, proved a check to their further progress during this campaign. In Westphalia above 80,000 effective French soldiers were advancing, commanded by the Mareschal d'Estrées, a grandson of the famous minister Louvois. The Duke of Cumberland, who had undertaken to defend his father's electorate against them, was at the head of a motley army of scarce 50,000 men. . . . His military talents were not such as to supply his want of numbers or of combination; he allowed the French to pass the deep and rapid Weser unopposed; he gave them no disturbance when laying waste great part of the Electorate; he only fell back from position to position until at length the enemy came up with him at the village of Hastenback near Hameln. There, on the 26th of July, an action was fought, and the Duke was worsted with the loss of several hundred men. The only resource of His Royal Highness was a retreat across the wide Lüneberg moors, to cover the town of Stade towards the mouth of the Elbe, where the archives and other valuable effects from Hanover had been already deposited for safety." Intrigue at Versailles having recalled D'Estrées and sent the Duke de Richelieu into his place, the latter pressed the duke of Cumberland so closely, hemming him in and cutting off his communications, that he was soon glad to make terms. On September 8th the English duke signed, at Closter-Seven, a conven-

tion under which the auxiliary troops in his army were sent home, the Hanoverians dispersed, and only a garrison left at Stade. "After the battle of Kolin and the Convention of Closter-Seven, the position of Frederick,—hemmed in on almost every side by victorious enemies,—was not only most dangerous but wellnigh desperate. To his own eyes it seemed so. He resolved in his thoughts, and discussed with his friends, the voluntary death of Otho as a worthy example to follow. Fully resolved never to fall alive into the hands of his enemies, nor yet to survive any decisive overthrow, he carried about his person a sure poison in a small glass phial. Yet . . . he could still, with indomitable skill and energy, make every preparation for encountering the Prince de Soubise. He marched against the French commander at the head of only 22,000 men; but these were veterans, trained in the strictest discipline, and full of confidence in their chief. Soubise, on the other hand, owed his appointment in part to his illustrious lineage, as head of the House of Rohan, and still more to Court-favour, as the minion of Madame de Pompadour, but in no degree to his own experience or abilities. He had under his orders nearly 40,000 of his countrymen, and nearly 20,000 troops of the Empire; for the Germanic diet also had been induced to join the league against Frederick. On the 5th of November the two armies came to a battle at Rosbach [or Rossbach], close to the plain of Lützen, where in the preceding century Gustavus Adolphus conquered and fell. By the skilful manœuvres of Frederick the French were brought to believe that the Prussians intended nothing but retreat, and they advanced in high spirits as if only to pursue the fugitives. Of a sudden they found themselves attacked with all the compactness of discipline, and all the courage of despair. The troops of the Empire, a motley crew, fled at the first fire. . . . So rapid was the victory that the right wing of the Prussians, under Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, was never engaged at all. Great numbers of the French were cut down in their flight by the Prussian cavalry, not a few perished in the waters of the Saale, and full 7,000 were made prisoners, with a large amount of baggage, artillery and standards. . . . The battle of Rosbach was not more remarkable for its military results than for its moral influence. It was hailed throughout Germany as a triumph of the Teutonic over the Gallic race. . . . So precarious was now Frederick's position that the battle of Rosbach, as he said himself, gained him nothing but leisure to fight another battle elsewhere. During his absence on the Saale, the Austrian armies had poured over the mountains into Silesia; they had defeated the Prussians under the Duke of Bevern; they had taken the main fortress, Schweidnitz, and the capital, Breslau; nearly the whole province was already theirs. A flying detachment of 4,000 cavalry, under General Haddick, had even pushed into Brandenburg, and levied a contribution from the city of Berlin [entering one of the suburbs of the Prussian capital and holding it for twelve hours]. The advancing season seemed to require winter quarters, but Frederick never dreamed of rest until Silesia was recovered. He hastened by forced marches from the Saale to the Oder, gathering reinforcements while he went along. As he drew near Breslau, the Imperial commander, Prince Charles of Lorraine, flushed with recent victory and confident in superior numbers, disregarded the prudent advice of Marshal Daun, and descended from an almost inaccessible position to give the King of Prussia battle on the open plain. . . . On the 5th of December, one month from the battle of Ros-

bach, the two armies met at Leuthen, a small village near Breslau, Frederick with 40,000, Prince Charles of Lorraine with between 60,000 and 70,000 men. For several hours did the conflict rage doubtfully and fiercely. It was decided mainly by the skill and the spirit of the Prussian monarch. 'The battle of Leuthen,' says Napoleon, 'was a master-piece. Did it even stand alone it would of itself entitle Frederick to immortal fame.' In killed, wounded and taken, the Austrians lost no less than 27,000 men; above 50 standards, above 100 canon, above 4,000 waggons, became the spoil of the victors; Breslau was taken; Schweidnitz blockaded, Silesia recovered; the remnant of the Imperial forces fled back across the mountains; and Frederick, after one of the longest and most glorious campaigns that History records, at length allowed himself and his soldiers some repose."—Lord Mahon, *History of England, 1713-1783*, v. 4, ch. 34.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *History of Friedrich II*, bk. 18, ch. 5-10.—Lord Dover, *Life of Frederick II*, v. 2, ch. 3-4.—E. Cust, *Annals of the wars of the eighteenth century*, v. 2, pp. 217-240.

1758.—Seven Years' War: Campaign in Hanover.—Siege of Olmütz.—Russian defeat at Zorndorf.—Prussian defeat at Hochkirch.—"Before the end of 1757, England began to take a more active part on the Continent. Lord Chatham brought about the rejection of the Convention of Closter-Seven by Parliament, and the recall of Cumberland by the king. The efficient Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick was proposed by Frederick and made commander of the English and Hanoverian forces. He opened the campaign of 1758 in the winter. The French, under Clermont, being without discipline or control, he drove them in headlong flight out of their winter-quarters in Hanover and Westphalia, to the Rhine and across it; and on June 23 defeated them at the battle of Crefeld. A French army under Soubise afterward crossed the Rhine higher up, and Ferdinand retreated, but succeeded in protecting the west as far as the Weser against General Contades. Frederick first retook Schweidnitz, April 16. He then, in order to prevent the junction of the Russians and Austrians, ventured to attack Austria, and invaded Moravia. His brother, Prince Henry, had but a small force in Saxony, and Frederick thought that he could best cover that country by an attack on Austria. But the siege of Olmütz detained him from May until July, and his prospects grew more doubtful. The Austrians captured a convoy of 300 wagons of military stores, which Ziethen was to have escorted to him. [Instead of 300, the convoy comprised 3,000 to 4,000 wagons, of which only 200 reached the Prussian camp, and its destruction by General Loudon completely frustrated Frederick's plan of campaign.] Frederick raised the siege, and, by an admirable retreat, brought his army through Bohemia by way of Königgrätz to Landsbut. Here he received bad news. The Russians, under Fermor, were again in Prussia, occupying the eastern province, but treating it mildly as a conquered country, where the empress already received the homage of the people. They then advanced, with frightful ravages, through Pomerania and Neumark to the Oder, and were now near Küstrin, which they laid in ashes. Frederick made haste to meet them. He was so indignant at the desolation of the country and the suffering of his people that he forbade quarter to be given. The report of this fact also embittered the Russians. At Zorndorf, Frederick met the enemy, 50,000 strong, August 25, 1758. They were drawn up in a great square or phalanx, in the an-

cient, half-barbarous manner. A frightfully bloody fight followed, since the Russians would not yield, and were cut down in heaps. Seidlitz, the victor of Rossbach, by a timely charge of his cavalry, captured the Russian artillery, and crushed their right wing. On the second day the Russians were driven back, but not without inflicting heavy loss on the Prussians, who, though they suffered much less than their enemies, left more than one third of their force on the field. The Russians were compelled to withdraw from Prussia. Frederick then hastened to Saxony, where his brother Henry was sorely pressed by Daun and the imperial army. He could not even wait to relieve Silesia, where Neisse, his principal fortress, was threatened. Daun, hearing of his approach, took up a position in his way, between Bautzen and Görlitz. But Frederick, whose contempt for this prudent and slow general was excessive, occupied a camp in a weak and exposed position, at Hochkirch, under Daun's very eyes, against the protest of his own generals. He remained there three days unmolested; but on October 14, the day fixed for advancing, the Austrians attacked him with twice his numbers. A desperate fight took place in the burning village; the Prussians were driven out, and lost many guns. Frederick himself was in imminent danger, and his friends Keith and Duke Francis of Brunswick fell at his side. Yet the army did not lose its spirit or its discipline. Within eleven days Frederick, who had been joined by his brother Henry, was in Silesia, and relieved Neisse and Kosel. Thus the campaign of 1758 ended favorably to Frederick. The pope sent Daun a consecrated hat and sword, as a testimonial for his victory at Hochkirch."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, bk. 5, ch. 23, sect. 7-9.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *Military life of Loudon*, ch. 7-8.—F. Kugler, *Pictorial history of Germany during the reign of Frederick the Great*, ch. 29-31.—Frederick II, *History of the Seven Years' War (Posthumous works)*, v. 2, ch. 8.

1759 (April-August).—Seven Years' War: Prince Ferdinand's Hanoverian campaign.—Defeat at Bergen and victory at Minden.—In the Hanoverian field of war, where Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick held command, the campaign of 1759 was important, and prosperous in the end for the allies of Prussia. "Besides the Hanoverians and Hessians in British pay, he [Prince Ferdinand] had under his direction 10,000 or 12,000 British soldiers, amongst whom, since the death of the Duke of Marlborough, Lord George Sackville was the senior officer. The French, on their part, were making great exertions, under the new administration of the Duke de Choiseul; large reinforcements were sent into Germany, and early in the year they surprised by stratagem the free city of Frankfort and made it the place of arms for their southern army. No object could be of greater moment to Ferdinand than to dislodge them from this important post." Marching quickly, with 30,000 of his army, he attacked the French, under the Duke de Broglie, at Bergen, on the Nidda, in front of Frankfort, April 13, and was repulsed, after heavy fighting, with a loss of 2,000 men. "This reverse would, it was supposed, reduce Prince Ferdinand to the defensive during the remainder of the campaign. Both De Broglie and Contades eagerly pushed forward, their opponents giving way before them. Combining their forces, they reduced Cassel, Münster, and Minden, and they felt assured that the whole Electorate must soon again be theirs. Already had the archives and the most valuable property been sent off from Hanover to Stade. Already did a new Hastenbeck—a new

Closter-Seven—rise in view. But it was under such difficulties that the genius of Ferdinand shone forth. With a far inferior army (for thus much is acknowledged, although I do not find the French numbers clearly or precisely stated), he still maintained his ground on the left of the Weser, and supplied every defect by his superiority of tactics. He left a detachment of 5,000 men exposed, and seemingly unguarded, as a bait to lure De Contades from his strong position at Minden. The French Mareschal was deceived by the feint, and directed the Duke de Broglie to march forward and profit by the blunder, as he deemed it to be. On the 1st of August, accordingly, De Broglie advanced into the plain, his force divided in eight columns." Instead of the small corps expected, he found the whole army of the allies in front of him. De Contades hurried to his assistance, and the French, forced to accept battle in an unfavorable position, were overcome. At the decisive moment of their retreat, "the Prince sent his orders to Lord George Sackville, who commanded the whole English and some German cavalry on the right wing of the Allies, and who had hitherto been kept back as a reserve. The orders were to charge and overwhelm the French in their retreat, before they could reach any clear ground to rally. Had these orders been duly fulfilled, it is acknowledged by French writers that their army must have been utterly destroyed; but Lord George either could not or would not understand what was enjoined on him. . . . Under such circumstances the victory of Minden would not have been signal or complete but for a previous and most high-spirited precaution of Prince Ferdinand. He had sent round to the rear of the French a body of 10,000 men under his nephew—and also the King of Prussia—the Hereditary Prince of Brunswick. . . . Thus Ferdinand became master of the passes, and the French were constrained to continue their retreat in disorder. Upon the whole, their loss was 8,000 men killed, wounded, or taken, 30 pieces of artillery, and 17 standards. . . . Great was the rejoicing in England at the victory of Minden"; but loud the outcry against Lord George Sackville, who was recalled and dismissed from all his employments.—Lord Mahon, *History of England, 1713-1783*, v. 4, ch. 36.

ALSO IN: E. Cust, *Annals of the wars of the eighteenth century*, v. 2, pp. 327-333.

1759 (July-November).—Seven Years' War: Disasters of Frederick.—Kunersdorf.—Dresden.—Maxen.—"Three years of the war were gone and the ardour of Frederick's enemies showed no signs of abating. The war was unpopular in the Russian army, but the Czarina thought no sacrifice too great for the gratification of her hatred. France was sick of it too, and tottering on the verge of national bankruptcy, but Louis was kept true to his engagements by domestic influences and by the unbending determination of Maria Theresa never to lay down arms until Prussia was thoroughly humbled. . . . Already Frederick was at his wits' end for men and money. Of the splendid infantry which had stormed the heights at Prague, and stemmed the rout of Kollin, very little now remained. . . . Moreover, Austria, relying on her vastly larger population, had ceased to exchange prisoners, and after the end of 1750 Russia followed her example. . . . Frederick's pecuniary difficulties were even greater still. But for the English subsidy he could hardly have subsisted at all. . . . The summer was half gone before there was any serious fighting. Frederick had got together 125,000 men of some sort, besides garrison troops, but he no longer felt strong

enough to take the initiative, and the Austrians were equally indisposed to attack, without the co-operation of their allies. Towards the middle of July the Russians, under Count Soltikoff, issued from Posen, advanced to the Oder, and, after defeating a weak Prussian corps near Kay, took possession of Frankfort. It now became necessary for the king to march in person against them, the more especially as Laudon [or Loudon] with 18,000 Austrians was on his way to join Soltikoff. Before he could reach Frankfort, Laudon, eluding with much dexterity the vigilance of his enemies, effected his junction, and Frederick, with 48,000 men, found himself confronted by an army 78,000 strong. The Russians were encamped on the heights of Kunersdorf, east of Frankfort." Frederick attacked them, Aug. 12, with brilliant success at first, routing their left wing and taking 70 guns, with several thousand prisoners. "The Prussian generals then besought the king to rest content with the advantage he had gained. The day was intensely hot; his soldiers had been on foot for twelve hours, and were suffering severely from thirst and exhaustion; moreover, if the Russians were let alone, they would probably go off quietly in the night, as they had done after Zorndorf. Unhappily Frederick refused to take counsel. He wanted to destroy the Russian army, not merely to defeat it; he had seized the Frankfort bridge and cut off its retreat." He persisted in his attack and was beaten off. "The Prussians were in full retreat when Laudon swept down upon them with eighteen fresh squadrons. The retreat became a rout more disorderly than in any battle of the war except Rossbach. The king, stupefied with his disaster, could hardly be induced to quit the field, and was heard to mutter, 'Is there then no cursed bullet that can reach me?' The defeat was overwhelming. Had it been properly followed up, it must have put an end to the war, and Kunersdorf would have ranked among the decisive battles of the world. Berlin lay open to the enemy; the royal family fled to Magdeburg. For the first (and last) time in his life Frederick gave way utterly to despair. 'I have no resources left,' he wrote to the minister Finckenstein the evening after the battle, 'and to tell the truth I hold all for lost. I shall not survive the ruin of my country. Farewell for ever.' The same night he resigned the command of the army to General Finck. Eighteen thousand, five hundred of his soldiers were killed, wounded or prisoners, and the rest were so scattered that no more than 3,000 remained under his command. All the artillery was lost, and most of his best generals were killed or wounded. . . . By degrees, however, the prospect brightened. The fugitives kept coming in, and the enemy neglected to give the finishing stroke. Frederick shook off his despair, and resumed the command of his army. Artillery was ordered up from Berlin, and the troops serving against the Swedes were recalled from Pomerania. Within a week of Kunersdorf he was at the head of 33,000 men, and in a position to send relief to Dresden, which was besieged by an Austrian and Imperialist army. The relief, as it happened, arrived just too late." Dresden was surrendered by its commandant, Schmettau, on Sept. 4th, to the great wrath of Frederick. By a wonderful march of fifty-eight miles in fifty hours, Prince Henry, the brother of Frederick, prevented the Austrians from gaining the whole electorate of Saxony. The Russians and the Austrians quarrelled, the former complaining that they were left to do all the fighting, and presently they withdrew into Poland. "With the departure of the

Russians, the campaign would probably have ended, had not Frederick's desire to close it with a victory led him into a fresh disaster, hardly less serious and far more disgraceful than that of Kunersdorf. . . . With the view of hastening the retreat of the Austrians, and of driving them, if possible, into the difficult Pirna country, he ordered General Finck to take post with his corps at Maxem, to bar their direct line of communications with Bohemia." As the result, Finck, and his whole corps of 12,000, were overwhelmed and taken prisoners. "The capitulation of Maxem was no less destructive of Frederick's plans than galling to his pride. The Austrians now retained Dresden, a place of great strategical importance, though the king, in the hope of dislodging them, exposed the wrecks of his army to the ruinous hardships of a winter campaign in weather of unusual severity, and borrowed 12,000 men of Ferdinand of Brunswick to cover his flank while so engaged. The new year had commenced before he allowed his harassed troops to go into winter-quarters."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War*, ch. 10, sect. 2.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *History of Friedrich II*, bk. 19, ch. 4-7.—Frederick II, *History of the Seven Years' War (Posthumous works)*, v. 3, ch. 10.

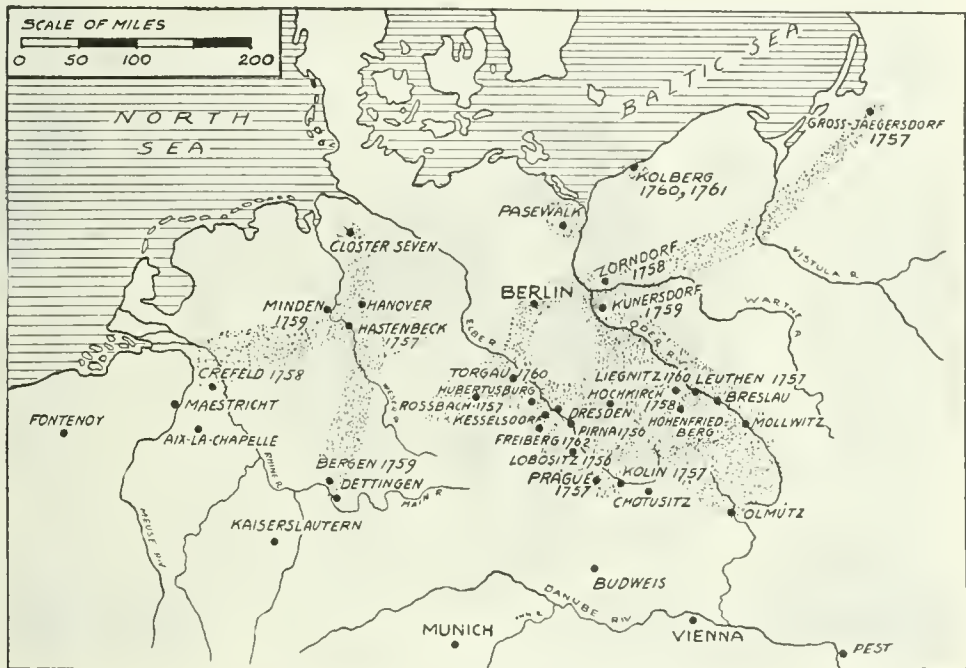
1760.—Seven Years' War: Saxony reconquered by Frederick.—Dresden bombarded.—Battles of Liegnitz, Torgau and Warburg.—"The campaign of 1759 had extended far into the winter, and Frederick conceived the bold idea of renewing it while the vigilance of his enemies was relaxed in winter quarters, and of making another effort to drive the Austrians from Saxony. His head-quarters were at Freyberg. Having received reinforcements from Prince Ferdinand, and been joined by 12,000 men under the hereditary prince, he left the latter to keep guard behind the Mulde, and in January 1760, at a time when the snow lay deep upon the ground, he made a fierce spring upon the Austrians, who were posted at Dippoldiswalde; but General Maguire, who commanded there, baffled him by the vigilance and skill with which he guarded every pass, and compelled him to retrace his steps to Freyberg. When the winter had passed and the regular campaign had opened, Laudohn [Loudon], one of the most active of the Austrian generals—the same who had borne a great part in the victories of Hochkirchen and Kunersdorf—entered Silesia, surprised with a greatly superior force the Prussian General Fouqué, compelled him, with some thousands of soldiers, to surrender [at Landshut, June 22], and a few days later reduced the important fortress of Glatz [July 26]. Frederick, at the first news of the danger of Fouqué, marched rapidly towards Silesia, Daun slowly following, while an Austrian corps, under General Lacy, impeded his march by incessant skirmishes. On learning the surrender of Fouqué, Frederick at once turned and hastened towards Dresden. It was July, and the heat was so intense that on a single day more than a hundred of his soldiers dropped dead upon the march. He hoped to gain some days upon Daun, who was still pursuing, and to become master of Dresden before succours arrived. As he expected, he soon outstripped the Austrian general, and the materials for the siege were collected with astonishing rapidity, but General Maguire, who commanded at Dresden, defended it with complete success till the approach of the Austrian army obliged Frederick to retire. Baffled in his design, he took a characteristic vengeance by bombarding that beautiful city with red-hot balls, slaugh-

tering multitudes of its peaceable inhabitants, and reducing whole quarters to ashes; and he then darted again upon Silesia, still followed by the Austrian general. Laudohn had just met with his first reverse, having failed in the siege of Breslau [an attempted surprise and a brief bombardment]; on August 15, when Daun was still far off, Frederick fell upon him and beat him in the battle of Liegnitz. [The statement that "Daun was still far off" appears to be erroneous. Loudon and Daun had formed a junction four days before, and had planned a concerted attack on Frederick's camp; Loudon was struck and defeated while making the movement agreed upon, and Daun was only a few miles away at the time.] Soon after, however, this success was counterbalanced by Lacy and Totleben, who, at the head of some Austrians and Russians, had marched upon Berlin, which, after a brave resistance, was once more captured

which was still held by Maguire. The English and German army, under Prince Ferdinand, succeeded in the meantime in keeping at bay a very superior French army, under Marshal Broglie; and several slight skirmishes took place, with various results. The battle of Warburg, which was the most important, was won chiefly by the British cavalry, but Prince Ferdinand failed in his attempts to take Wesel and Göttingen; and at the close of the year the French took up their quarters at Cassel."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England, 18th century, v. 2, ch. 8.*

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria, v. 3, ch. 115.*—G. B. Malleson, *Military life of Loudon, ch. 10.*—T. Carlyle, *History of Friedrich II, bk. 20, ch. 1-6.*

1761-1762.—Seven Years' War: Closing campaigns.—"All Frederick's exertions produced him only 96,000 men for defence of Silesia and Sax-



BATTLEFIELDS OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

and ruthlessly plundered; but on the approach of Frederick the enemy speedily retreated. Frederick then turned again towards Saxony, which was again occupied by Daun, and on November 3 he attacked his old enemy in his strong entrenchments at Torgau. Daun, in addition to the advantage of position, had the advantage of great numerical superiority, for his army was reckoned at 65,000, while that of Frederick was not more than 44,000. But the generalship of Frederick gained the victory. General Ziethen succeeded in attacking the Austrians in the rear, gaining the height, and throwing them into confusion. Daun was wounded and disabled, and General O'Donnell, who was next in command, was unable to restore the Austrian line. The day was conspicuous for its carnage, even among the bloody battles of the Seven Years' War; 20,000 Austrians were killed, wounded, or prisoners, while 14,000 Prussians were left on the field. The battle closed the campaign for the year, leaving all Saxony in the possession of the Prussians, with the exception of Dresden,

only this year [1761]. Prince Henry had to face Daun in Saxony; the king himself stood in Silesia against Loudon and the Russians under Butterlin. Loudon opened the campaign by advancing against Goltz, near Schweidnitz, in April. Goltz had only 12,000 to his adversary's 30,000, but posted himself so well that Loudon could not attack him. Reinforcements came gradually to Loudon, raising his army to 72,000, but orders from Vienna obliged him to remain inactive till he could be joined near Neisse by the Russians with 60,000. Goltz, manœuvring against the Russians, was taken prisoner. The king himself delayed the junction of his enemies for some time, but could not now offer battle. The junction took place the 18th of August. He then struck at Loudon's communications, but the thrust was well parried, and on the 20th of August, Frederick, for the first time, was reduced to an attitude of pure defence. He formed an intrenched camp at Bunzelwitz, and lay there, blocking the way to Schweidnitz. Loudon's entreaties could not persuade the Russians

to join him in full force to attack the position, and on the 9th of September Butterlin's army fell back across the Oder, leaving 20,000 of his men to act under Loudon. Frederick remained a fortnight longer in the camp of Bunzelwitz, but was then forced to go, as his army was eating up the magazines of Schweidnitz. Again he moved against Loudon's magazines, but the Austrian general boldly marched for Schweidnitz, and captured the place by assault on the night of the 30th September-1st October. No fight took place between Loudon and the king. They both went into winter quarters in December—Prussians at Strehlen, Austrians at Kunzendorf, and Russians about Glatz. . . . In the western theatre Ferdinand defeated Broglie and Soubise at Vellinghausen [or Wellinghausen, or Kirch-Denkern, as the battle, fought July 15, is differently called], the English contin-

kept up his 60,000, but doubled their number. In the spring he had 70,000 for his Silesian army, 40,000 for Prince Henry in Saxony, and 10,000 for the Swedes or other purposes. Best news of all, the czarina died on the 5th of January, 1762, and Peter, who succeeded her—only for a short time, poor boy—was an ardent admirer of the great king. Frederick at once released and sent home his Russian prisoners, an act which brought back his Prussians from Russia. On the 23rd February Peter declared his intention to be at peace and amity with Frederick, concluded peace on the 5th of May, and a treaty of alliance a month later. The Swedes, following suit, declared peace on the 22nd of May, and Frederick could now give his sole attention to the Austrians." For a few weeks, only, the Prussian king had a Russian contingent of 20,000 in alliance with him, but



FREDERICK THE GREAT AND GENERAL ZIETHEN AFTER THE BATTLE OF TORGAU

gent again behaving gloriously. . . . Prince Henry and Daun manœvered skilfully throughout the campaign, but never came to serious blows. Frederick is described as being very gloomy in mind this winter. The end of the year left him with but 60,000 men in Saxony, Silesia, and the north. Eugene of Würtemberg had 5,000 to hold back the Swedes, Prince Henry 25,000 in Saxony, the king himself 30,000. But the agony of France was increasing; Maria Theresa had to discharge 20,000 men from want of money, and Frederick's bitter enemy, 'cette infame Catin du Nord' [the Czarina Elizabeth], was failing fast in health. A worse blow to the king than the loss of a battle had been the fall of Pitt, in October, and with him all hope of English subsidies. Still, the enemies of Prussia were almost exhausted. One more year of brave and stubborn resistance, and Prussia must be left in peace. By extraordinary exertions, and a power of administrative organisation which was one of his greatest qualities, Frederick not only

could make no use of it. It was recalled in July, by the revolution of St. Petersburg, which deposed the young czar, Peter, in favour of his ambitious consort, Catherine. Frederick succeeded in concealing the fact long enough to frighten Daun by a show of preparations for attacking him, with the Russian troops included in his army, and the Austrian general retired to Glatz and Bohemia. Frederick then took Schweidnitz, and marched on Dresden. "Daun followed heavily. Like a prize-fighter knocked out of time, he had no more fight in him. Prince Henry had two affairs with the Reich's army and its Austrian contingent. Forced to retire from Freyburg on the 15th, he afterwards attacked them on the 20th of October and defeated them by a turning movement. They had 40,000, he 30,000. The Austrian contingent suffered most. In the western theatre Ferdinand held his own and had his usual successes. His part in the war was to defend only, and he never failed to show high qualities as a general. Thus,

nowhere had Frederick's enemies succeeded in crushing his defences. For seven years the little kingdom of Prussia had held her ground against the three great military powers, France, Austria, and Russia. All were now equally exhausted. The constancy, courage, and ability of Frederick were rewarded at last; on the 15th of February, 1763, the treaty of Hubertsburg [Hubertusburg] was signed, by which Austria once more agreed to the cession of Silesia. Prussia was now a Great Power like the rest, her greatness resting on no shams, as she had proved."—C. B. Brackenbury, *Frederick the Great*, ch. 18.

ALSO IN: E. Cust, *Annals of the wars of the eighteenth century*, v. 3, pp. 57-87.—Frederick II, *History of the Seven Years' War (Posthumous works)*, v. 3, ch. 14-16.

1761-1779.—Attitude of Frederick the Great toward England and its bearing on the American Revolution.—Attempt of the colonies to establish commercial relations with him.—“In attempting to arrive at a conclusion upon the much-debated subject of the attitude of Frederick the Great toward the American Revolution, the reader should constantly bear in mind two important facts about which there is no room for dispute. One of these facts is that Frederick entertained an intense hatred for England, and was consequently glad to see her humiliated; the other, that his interests were such that he was unwilling openly to become her enemy. His hatred dated from the year 1761. Up to that time the English government, under the leadership of Pitt, whose policy was to ‘conquer America in Germany,’ had for some years supported him in his unequal contest against his allied enemies by undertaking the defense of his western frontier against the French and by furnishing him an annual subsidy of about £900,000. But in 1761 the Great Commoner was driven out of office; the Tory party, led by the Scotch favorite, the Earl of Bute, seized the reins of power, and at once proceeded in a most treacherous manner to desert their hard-pressed ally by making terms with France. This was an action that Frederick never forgave, and thereafter he entertained toward England, and particularly toward the party in power, the most bitter resentment. Nor was this feeling lessened in intensity when about a decade later, at the time of the first partition of Poland, the British intrigued to prevent him from acquiring Danzig. . . . ‘This,’ wrote he [in his ‘Memoirs after the Peace’] regarding his refusal to allow the passage across his dominions of German troops hired by England, ‘was taking but a feeble revenge for the evil proceedings relative to the port of Danzig; neither did the king desire to come to extremities. Long experience had taught him that a multitude of enemies are found in the world, and that we ought not in sport to raise up foes.’ In view of Frederick’s hatred of England, it was but natural that he should be interested in her troubles with the colonies. As early as June 27, 1774, we find him writing to de Maltzan to pay attention to the quarrel in order to keep him well-informed. Later he said that the colonies were evidently firmly resolved to sustain their liberties and that he disapproved of the English policy. Still later he expressed the opinion that it was a hundred to one that regulars would be able to beat militia, but that the colonies would doubtless be able to make British commerce and manufactures suffer greatly, and that Parliament might one day regret having pushed things so far. . . . The first suggestion made to Frederick that he should form a connection with

the Americans appears to have come from de Maltzan, who had been approached by an American agent in London. De Maltzan proposed that the king should open commercial relations with the Americans; but Frederick replied: ‘What you add concerning the establishment of a direct commerce appears to me, considering the actual relations between my state and America, still very problematical. Of all the merchandise in exchange, Virginia tobacco would be the principal article. But without a navy how do you expect me to protect such a commerce or make it respected?’ A month later he expressed himself again in much the same terms. In the following November a more direct overture was made to the Prussian monarch. In that month William Carmichael was sent by Silas Deane, then agent of the colonies in Paris, to Berlin to make proposals of a commercial nature. Carmichael accomplished nothing of importance. He explained the character of American products to the Prussian authorities, but found Frederick unwilling to undertake a direct commerce, though he expressed himself willing to exchange commodities through the ports of France. The next attempt at an understanding was made by the three American commissioners, Deane, Franklin, and Lee, who, in pursuance of the so-called ‘militia’ diplomatic policy, on February 14, 1777, transmitted to the Prussian court copies of the Declaration of Independence and of the Articles of Confederation, and in a letter expressed a desire to obtain Frederick’s friendship and to lay before him a plan for commercial intercourse. Concerning the proposals made in this letter Frederick wrote from Potsdam to Baron Schulenburg, his minister of state, expressing to him the opinion that since Prussia was without a navy to protect such a commerce, it would be necessary to make use of a foreign flag. But he added: ‘However, in spite of these considerations, I do not wish to disoblige nor to offend the colonies by a complete refusal of the propositions of their plenipotentiary commissioners at Paris, and it appears to me to be more expedient for you by a civil answer to attempt to keep them in the friendly disposition they appear to entertain towards us. . . . In this way the above-mentioned colonies will not be offended, and we shall have the means of entering into negotiations with them should circumstances become more favorable. Then our Silesian linens, our woolens, and other manufactured articles can find a new market. . . . Explain your position toward their offer as favorably as possible, so that the moment events become more propitious there we may be able to take advantage of it.’ . . . Although he was quite willing to see England humiliated, his interests dictated that he should not become embroiled in a war with her. . . . Lee’s next request was for information concerning the probability that the English would in the following year [1778] be able to draw more recruits from Germany, Russia, or Denmark. Schulenburg referred Lee’s request to Frederick, and upon Schulenburg’s letter the king wrote, ‘none from Russia, none from Denmark, but some men from Anspach, and from the prince of Hesse.’ In consenting that Schulenburg should give this information Frederick showed himself in perhaps the most friendly attitude toward the colonies in which he had yet appeared. About the same time Frederick refused to allow the passage of the mercenary troops from Baireuth, Anspach, and Cassel across his dominions, and some writers have seen in this action another evidence of his friendship for America. . . . A passage already quoted from his *Memoirs*

after the Peace shows that the refusal gave him some pleasure because it disobliged England. In the same work he states that he refused because he did not like to see Germany denuded of troops. . . . On November 17, 1777, Arthur Lee wrote to Schulenburg stating that Congress had appointed his brother, William Lee, commissioner to the Prussian court with powers to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce, and requesting to be informed as to whether it was the king's pleasure that his brother should come to Berlin. But Schulenburg replied that the king 'cannot possibly conjecture, as circumstances have not changed, what propositions Mr. Lee can make more acceptable to His Majesty, nor consequently what can be the object of his mission.' On the fourth of the following month Arthur Lee wrote to Schulenburg confirming the glorious news of the surrender of Burgoyne. Schulenburg transmitted the letter to Frederick at Potsdam, and the king received the news with great satisfaction. Upon the letter he wrote: 'This is very good, but it is necessary to tell him that I expect (*j'attends*) to recognize the independence of the Americans when France shall have set the example.' . . . [Six weeks later Schulenburg wrote to Lee] that the Americans were at liberty to purchase arms in Prussia and that the 'bankers Splittgerber, contractors for the manufacture of arms, have received directions to deliver such as you may demand.' . . . Prussia was far from being advantageous to the Americans. Frederick's motives for expressing his intention of recognizing the Americans when France should have set the example will probably never be determined. He may have thought that Fortune had at last declared herself against England and that the end of the war was close at hand. Perhaps, with Machiavellian craftiness, he expected that the contents of his letter to Lee would be communicated to the French ministry and would influence them to declare for the Americans and thus become embroiled with England. Whatever his motives may have been, it is unlikely, in view of the obstinate determination of the English to continue the war, that he would have hazarded following France. . . . From this time [1779] onward the relations of the two powers [United States and Germany] continued without material change until the close of the Revolution. The independence of the colonies was not recognized by Frederick until after it had been recognized by England herself, and it was not until June of 1783 that Baron Goltz at Paris made overtures to Franklin for a commercial agreement between the two countries."—P. L. Haworth, *Frederick the Great and the American Revolution* (reprinted from the *American Historical Review*, v. 9, no. 3, Apr., 1904, pp. 460-464, 468-470, 470-471, 473).

1763.—End, results and costs of the Seven Years' War.—Peace of Hubertusburg and Peace of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war.

1763-1790.—Period of peace and progress.—Intellectual cultivation.—Accession of the Emperor Joseph II.—His character and reforms.—Accession of Leopold II.—"The lasting significance of the Seven Years' War lies in its profound effect on German national consciousness, on the German sense of unity. Before the war the disintegrating character of the Empire had loosened all but officially any close relations between different states. For many years no strong leader had appeared in Austria or elsewhere; men felt themselves not German, but Bavarian, or Saxon, or Prussian, as the case might be. But Frederick's

victories were not only Prussian; they were also German. He had beaten soundly France and Russia as well as Austria. He had established the claim of an ignored German province to rank with great powers. The full fighting force of all his enemies was never concentrated against Frederick, but with a population of 5,000,000 and but little aid from abroad he had maintained all of his possessions against attacks of states and nations whose total population approximated 90,000,000. The people of different states might be jealous of this brilliant success and rise of Prussia, but they were enthusiastic admirers of Frederick. He was a German national hero. Pride in his achievements united countless Germans in spirit and gave new impulse to a sense of German national life. It also created desire and resolution to emulate Frederick's triumphs in war in other fields of activity. . . . As soon as the Peace of Hubertusburg was signed, Frederick plunged again, as if refreshed from a long holiday, into the work for the internal development of Prussia which the war had nullified or held in check. In the decade of peace before the Seven Years' War Frederick had begun to drain outlying swampy districts and bring them closer to the heart of his kingdom by arteries of canals; this work he now continued, and to these fertile districts, which were no longer too remote, he attracted many thousand new settlers. Besides remitting the taxes for a time in some of his provinces, he distributed cavalry horses and large quantities of seed among the peasants, thus restoring and advancing agriculture. New industries were established and, together with those already existing, were developed with great rapidity; the cloth mills in Silesia, silk factories, glassworks, foundries, and other industries engaged a considerable portion of Frederick's thought and care for many years. The prohibitive duty which Frederick put on foreign imports protected and fostered home industries and caused a rapid improvement in home products, though the system which he employed in collecting taxes galled his people by its unnecessary vigilance. Through miserly frugality in government as in his private life—he spent only one sixth of his income—Frederick was able to give large sums to needy communities, to increase his standing army to 186,000 men, and to leave a well-filled treasury at his death. Morally and intellectually the most bracing reforms of Frederick's reign were his revised administration of justice and his proclamations of religious tolerance and freedom of speech. At his behest the courts no longer regarded class distinctions but rendered decisions to noble and peasant alike; Frederick thus strengthened immeasurably his people's faith in the rewards of honest, upright living. 'Every man,' he said in his picturesque idiom, 'is to go to heaven in his own way,' and 'newspapers, if they are to be interesting, must not be interfered with.' By unshackling spiritual and intellectual life Frederick gave play to forces which ultimately established the moral and intellectual standards of Prussia and Germany. During Frederick's reign the population of Prussia increased from three and a half to five and a half millions, and the area by more than two thirds, so that in 1786 Prussia comprised nearly sixty-five thousand square miles, about the area of New England. By applying his methods of administration and his reforms with but few alterations to all his provinces Frederick welded Prussia into a unified and fairly homogeneous realm. . . . The emperor Francis I died in 1765 and was succeeded both in Austria and as head of the Holy Roman Empire by his



son Joseph II (1765-1790). The change of ruler caused hardly more than a ripple anywhere, for Maria Theresa was still enjoying the advantage of her beauty and her personality, and until her death in 1780 she continued to have the last word in Austrian politics. Joseph II moreover shared the controlling ambition of his mother's life, to unify the widely divergent nationalities subject to the rule of the Hapsburgs. Each hoped that after thus restoring and enhancing Austria's prestige they might reunify the Holy Roman Empire, but their labors began and ended in their own hereditary possessions. Maria Theresa believed with all her heart in the theory of absolute monarchy; she therefore granted political and social reforms—in education, trade, religious toleration, and the condition of the peasants—only in so far as they might not weaken the authority of the central government. Cautious even to the point of appearing semi-medieval in an age of enlightenment, she was yet spurred on by a profound sense of duty to the welfare of her people. This conflict within herself, between ambition and caution, hampered Maria Theresa throughout her reign and robbed her of much of the achievement and the glory which nature, it seems, had put within her reach. Joseph II inherited his mother's ambition for Austria and he was eager to rival the example of Frederick of Prussia, whom he admired greatly. But he was afflicted by a hasty judgment and by feverish energy, 'generally taking the second step before he had taken the first.' He was consequently checkmated again and again in his dealings with other German states and with foreign powers. In his own realm he alienated many of his people and expended much of his energy in attempting to retrieve past mistakes. When he abolished serfdom in his dominions and secured civil rights and freedom of worship to all Austrian Protestants, he set up the two greatest memorialis of his reign. . . . In the last ten years of his reign Joseph II allowed his ambition for Austria to lead him more and more into projects for Austrian aggrandizement at the expense of other German states and into seeking the aid of Russia and France. The stability of the Holy Roman Empire was thus threatened on three sides. At this point Prussia became the leader of a group of German states for the first time in history. In July, 1785 Frederick the Great formed with the electors of Saxony and Hanover the 'League of German Princes,' or *Deutscher Fürstenbund*. The league merely agreed to defend and preserve, in word, and if necessary in deed, all the states of the Empire as they then existed. The league was thus intended not to reform but to safeguard conservatively the old existing order. Many German rulers in the north and the south, Catholic and Protestant, gladly joined the league. It soon forced Joseph to abandon his projects, it curbed the influence of Russia and France, and it assured the continued existence of the Holy Roman Empire."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 21-24, 26-27, 33-34.—Leopold II succeeded his brother Joseph II in 1790.

1772-1773.—First partition of Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790.

1777-1779.—Claims to Bavaria. See BAVARIA: 1777-1779.

1785.—Establishment of the *Fürstenbund*.—The "League of Princes (*der Fürstenbund*) [was] modeled to some extent on the Smalkaldic League of the sixteenth century, but differing from it in that it comprised Catholics and Protestants indiscriminately. The treaty of union was in the first instance signed only by the three great secular

states of the north, Brandenburg, Hanover, and Saxony; other states joined afterwards on the invitation of the contracting parties. Foremost amongst these was the Elector of Mainz, whose adhesion gave the League a majority in the Electoral college, since by the Bavarian vote being merged in the Palatine the number of electors were reduced to eight, and the Elector of Mainz, as Arch-Chancellor of Germany, possessed a casting vote when the votes were equal. The immediate object of the *Fürstenbund* was resistance to Austrian encroachments and the preservation of the *status quo* in Germany, but it is probable that larger ideas were vaguely present to the minds of its founders. The mere fact that states were invited to join it whose smallness made them from a military point of view a source of weakness rather than strength shows that something more than a defensive alliance was intended; and indeed there is good reason for believing that a complete reorganization of Germany was contemplated, involving perhaps even the abolition of the Imperial throne or its transfer from Vienna to Berlin. Great ideas certainly—but requiring a Frederick for their realization, if even he could have accomplished it, and when the time came a Frederick was not found."—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War*, pp. 251-252.—"The establishment of the *Fürstenbund* . . . illustrates conveniently and aptly the great net result of Frederick's life and reign. It revealed Prussia as no longer a third-rate power but as the successful rival of Austria in German affairs and as the peer of any nation in Europe. The goal of Frederick's whole activity was reached. The path which led to it had been long and devious. In the aggrandizement of Prussia Frederick had repudiated ethical considerations with shocking easiness. He had ruled his people with benevolent but often stifling despotism. He had foregone the sunshine of declining years, the affection and sympathy of life-long friendships, and had become the lonely 'hermit of Sans Souci.' But he had forged a state which could survive the blows of the nineteenth century. He had given to Prussians and Germans an ideal of statehood which afforded initial inspiration to the state and national life of the German Empire of the most recent decades."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 23-24.

ALSO IN: H. A. Catt, *Frederick the Great*.—G. J. W. Dover, *Life of Frederick the Great*.—F. T. Kugler, *Life of Frederick the Great*.—W. F. Reddaway, *Frederick the Great*.—J. H. Rose, *Frederick the Great and England*.—E. M. Satow, *Silesian Iou and Frederick the Great*.—H. Tuttle, *History of Prussia under Frederick the Great*.—N. Young, *Life of Frederick the Great*.

1789.—Political conditions in Germany preceding the French Revolution.—"During the years immediately preceding the French Revolution Germany presented a curious spectacle of political decrepitude and intellectual rejuvenescence. The Holy Roman Empire, in regard to which Voltaire caustically inquired in what respect it was holy or Roman or an Empire, was afflicted with creeping paralysis. Its wheels continued to revolve; but the machinery was rusty and the output was small. . . . 'Germany,' cried Friedrich Karl Moser in the bitterness of his heart, 'is a great but despised people.' Every nation, he added, had a governing principle. In England it was liberty in Holland trade, in France the honour of the King, while in Germany it was obedience. Many a pamphleteer lamented the anæmia of the Fatherland; but not one of them could produce a restorative. . . . The

Empire, in fact, was not even German. The King of England was a member as Elector of Hanover, the King of Denmark as Duke of Holstein, the King of Sweden as Lord of Pomerania, while Belgium participated as an appanage of the House of Hapsburg. In theory the Imperial crown was elective; but in practice it was found impossible to override the traditional claims of the Hapsburgs, as Charles VII. of Bavaria and his champions learned to their cost in the war of the Austrian Succession. The Empire appeared to revive for a moment in the coronation pageantry at Frankfurt, when the Emperor received the homage of the Estates on bended knee and the herald brandished his sword towards the four quarters of heaven in token that all Christendom was subject to his sway; but in the eighteenth century it was nothing but a picturesque survival. The Emperor was still the fount of honour; but, except for the grant of titles, his prerogatives had disappeared. As a German jurist aptly remarked: to prevent him from doing harm, he was prevented from doing anything. Such powers as he possessed he owed not to the crown of Charlemagne and Barbarossa, but to the territories and resources of the House of Hapsburg. The Golden Bull of Charles IV. limited the Electors to seven, three of whom were the Archbishops of Mainz, Cologne, and Trier [Trevs]. The secular princes were the rulers of the Palatinate, Bohemia, Saxony, and Brandenburg, to which Bavaria and Hanover were added in the seventeenth century. The first in rank was the Elector of Mainz, the Arch-Chancellor of the Empire, who crowned the Emperor at Frankfurt. The legislative power was exercised by the Diet at Regensburg, to which ambassadors were accredited and from which the army of the Empire took its orders. Since 1663 it sat in permanence; but this change decreased instead of increasing its importance, as it was only attended by delegates—and most members of the Empire never troubled to be represented. It consisted of three colleges, the Electors, the Princes (ecclesiastical and secular), and the Free Cities sitting separately. If two colleges agreed, and their wishes were sanctioned by the Emperor the resolution became an Imperial law, but its execution depended on the separate decision of each separate unit, large or small, of which the Empire was composed. It was only at Regensburg that 'Germany' could be found; but the significance of the Diet had waned with the strength of the Empire, and its time was largely wasted in solemn trifling and hoary pedantries. While the emperor resided at Vienna and the Diet sat at Regensburg, the Supreme Court of the Empire was moved in 1693 from Speyer to Wetzlar. . . . The Court had earned an enviable reputation for venality and procrastination; and if a few petty tyrants were thwarted or punished by its decrees, it was too weak to strike at powerful offenders. . . . In addition to the Emperor, the Diet, and the Court of Appeal, the machinery of the Empire included ten Circles, or administrative districts, created to counteract the dangers of excessive particularism by the formation of large groups. Each Circle possessed a Diet and a Director, who commanded the troops, controlled the police, and provided for the execution of the Imperial laws. In the course of the centuries, however, great changes had occurred. The circle of Burgundy had been swallowed up in France. Holland was free. Many territories, again, had become subject to members of the Empire—such as Hungary and the Polish provinces annexed by Austria and Prussia, which were not incorporated in the Empire. On the

eve of the French Revolution there were nine circles: Upper and Lower Saxony, Austria, Bohemia, Bavaria, Westphalia, The Upper Rhine, Swabia, Franconia. Differing widely in size and importance, they were alike in their invertebrate character. Prussia formed part of three Circles, while Swabia and Franconia presented a bewildering mosaic of petty principalities, ecclesiastical and secular. It was in these circles of the lower and middle Rhine that the hundreds of Imperial Knights, who recognised no superior but the Emperor, exercised unfeathered sway over their Lilliputian territories. Western Germany was the classic land of duodecimo States, which afforded no foundation for healthy political life and offered a tempting prey to the sleepless ambitions of France."—G. P. Goetze, *Germany and the French Revolution*, pp. 1-4.

1790.—Alliance of Prussia and Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790.

1791.—Forming of the coalition against French democracy. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: First movements toward European coalition; 1791 (July-September).

1791-1792.—Question of war with France, and the question of the partition of Poland.—Motives and action of Prussia and Austria.—"After the acceptance of the Constitution by Louis XVI. [September—see FRANCE: 1791 (July-September)], the Emperor indulged for a time a confident hope, that the French question was solved, and that he was relieved from all fear of trouble from that quarter. He had cares enough upon him to make him heartily congratulate himself on this result. . . . In foreign affairs, the Polish question—the next in importance to the French—was still unsettled, and daily presented fresh difficulties. . . . The fact that Russia began to show the greatest favour to the Emigrés, and to preach at Berlin and Vienna a crusade against the wicked Jacobins, only served to confirm the Emperor in his peaceful sentiments. He rightly concluded that Catharine wished to entangle the German Powers in a struggle with France, that she might have her own way in Poland; and he was not at all inclined to be the dupe of so shallow an artifice. . . . At the same time he set about bringing his alliance with Prussia to a definite conclusion, in order to secure to himself a firm support for every emergency. On the 17th of November—a week after the enactment of the first edict against the Emigrés—Prince Reuss made a communication on this subject to the Prussian Ministry, and on this occasion declared himself empowered to commence at any moment the formal draft of an alliance. . . . 'We are now convinced,' wrote the Ministers to their ambassador at Vienna, 'that Austria will undertake nothing against France.' This persuasion was soon afterwards fully confirmed by Kaunitz, who descanted in the severest terms on the intrigues of the Emigrés on the Rhine, which it was not in the interest of any Power to support. It was ridiculous, he said, in the French Princes, and in Russia and Spain, to declare the acceptance of the constitution by the King compulsory, and therefore void; and still more so to dispute the right of Louis XVI. to alter the constitution at all. He said that they would vainly endeavour to goad Austria into a war, which could only have the very worst consequences for Louis and the present predominance of the moderate party in France. . . . Here, again, we see that without the machinations of the Girondists, the revolutionary war would never have been commenced. It is true, indeed, that at this time a very perceptible change took place in the opinions

of the second German potentate—the King of Prussia. Immediately after the Congress of Pillnitz, great numbers of French Emigrés, who had been driven from Vienna by the coldness of Leopold, had betaken themselves to Berlin. At the Prussian Court they met with a hospitable reception, and aroused in the King, by their graphic descriptions, a warm interest for the victims of the Revolution. . . . He loaded the Emigrés with marks of favour of every kind, and thereby excited in them the most exaggerated hopes. Yet the King was far from intending to risk any important interest of the State for the sake of his protégés; he had no idea of pursuing an aggressive policy towards France; and the only point in which he differed from Leopold was in the feeling with which he regarded the development of the warlike tendencies of the French. His Ministers, moreover, were, without exception, possessed by the same idea as Prince Kaunitz; that a French war would be a misfortune to all Europe." As the year 1791 drew towards its close, "unfavourable news arrived from Paris. The attempts of the Feuillants [Parisian political party in the assembly during the Revolution] had failed; Lafayette had separated himself from them and from the Court; and the zeal and confidence of victory among the Democrats were greater than ever. The Emigrés in Berlin were jubilant; they had always declared that no impression was to be made upon the Jacobins except by the edge of the sword, and that all hopes founded on the stability of a moderate middle party were futile. The King of Prussia agreed with them, and determined to begin the unavoidable struggle as quickly as possible. He told his Ministers that war was certain, and that Bischoffswerder ought to go once more to the Emperor. . . . Bischoffswerder, having received instructions from the King himself, left Berlin, and arrived in Vienna, after a speedy journey, on the 28th of February. But he was not destined again to discuss the fate of Europe with his Imperial patron; for on the 29th the smallpox showed itself, of which Leopold died after three days sickness. The greatest consternation and confusion reigned in Vienna. . . . No one knew to whom the young King Francis—he was as yet only king of Hungary and Bohemia—would give his confidence, or what course he would take; nay, his weakly and nervous constitution rendered it doubtful whether he could bear—even for a short period—the burdens of his office. For the present he confirmed the Ministers in their places, and expressed to them his wish to adhere to the political system of his father. . . . He . . . ordered one of his most experienced Generals, Prince Hohenlohe-Kirchberg, to be summoned to Vienna, that he might take council with Bischoffswerder respecting the warlike measures to be adopted by both Powers, in case of a French attack. At the same time, however, the Polish question was, if possible, to be brought to a decision, and Leopold's plan in all its details was to be categorically recommended for adoption, both in Berlin and Petersburg. . . . The Austrian Minister, Spielmann, had prepared the memorial on Poland, which Prince Reuss presented at Berlin, on the 10th of March. It represented that Austria and Prussia had the same interest in stopping a source of eternal embarrassment and discussion, by strengthening the cause of peace and order in Poland. That herein lay an especially powerful motive to make the crown of that country hereditary; that for both Powers the Elector of Saxony would be the most acceptable wearer of that crown. . . . The important point, the memorial went on to say, was this, that Poland should no longer be

dependent on the predominant influence of any one neighbouring Power. . . . When the King had read this memorial, in which the Saxon-Polish union was brought forward, not as an idea of the feeble Elector, but as a proposal of powerful Austria, he cried out, 'We must never give our consent to this.' He agreed with his Ministers in the conclusion that nothing would be more dangerous to Prussia, than the formation of such a Power as would result from the proposed lasting union of Poland and Saxony—a Power, which, in alliance with Austria, could immediately overrun Silesia, and in alliance with Russia, might be fatal to East Prussia. . . . In the midst of this angry and anxious excitement, which for a moment alienated his heart from Austria, the King received a fresh and no less important despatch from Petersburg. Count Golz announced the first direct communication of Russia respecting Poland. 'Should Poland' [wrote the Russian vice chancellor] 'be firmly and lastingly united to Saxony, a Power of the first rank will arise, and one which will be able to exercise the most sensible pressure upon each of its neighbours. We are greatly concerned in this, in consequence of the extension of our Polish frontier; and Prussia is no less so, from the inevitable increase which would ensue of Saxon influence in the German Empire. We therefore suggest, that Prussia, Austria, and Russia, should come to an intimate understanding with one another on this most important subject.' . . . This communication sounded differently in the ears of the King from that which he had received from Austria. The fears which agitated his own mind and those of the Russian chancellor were identical. While Austria called upon him to commit a political suicide, Russia offered her aid in averting the most harassing danger, and even opened a prospect of a considerable territorial increase. The King had no doubt to which of the two Powers he ought to incline. He would have come to terms with Russia on the spot, had not an insurmountable obstacle existed in the new path which was opened to the aggrandizement of Prussia,—viz., the Polish treaty of 1790; in which Prussia had expressly bound herself to protect the independence and integrity of Poland. . . . He decided that there was no middle course between the Russian and Austrian plans. On the one side was his Polish treaty of 1790, the immediate consequence of which would be a new breach, and perhaps a war, with Russia, and the final result such a strengthening of Poland, as would throw back the Prussian State into that subordinate position, both in Germany and Europe, which it had occupied in the seventeenth century. On the other side there was, indeed, a manifest breach of faith, but also the salvation of Prussia from a perilous dilemma, and perhaps the extension of her boundaries by a goodly Polish Providence. If he wavered at all in this conflict of feeling, the Parisian complications soon put an end to his doubts. In quick succession came the announcements that Delessart's peaceful Ministry had fallen; that King Louis had suffered the deepest humiliation; and that the helm of the State had passed into the hands of the Girondist war party. A declaration of war on the part of France against Francis II. might be daily expected, and the Russian-Polish contest would then only form the less important moiety of the European catastrophe. Austria would now be occupied for a long time in the West; there could be no more question of the formation of a Polish-Saxon State; and Austria could no longer be reckoned upon to protect the constitution of 1791, or even to repel a Rus-

sian invasion of Poland. Prussia was bound to aid the Austrians against France, and for many months the King had cherished no more ardent wish than to fulfil this obligation with all his power. Simultaneously to oppose the Empress Catharine, was out of the question. . . . The King wrote on the 12th of March to his Ministers as follows: . . . 'Russia is not far removed from thoughts of a new partition; and this would indeed be the most effectual means of limiting the power of a Polish King, whether hereditary or elective. I doubt, however, whether in this case a suitable compensation could be found for Austria; and whether, after such a curtailment of the power of Poland, the Elector of Saxony would accept the crown. Yet if Austria could be compensated, the Russian plan would be the most advantageous for Prussia,—always provided that Prussia received the whole left bank of the Vistula, by the acquisition of which that distant frontier—so hard to be defended—would be well rounded off. This is my judgment respecting Polish affairs.' This was Poland's sentence of death. It was not, as we have seen, the result of a long-existing greed, but a suddenly seized expedient, which seemed to be accompanied with the least evil, in the midst of an unexampled European crisis. . . . On the 20th of April the French National Assembly proclaimed war against the King of Hungary and Bohemia. A fortnight later the Prince of Hohenlohe-Kirchberg appeared in Berlin to settle some common plan for the campaign; and at the same time Kaunitz directed Prince Reuss to enter into negotiations on the political question of expenditure and compensation. Count Schulenburg . . . immediately sent a reply to the Prince, to the effect that Prussia—as it had uniformly declared since the previous summer—could only engage in the war on condition of receiving an adequate compensation. . . . Both statesmen well knew with what secret mistrust each of these Powers contemplated the aggrandizement of the other; their deliberations were therefore conducted with slow and anxious caution, and months passed by before their respective demands were reduced to any definite shape."—H. von Sybel, *History of the French Revolution*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: G. P. Gooche, *Germany and the French Revolution*.

1792.—Accession of the Emperor Francis II. See AUSTRIA: 1790-1797.

1792-1793.—War with revolutionary France.—Coalition. See FRANCE: 1791-1792; 1792 (April-July); (September-December); 1792-1793 (December-February); 1793 (February-April); (March-September); (July-December).

1792-1796.—Second and third partitions of Poland. See POLAND: 1791-1792; 1793-1796.

1794.—Withdrawal of Prussia from the coalition.—French conquest of the Austrian Netherlands and successes on the Rhine. See FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).

1795.—Treaty of Basel between Prussia and France.—Crumbling of the coalition. See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (October-May).

1796-1797.—Expulsion of Austria from Italy.—Bonaparte's first campaigns.—Advance of Moreau and Jourdan beyond the Rhine.—Their retreat.—Peace preliminaries of Leoben. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October); 1796-1797 (October-April).

1797.—Divisions of the country. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe (1797).

1797 (October).—Treaty of Campo Formio between Austria and France.—Austrian cession of the Netherlands and Lombardy and acqui-

sion of Venice. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

1798.—Second coalition against revolutionary France.—Prussia and the empire withheld from it. See FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

1799.—Congress at Rastadt.—Murder of French envoys. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September); RASTADT, CONGRESS OF.

19th century.—Economic and industrial development.—Military organization.—Abolition of serfdom. See ECONOMICS: 18th-19th centuries; INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: Germany; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 28; SERFDOM: 14th-19th centuries.

19th century.—Jews in Germany.—Treatment. See JEWS: Germany: 18th-19th centuries.

19th century.—Educational advances.—Kindergarten idea.—Herbart compared with Pestalozzi. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Foebel, etc.; Herbart, etc.; Germany.

1800 (May-December).—Disastrous campaigns of Marengo and Hohenlinden. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

1800-1840.—Beginnings of struggle for electoral franchise. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.

1800-1900.—Growth and development of commerce.—Lack of important foreign trade.—Commercial policy.—Rise to power. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1800-1900.

1801.—Tuscany transformed into the kingdom of Etruria and given to the prince of Parma. See FRANCE: 1801-1803.

1801-1803.—Treaty of Lunéville.—Territorial cessions and changes.—Settlement of indemnities in the empire.—Absorption of free cities.—Changes in the Holy Roman empire.—"The Treaty of Lunéville, February 9, 1801, 'was nothing else than the Peace of Campo-Formio [see FRANCE: 1797 (May-October)], a little aggravated for Austria, and leaving the Empire no illusions.' It gave France Belgium, Frankenstein, and the Frickthal. It recognized the Cisalpine Republic. It ceded, both in the name of the Emperor and in that of the Empire, the German territories of the left bank to the French Republic, a concession no longer, as in 1797, embodied in a secret article, but openly set forth in the seventh clause of the treaty. The Treaty of Lunéville has been called the 'First Revolution' of Germany. By it a territory of 150,000 square miles, peopled by 3,500,000 inhabitants, and amounting to about a seventh part of the population and territory of the whole Empire, was definitely transferred to foreign non-German powers. To indemnify the dispossessed princes the principle of secularization was admitted, which was tantamount to undermining the foundations of the old Imperial Constitution. But if the German Empire were doomed to die, its end need not have been indecorous. The Diet of Ratisbon summoned by the Emperor to consider the situation agreed, on the motion of Brandenburg, to ratify the treaty on condition that it should co-operate in arranging the transfers to territory which the treaty necessitated. If there had been at that time any feeling for the good name and internal independence of Germany as a whole, this business of the compensations would have been arranged as a domestic matter by the Colleges of the Diet. But Germany was incapable of common action. In the Diet itself there were three parties—those who wanted no secularization at all, those who wished for a restricted secularization, and those who would have a complete and absolute secularization of all ecclesiastical property. The violent ecclesiastics—the Elector of

Trèves, the Bishops of Spire and Worms—belonged to the first party; Austria, Saxony, and Mainz to the second; Prussia and the Protestant powers to the third. Nor was there any agreement as to the mode in which the Empire should proceed. . . . The jealousies of Austria and Prussia, each of which wished to secure the largest slice, added to the difficulty of arriving at an agreement. When, in September-October 1801, Austria caused an Archduke of Austria to be elected to the Electorate of Cologne and the Bishopric of Münster (the territory of all others which Prussia was coveting), the rupture between the two powers became complete, and it was clear that the question of German indemnities must be submitted to a foreign arbitration. Even before this incident the Diet had declared its bankruptcy. After futile discussions, lasting from February to October, it determined (October 2) to appoint a commission 'to discuss with the French government the questions reserved for a particular understanding by the Treaty of Lunéville.' But as the two leading powers represented in the commission were hopelessly at variance, this issue was likewise closed. The divisions of Germany were the opportunity of Bonaparte. He determined to intervene in conjunction with Alexander of Russia, and to settle for Germany the affairs she was unable to settle for herself. 'The right of France to intervene,' says a French writer, 'resulted not only from the interest which she had in the definitive organization of Germany, but from the treaties of Westphalia, from the special treaties which she had concluded with most of the German States, Prussia, Baden, Hesse, Würtemberg, and Bavaria, and lastly from the text of the Treaty of Lunéville. The right of Russia to intervene was more contestable. It proceeded from her participation in the Treaty of Teschen (1779), which had confirmed former treaties, and from the desire of the First Consul to share his responsibility with a great power.' But in truth it is misleading to speak of technical rights. Franco-Russian mediation was acceptable to the German powers because they could not agree among themselves, and it was offered by Napoleon because it served his interest. The obtuse and dilatory diplomacy of Vienna gave to the First Consul an opportunity which he was quick to improve. When Austria proposed to the Court of Munich that Bavaria should cede certain territories to the Hapsburgs on her eastern border in exchange for compensations, Bonaparte explained to the Elector with masterly clearness that such a step would be fatal to the interests of his house. It is no wonder that the princes spontaneously appealed to him, for an eye so clear, a hand so firm, a judgement so prompt, were not to be found in Germany. With serene self-confidence the French Foreign Office was prepared for the emergency, and had drawn up a plan of compensation immediately after the signature of the Treaty of Lunéville. In the Franco-Russian note presented to the Diet the two mediating powers explained their position. They had been compelled to act by the delays and divisions of Germany; they were 'perfectly disinterested'; they would proceed with 'rigorous impartiality.' Their joint object was so to arrange the compensations as to 'establish the equilibrium which existed before the war between the principal houses of Germany.' . . . The secular princes, eager for the spoils of the Church, sent their envoys to Paris to treat with Talleyrand, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, who handled the map of Germany with a freedom little short of being complete. The base obsequiousness of the German envoys was only equalled by the timorous

greed of their impatient masters, and the favours of the First Consul were supplicated in terms that would not have been exceeded for abjectness in Byzantium. The house of Talleyrand became the mart in which so many square miles, peopled by so many souls, could be acquired for so many snuffboxes, and so many francs, and so many attentions to Madame Talleyrand's poodle. Princes and dukes, princesses and duchesses, paid huge sums to be comprehended in the indemnities. Some of the money was intercepted by swindling agents: much found its way into the long purse of Talleyrand, whose enormous fortune was largely built out of the complimentary gifts which he received for his services upon this occasion. The First Consul wisely kept himself aloof from the open traffic, but behind the scenes he was scheming restlessly. . . . To isolate Austria; to satisfy Prussia so far as possible and to attach her to France, without permitting her to extend over the centre of Germany or in the direction of the French frontier; to make separate treaties with the small princes; to build up the secondary States of Germany, such as Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, into a buffer against the House of Hapsburg; and in all this to make such concessions to Russia as might flatter her pride without in the least impairing the interests of France,—these were the main ideas of his policy. Everything did not fall out exactly as Bonaparte would have wished. He would have given Mecklenburg to Prussia, and transplanted the two Houses of Schwerin and Strelitz to Franconia. By such an arrangement the Hohenzollerns would have been prevented from obtaining their compensations either in the centre or in the west of Germany. They would be thrown northward and burdened with a large tract of barren and backward plain, their weight in European affairs would not be increased, and their political interest would shift from the Main and the Rhine to the Baltic. The two dukes, however, proud of their ancient Slavonic descent, refused to move, and even had they consented, Russia would probably have opposed the exchange. But the main objects of the First Consul's policy were attained. Prussian compensations lay partly in the west—Westphalian abbeys and bishoprics—and partly in the centre, Erfurt and Eichsfeld. The coveted Baireuth and Würzburg went, not to Prussia (as she had hoped), but to Bavaria. Separate treaties were signed with Baden, Würtemberg, and Hesse-Cassel, promising each territorial gains and the Electoral dignity. Osnabrück was to go to Hanover, the old Duchy of Westphalia to Darmstadt; a new ecclesiastical Electorate at Aschaffenburg was designed for Dalberg, Coadjutor of Mainz: the number of free towns was to be reduced from fifty-two to eight. All this was done by a series of separate treaties and conventions between France on the one hand, and the German princes or towns on the other. These treaties and conventions made up the French plan, which, having received Russia's assent, was presented to the Diet, accompanied by the insulting but necessary provision that it must be accepted in two months. Still further to emphasize the nullity of that ancient body, France authorized her clients to occupy provisionally the territories assigned to them. The speed with which this authorization was acted on was the reverse of edifying, and gave rise to much legitimate outcry. Meanwhile the peace Deputation of the Diet pursued its examination of the Franco-Russian plan amidst a storm of recriminations from all who believed themselves injured. The Deputation, to save its own dignity, wished to approve the acceptance of the act of

indemnity *en bloc*, while reserving to itself the power to make necessary amendments. But Bonaparte refused to accept a resolution that might have opened the way to insidious changes, and, so long as the Peace of Amiens lasted, he held out against any modification of his plan. But the outbreak of the war with England, and a coolness with Russia, made him disposed to be more accommodating to Austria, who had the most powerful reasons for being discontented with the Franco-Russian plan. Concessions were made to Francis, who withdrew his opposition, and on February 25, 1803, the Diet began to discuss the amended plan. Their decree ratifying the territorial changes proposed by France and Russia changed the face and the structure of Germany. The number of German States was reduced by about one-half by the absorption of the ecclesiastical principalities, in itself a great and salutary simplification. The old organization of the Circles was completely broken up. Of the fifty-two free towns six finally remained: Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Frankfort, Augsburg, Nuremberg. Of the three ecclesiastical Electors, one only survived, and he was transplanted from Mainz to Ratisbon, and endowed with an artificially constructed state and revenue composed of the Bishopric and Principality of Ratisbon, the town and county of Wetzlar, the Principality of Aschaffenburg, and a charge of 600,000 florins on the Rhenish octroi. The Grand Masters of the Teutonic Order and of the Order of St. John represented all that was left of the thirty-four ecclesiastical votes in the Diet. In the College of Princes the majority passed from the Catholics to the Protestants, from the south to the north, from the party of Austria to the party of Prussia. In the distribution of territory the claims of the small princes and knights—the Austrian garrison in the west—were either wholly or partially disregarded. All the distinctive features of the Holy Roman Empire were in fact either modified or completely obliterated. The Emperor, whose prestige had been already shattered by the French victories, was forced to look on while Bonaparte and his Russian ally arranged the map of Germany to suit their convenience. While the ascendancy of the Hapsburg House received a fatal blow by the weakening of the Catholic element of the Diet, by the destruction of the ecclesiastical principalities, by the surrender of the interests of the knights and smaller princes, but above all by the strengthening of Prussia and the intermediate powers, Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg, the disappearance of most of the free towns, and of all the ecclesiastical principalities save one, showed that Germany was at last nearing the end of her mediæval constitution. The whole internal balance of power was in fact overturned. Prussia, which had only lost Cleves, Meurs, Guelders, some cantons in Frisia, and some customs on the Meuse and the Rhine, received territories which in population and area were three times and in revenue four times as considerable as those which she had been compelled to relinquish. She was awarded the Westphalian Bishoprics of Hildesheim and Paderborn, the town and part of the Bishopric of Münster (one of the richest sees in Germany), six Westphalian abbeys, Erfurt and the Thuringian territories which had belonged to the See of Mainz, and the free towns of Mülhausen, Nordhausen, and Goslar. Nor was this all. A small State, containing a population of one hundred and twenty-six thousand souls, was created for the Stadtholder of Holland out of the Bishoprics of Fulda and Corvey, the imperial town of Dortmund and three scattered abbeys, and destined to revert

to the Prussian crown in the event of the extinction of the Orange line. Bavaria obtained even greater favours. While she had lost in the Duchy of Deux-Ponts and other scattered principalities and possessions on the left bank 580,000 inhabitants and 4,000,000 florins, she was now presented with 854,000 inhabitants and a revenue of 6,607,000 florins. But these figures only inadequately represent the value of her new possessions. She acquired the better part of the Bishopric of Würzburg, and the whole of the Bishopric of Bamberg, two of the richest and most civilized territories in Germany. She obtained the Bishoprics of Freising and Augsburg, part of the Bishopric of Passau, the Priory of Kempten, twelve abbeys, and seventeen free towns. Instead of being scattered in widely dispersed fragments and studded with municipal and ecclesiastical *enclaves*, Bavaria was not a compact and continuous State, nor was it a slight advantage that her territory with its poor and backward population should be united to others which had long felt the stimulus of energetic and enlightened rule. Baden, which had lost about 25,000 inhabitants and 240,000 florins on the left bank, received benefits on a similar scale from France. She gained the Bishopric of Constance, together with the territories on the right bank which were formerly attached to the Sees of Spire, Strasburg, and Basle, the towns of Heidelberg and Mannheim, ten abbeys, seven free towns, and other possessions, in all 237,000 inhabitants and 1,500,000 florins, or about ten times as much as she had lost. In addition to this the Grand Duke of Baden received the Electoral hat. The Duke of Würtemberg and the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel were likewise made Electors and obtained large territorial acquisitions. Hesse-Darmstadt, for the loss of 40,000 subjects, was recompensed by the gain of three times as many. Hanover received the Bishopric of Osnabrück; Mecklenburg a claim on the octroi of the Rhine. The recipients of these favours were under no delusions as to the source from which they were derived. They had bargained for them in Paris, and it was well understood that the consent of the Reich was a pure formality. For the two years during which the compensations were being discussed, the influence of Bonaparte was predominant in Germany, veiled though it was under diplomatic fictions. The princes who sent their ambassadors to Paris, and their back-sheesh to Talleyrand, were in reality doing their first acts of obedience to the new Charlemagne. Silently but surely the bases of a new Germanic Confederation were being laid, a confederation which looked not to Austria but to France for leadership, protection, and (we must add) for plunder. The externals of the Empire indeed still existed—the Diet at Ratisbon, the Court of Wetzlar, the Electoral hats. But no one respected them, no one cared when they were to go or how soon, except a handful of interested or disinterested pedants. The German Revolution had not been accomplished without exciting passions, but they were the passions of envy and greed. It had helped to consolidate and to unify Germany, to make its structure more reasonable and more modern. But it had not excited enthusiasm, it had not kindled a spark of patriotism, it had not even fired the imagination of intellectual men as something tending to higher things. The people of Germany had no part in this revolution. The guns of Marengo and Austerlitz gave the signal for it; Russia and France presided over its course: the fruits of the change were enjoyed not by the people but by the despots who ruled them. Its

first result was to enslave Germany to France."—H. A. L. Fisher, *Studies in Napoleonic statesmanship: Germany*, pp. 38-46.

1803.—Bonaparte's seizure of Hanover in his war with England. See FRANCE: 1802-1804.

1805 (January-April). — Third coalition against France.—Prussian neutrality. See FRANCE: 1805 (January-April).

1805 (September-December). — Napoleon's overwhelming campaign.—Catastrophes at Ulm and Austerlitz. See AUSTRIA: 1798-1806; FRANCE: 1805 (March-December).

1805-1806.—Peace of Pressburg.—Territorial losses of Austria.—Aggrandizement of Bavaria and Würtemberg, which become kingdoms, and Baden a grand duchy.—Confederation of the Rhine.—End of the Holy Roman empire.—Prussian renaissance.—"On the 6th of December, hostilities ceased, and the Russians retired by way of Galicia, but in accordance with the terms of the armistice, the French troops continued to occupy all the lands they had invaded, Austria, Tyrol, Venetia, Carniola, Carinthia, and Styria; within Bohemia they were to have the circle of Tabor, together with Brno [Brünn] and Znoymo [Znaim] in Moravia and Pozsony (Pressburg) in Hungary. The Morava (March) and the Hungarian frontier formed the line of demarcation between the two armies. A definitive peace was signed at Pressburg on the 26th of December, 1805. Austria recognized the conquests of France in Holland and Switzerland and the annexation of Genoa, and ceded to the kingdom of Italy Friuli, Istria, Dalmatia with its islands, and the Bocche di Cattaro. A little later, by the explanatory Act of Fontainebleau, she lost the last of her possessions to the west of the Isonzo, when she exchanged those portions of the counties of Gorico and Gradisca which are situated on the right bank of that river for the county of Montefalcone in Istria. The new kingdoms of Bavaria and Würtemberg [brought into existence by this treaty, through the recognition of them by the Emperor Francis] were aggrandized at the expense of Austria. Bavaria obtained Vorarlberg, the county of Hohenems, the town of Lindau, and the whole of Tyrol, with Brixen and Trent. Austrian Swabia was given to Würtemberg, while Breisgau and the Ortenau were bestowed on the new grand-duke of Baden. One compensation alone, the duchy of Salzburg, fell to Austria for all her sacrifices, and this has remained in her possession ever since. The old bishopric of Würzburg was created an electorate and granted to Ferdinand III. of Tuscany and Salzburg. Altogether the monarchy lost about 25,400 square miles and nearly 3,000,000 of inhabitants. She lost Tyrol with its brave and loyal inhabitants and the Vorländer which had assured Austrian influence in Germany; every possession on the Rhine, in the Black Forest, and on the Lower Danube; she no longer touched either Switzerland or Italy, and she ceased to be a maritime power. Besides all this, she had to pay forty millions for the expenses of the war, while she was exhausted by contributions and requisitions. Vienna had suffered much, and the French army had carried off the 2,000 cannons and the 100,000 guns which had been contained in her arsenals. On the 16th of January, 1806, the emperor Francis returned to his capital. He was enthusiastically received, and the Viennese returned to the luxurious and easy way of life which has always characterized them. . . . Austria seemed no longer to have any part to play in German politics. Bavaria, Würtemberg and Baden had been formed into a separate league—the Confederation

of the Rhine—under French protection. On the 1st of August, 1806, these states announced to the Reichstag at Ratisbon that they looked upon the empire as at an end, and on the 6th, Francis II. formally resigned the empire altogether, and released all the imperial officials from their engagements to him. Thus the sceptre of Charlemagne fell from the hands of the dynasty which had held it without interruption from 1438."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 25.—"Every bond of union was dissolved with the diet of the empire and with the imperial chamber. The barons and counts of the empire and the petty princes were mediatised; the princes of Hohenlohe, Oettingen, Schwarzenberg, Thurn and Taxis, the Truchsess von Waldburg, Fürstenberg, Fugger, Leiningen, Löwenstein, Solms, Hesse-Homburg, Wied-Runkel, and Orange-Fulda, became subject to the neighbouring Rhenish confederated princes. Of the remaining six imperial free cities, Augsburg and Nüremberg fell to Bavaria; Frankfurt, under the title of grand-duchy, to the ancient elector of Mayence, who was again transferred thither from Ratisbon. The ancient Hansetowns, Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen, alone retained their freedom."—W. Menzel, *History of Germany*, v. 3, ch. 253.—"A swift succession of triumphs had left only one thing still preventing the full recognition of the Corsican warrior as sovereign of Western Europe, and that one was the existence of the old Romano-Germanic Empire. Napoleon had not long assumed his new title when he began to mark a distinction between 'la France' and 'l'Empire Française.' France had, since 1792, advanced to the Rhine, and, by the annexation of Piedmont, had overstepped the Alps; the French Empire included, besides the kingdom of Italy, a mass of dependent states, Naples, Holland, Switzerland, and many German principalities, the allies of France in the same sense in which the 'socii populi Romani' were allies of Rome. When the last of Pitt's coalitions had been destroyed at Austerlitz, and Austria had made her submission by the peace of Pressburg, the conqueror felt that his hour was come. He had now overcome two Emperors, those of Austria and Russia, claiming to represent the old and new Rome respectively, and had in eighteen months created more kings than the occupants of the Germanic throne in as many centuries. It was time, he thought, to sweep away obsolete pretensions, and claim the sole inheritance of that Western Empire, of which the titles and ceremonies of his court presented a grotesque imitation. The task was an easy one after what had been already accomplished. Previous wars and treaties had so redistributed the territories and changed the constitution of the Germanic Empire that it could hardly be said to exist in anything but name. . . . The Emperor Francis, partly foreboding the events that were at hand, partly in order to meet Napoleon's assumption of the imperial name by depriving that name of its peculiar meaning, began in A.D. 1805 to style himself 'Hereditary Emperor of Austria,' while retaining at the same time his former title. The next act of the drama was one in which we may more readily pardon the ambition of a foreign conqueror than the traitorous selfishness of the German princes, who broke every tie of ancient friendship and duty to grovel at his throne. By the Act of the Confederation of the Rhine, signed at Paris, July 12th, 1806, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and several other states, sixteen in all, withdrew from the body and repudiated the laws of the Empire, while on August 1st the French envoy at Regensburg an-

nounced to the Diet that his master, who had consented to become Protector of the Confederate princes, no longer recognized the existence of the Empire. Francis II. resolved at once to anticipate this new Odoacer, and by a declaration, dated August 6th, 1806, resigned the imperial dignity. His deed states that finding it impossible, in the altered state of things, to fulfil the obligations imposed by his capitulation, he considers as dissolved the bonds which attached him to the Germanic body, releases from their allegiance the states who formed it, and retires to the government of his hereditary dominions under the title of 'Emperor of Austria.' Throughout, the term 'German Empire' (Deutsches Reich) is employed. But it was the crown of Augustus, of Constantine, of Charles, of Maximilian, that Francis of Hapsburg laid down, and a new era in the world's history was marked by the fall of its most venerable institution. One thousand and six years after Leo the Pope had crowned the Frankish king, eighteen hundred and fifty-eight years after Cæsar had conquered at Pharsalia, the Holy Roman Empire came to its end."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 20.—"The combined influence of the ideas of 1798 and of the Great War which followed their proclamation produced two concrete results in Germany of incalculable importance—the one of a negative, the other of a positive character. The first was the destruction of the political framework of the country. The proved weakness of the Empire in the war, and the desertion of Prussia and the north at the height of the struggle, and the collapse of the Ecclesiastical Electorates, left no attentive observer in doubt that the old firm was in liquidation. No ambitious and aggressive State could have wished for a neighbour less fitted by its traditions and institutions to parry the thrust of its conquering sword. Well might Napoleon write to the Directory from Rastadt: 'If the Germanic Body did not exist, we should have to create it expressly for our own convenience.' When the left bank of the Rhine was annexed to the French Republic; Görres wrote his celebrated Obituary. 'On December 30, 1797, at three in the afternoon, The Holy Roman Empire, supported by the Sacraments, passed away peacefully at Regensburg at the age of 955, in consequence of senile debility and an apoplectic stroke. The deceased was born at Verdun in the year 842, and educated at the court of Charles the Simple and his successors. The young prince was taught piety by the Popes who canonised him in his life time. But his tendency to a sedentary life, combined with zeal for religion, undermined his health. His head became visibly weaker, till at last he went mad in the Crusades. Frequent bleedings and careful diet restored him; but, reduced to a shadow, the invalid tottered through the centuries till violent hemorrhage occurred in the Thirty Years' War. Hardly had he recovered when the French arrived, and a stroke put an end to his sufferings. He kept himself unstained by the Aufklarung, and bequeathed the left bank of the Rhine to the French Republic.' Görres was right. The Empire was not buried till 1805, but it was slain by the Revolution. It perished unwept, unhonored, unsung, and its ghost had to be laid before Germany could be reborn. . . . The second great concrete result of the Revolution, was the renaissance of Prussia; but it was not until the débâcle of 1806 that her rulers began to realize that they must learn lessons from their terrible neighbour. . . . Among the counsellors of Frederick William II and his successor were men like Mencken and Lombard, who desired the ap-

plication of French principles in diluted form; and young Custine pronounced Struensee as much a partisan of French Revolution as a Russian Minister could be. But they were not statesmen of the first rank, and they never seriously attempted to carry out the changes which they knew to be necessary. The hour of reform arrived when the logic of the stricken field had revealed the need of building from the depths, and when men of ability and resolution received the reluctant permission of the monarch to carry out some of the most essential tasks. France had shown how to develop and apply the latent strength and capacity of a nation; and the grandeur of her achievement impressed even those who staggered under her blows."—G. P. Gooche, *Germany and the French Revolution*, pp. 515-516, 518, 534.—See also AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

1806 (January-August).—Confederation of the Rhine.—Cession of Hanover to Prussia.—Double dealing and weakness of the latter.—Her submission to Napoleon's insults and wrongs.—Final goading of the nation to war.—"The object at which all French politicians had aimed since the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, the exclusion of both Austria and Prussia from influence in Western Germany, was now completely attained. The triumph of French statesmanship, the consummation of two centuries of German discord, was seen in the Act of Federation subscribed by the Western German Sovereigns in the summer of 1806. By this Act the Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, the Elector of Baden, and 13 minor princes, united themselves, in the League known as the Rhenish Confederacy, under the protection of the French Emperor, and undertook to furnish contingents, amounting to 63,000 men, in all wars in which the French Empire should engage. Their connection with the ancient Germanic Body was completely severed; the very town in which the Diet of the Empire had held its meetings was annexed by one of the members of the Confederacy. The Confederacy itself, with a population of 8,000,000, became for all purposes of war and foreign policy a part of France. Its armies were organised by French officers; its frontiers were fortified by French engineers; its treaties were made for it at Paris. In the domestic changes which took place within these States the work of consolidation begun in 1801 was carried forward with increased vigour. Scores of tiny principalities which had escaped dissolution in the earlier movement were now absorbed by their stronger neighbours. . . . With the establishment of the Rhenish Confederacy and the conquest of Naples, Napoleon's empire reached, but did not overpass, the limits within which the sovereignty of France might probably have been long maintained. . . . If we may judge from the feeling with which Napoleon was regarded in Germany down to the middle of the year 1806, and in Italy down to a much later date, the Empire then founded might have been permanently upheld, if Napoleon had abstained from attacking other States." During the winter of 1806, Count Haugwitz, the Prussian minister, had visited Paris "for the purpose of obtaining some modification in the treaty which he had signed [at the palace of Schönbrunn, near Vienna] on behalf of Prussia after the battle of Austerlitz. The principal feature in that treaty had been the grant of Hanover to Prussia by the French Emperor in return for its alliance. This was the point which above all others excited King Frederick William's fears and scruples. He desired to acquire Hanover, but he also desired to derive



his title rather from its English owner [King George III, who was also elector of Hanover] than from its French invader. It was the object of Haugwitz' visit to Paris to obtain an alteration in the terms of the treaty which should make the Prussian occupation of Hanover appear to be merely provisional, and reserve to the King of England at least a nominal voice in its ultimate transfer. In full confidence that Napoleon would agree to such a change, the King of Prussia, on taking possession of Hanover in January, 1806, concealed the fact of its cession to himself by Napoleon, and published an untruthful proclamation. . . . The bitter truth that the treaty between France and Prussia contained no single word reserving the rights of the Elector, and that the very idea of qualifying the absolute cession of Hanover was an afterthought, lay hidden in the conscience of the Prussian Government. Never had a Government more completely placed itself at the mercy of a pitiless enemy. Count Haugwitz, on reaching Paris, was received by Napoleon with a storm of indignation and contempt. Napoleon declared that the ill-faith of Prussia had made an end even of that miserable pact which had been extorted after Austerlitz, and insisted that Prussia should openly defy Great Britain by closing the ports of Northern Germany to British vessels, and by declaring itself endowed by Napoleon with Hanover in virtue of Napoleon's own right of conquest. Haugwitz signed a second and more humiliating treaty [February 15] embodying these conditions; and the Prussian Government, now brought into the depths of contempt, but unready for immediate war, executed the orders of its master. . . . A decree was published excluding the ships of England from the ports of Prussia and from those of Hanover itself (March 28, 1806). It was promptly followed by the seizure of 400 Prussian vessels in British harbours, and by the total extinction of Prussian maritime commerce by British privateers. Scarcely was Prussia committed to this ruinous conflict with Great Britain when Napoleon opened negotiations for peace with Mr. Fox's Government. The first condition required by Great Britain was the restitution of Hanover to King George III. It was unhesitatingly granted by Napoleon. Thus was Prussia to be mocked of its prey, after it had been robbed of all its honour. . . . There was scarcely a courtier in Berlin who did not feel that the yoke of the French had become past endurance; even Haugwitz himself now considered war as a question of time. The patriotic party in the capital and the younger officers of the army bitterly denounced the dishonoured Government, and urged the King to strike for the credit of his country. . . . Brunswick was summoned to the King's council to form plans of a campaign; and appeals for help were sent to Vienna, to St. Petersburg, and even to the hostile Court of London. The condition of Prussia at this critical moment was one which filled with the deepest alarm those few patriotic statesmen who were not blinded by national vanity or by a slavery to routine. . . . Early in the year 1806 a paper was drawn up by Stein, exposing, in language seldom used by a statesman, the character of the men by whom Frederick William was surrounded, and declaring that nothing but a speedy change of system could save the Prussian State from utter downfall and ruin. Two measures of immediate necessity were specified by Stein, the establishment of a responsible council of Ministers, and the removal of Haugwitz and all his friends from power. . . . The army of Prussia . . . was nothing but the army of

Frederick the Great grown twenty years older. . . . All Southern Germany was still in Napoleon's hands. The appearance of a Russian force in Dalmatia, after that country had been ceded by Austria to the French Emperor, had given Napoleon an excuse for maintaining his troops in their positions beyond the Rhine. As the probability of a war with Prussia became greater and greater, Napoleon tightened his grasp upon the Confederate States. Publications originating among the patriotic circles of Austria were beginning to appeal to the German people to unite against a foreign oppressor. An anonymous pamphlet, entitled 'Germany in its Deep Humiliation,' was sold by various booksellers in Bavaria, among others by Palm, a citizen of Nuremberg. There is no evidence that Palm was even acquainted with the contents of the pamphlet; but . . . Napoleon . . . required a victim to terrify those who, among the German people, might be inclined to listen to the call of patriotism. Palm was not too obscure for the new Charlemagne. The innocent and unoffending man, innocent even of the honourable crime of attempting to save his country, was dragged before a tribunal of French soldiers, and executed within twenty-four hours of his trial, in pursuance of the imperative orders of Napoleon (August 26). . . . Several years later, . . . the story of Palm's death was one of those that kindled the bitterest sense of wrong; at the time, it exercised no influence upon the course of political events. Prussia had already resolved upon war."—C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 1, ch. 6-7.

ALSO IN: W. Scott, *Life of Napoleon*, ch. 51-52.

—J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 4-5.—P. Lanfrey, *History of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 15.

1806 (October).—Napoleon's sudden invasion of Prussia.—Decisive battle of Jena.—Prostration of the Prussian kingdom.—"The Emperor of Russia . . . visited Berlin, when the feelings of Prussia, and indeed of all the neighbouring states, were in this fever of excitement. He again urged Frederick William to take up arms in the common cause, and offered to back him with all the forces of his own great empire. The English government, taking advantage of the same crisis, sent Lord Morpeth to Berlin, with offers of pecuniary supplies—about the acceptance of which, however, the anxiety of Prussia on the subject of Hanover created some difficulty. Lastly, Buonaparte, well informed of what was passing in Berlin, and desirous, since war must be, to hurry Frederick into the field ere the armies of the Czar could be joined with his, now poured out in the 'Moniteur' such abuse on the persons and characters of the Queen, Prince Louis, and every illustrious patriot throughout Prussia, that the general wrath could no longer be held in check. Warlike preparations of every kind filled the kingdom during August and September. On the 1st of October the Prussian minister at Paris presented a note to Talleyrand, demanding, among other things, that the formation of a confederacy in the north of Germany should no longer be thwarted by French interference, and that the French troops within the territories of the Rhenish League should recross the Rhine into France, by the 8th of the same month of October. But Napoleon was already in person on the German side of the Rhine; and his answer to the Prussian note was a general order to his own troops, in which he called on them to observe in what manner a German sovereign still dared to insult the soldiers of Austerlitz. The conduct of Prussia, in thus rushing into hostilities without waiting for

the advance of the Russians, was as rash as her holding back from Austria during the campaign of Austerlitz had been cowardly. As if determined to profit by no lesson, the Prussian council also directed their army to advance towards the French, instead of lying on their own frontier—a repetition of the great leading blunder of the Austrians in the preceding year. The Prussian army accordingly invaded the Saxon provinces, and the Elector . . . was compelled to accept the alliance which the cabinet of Berlin urged on him, and to join his troops with those of the power by which he had been thus insulted and wronged. No sooner did Napoleon know that the Prussians had advanced into the heart of Saxony, than he formed the plan of his campaign; and they, persisting in their advance, and taking up their position finally on the Saale, afforded him, as if studiously, the means of repeating, at their expense, the very manœuvres which had ruined the Austrians in the preceding campaign." The flank of the Prussian position was turned,—the bridge across the Saale, at Saalfeld, having been secured, after a hot engagement with the corps of Prince Louis of Prussia who fell in the fight,—“the French army passed entirely round them; Napoleon seized Naumburg and blew up the magazines there,—announcing, for the first time, by this explosion, to the King of Prussia and his generalissimo the Duke of Brunswick, that he was in their rear. From this moment the Prussians were isolated, and cut off from all their resources, as completely as the army of Mack was at Ulm, when the French had passed the Danube and overrun Suabia. The Duke of Brunswick hastily endeavoured to concentrate his forces for the purpose of cutting his way back again to the frontier which he had so rashly abandoned. Napoleon, meantime, had posted his divisions so as to watch the chief passages of the Saale, and expected, in confidence, the assault of his outwitted opponent. It was now that he found leisure to answer the manifesto of Frederick William. . . . His letter, dated at Gera, is written in the most elaborate style of insult. . . . The Prussian King understood well, on learning the fall of Naumburg, the imminent danger of his position; and his army was forthwith set in motion, in two great masses; the former, where he was in person present, advancing towards Naumburg; the latter attempting, in like manner, to force their passage through the French line in the neighbourhood of Jena. The King's march was arrested at Auerstädt by Davoust [Davout], who, after a severely contested action, at length repelled the assailant. Napoleon himself, meanwhile, was engaged with the other great body of the Prussians. Arriving on the evening of the 13th October at Jena, he perceived that the enemy were ready to attempt the advance next morning, while his own heavy train was still six-and-thirty hours' march in his rear. Not discouraged with this adverse circumstance, the Emperor laboured all night in directing and encouraging his soldiery to cut a road through the rocks, and draw up by that means such light guns as he had at command to a position on a lofty plateau in front of Jena, where no man could have expected beforehand that any artillery whatever should be planted. . . . Lannes commanded the centre, Augereau the right, Soult the left, and Murat the reserve and cavalry. Soult had to sustain the first assault of the Prussians, which was violent—and sudden; for the mist lay so thick on the field that the armies were within half-gunshot of each other ere the sun and wind rose and discovered them, and on that instant Mollendorf charged. The battle was contested well

for some time on this point; but at length Ney appeared in the rear of the Emperor with a fresh division; and then the French centre advanced to a general charge, before which the Prussians were forced to retire. They moved for some space in good order; but Murat now poured his masses of cavalry on them, storm after storm, with such rapidity and vehemence that their rout became inevitable. It ended in the complete breaking up of the army—horse and foot all flying together, in the confusion of panic, upon the road to Weimar. At that point the fugitives met and mingled with their brethren flying, as confusedly as themselves, from Auerstadt. In the course of this disastrous day 20,000 Prussians were killed or taken, 300 guns, 20 generals, and 60 standards. The Commander-in-Chief, the Duke of Brunswick, being wounded in the face with a grape-shot, was carried early off the field, never to recover. . . . The various routed divisions roamed about the country, seeking separately the means of escape: they were in consequence destined to fall an easy prey. . . . The Prince of Hohenlohe at length drew together not less than 50,000 of these wandering soldiers, and retreated towards the Oder; but was forced, in the end, to lay down his arms at Prentzlow. “His rear, consisting of about 10,000, under the command of the celebrated General Blücher, was so far behind as to render it possible for them to attempt escape. Their heroic leader traversed the country with them for some time unbroken, and sustained a variety of assaults, from far superior numbers, with the most obstinate resolution. By degrees, however, the French, under Soult, hemmed him in on one side, Murat on the other, and Bernadotte appeared close behind him. He was thus forced to throw himself into Lübeck, where a severe action was fought in the streets of the town, on the 6th of November. The Prussian, in this battle, lost 4,000 prisoners, besides the slain and wounded: he retreated to Schwerta, and there, it being impossible for him to go farther without violating the neutrality of Denmark, on the morning of the 7th, Blücher at length laid down his arms. . . . The strong fortresses of the Prussian monarchy made as ineffectual resistance as the armies in the field. . . . Buonaparte, in person, entered Berlin on the 25th of October; and before the end of November, except Königsberg—where the King himself had found refuge, and gathered round him a few thousand troops— . . . and a few less important fortresses, the whole of the German possessions of the house of Brandenburg were in the hands of the conqueror. Louis Buonaparte, King of Holland, meanwhile had advanced into Westphalia and occupied that territory also, with great part of Hanover, East Friesland, Emden, and the dominions of Hesse-Cassel.”—J. G. Lockhart, *Life of Napoleon*, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: C. Adams, *Great campaigns in Europe from 1796 to 1870*, ch. 4.—Baron Jomini, *Life of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 9.—*Memoirs of Napoleon dictated at St. Helena*, v. 6, pp. 60-72.—A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 10, ch. 43.—Duke de Rovigo, *Memoirs*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 21-23.

1806 (October-December).—Napoleon's ungenerous use of his victory.—His insults to the queen of Prussia.—Kingdom governed as conquered territory.—French advance into Poland, to meet the Russians.—Saxony made a kingdom.—“Napoleon made a severe and ungenerous use of his victory. The old Duke of Brunswick, respectable from his age, his achievements under the Great Frederick, and the honourable wounds he had recently received on the field of battle,

and who had written a letter to Napoleon, after the battle of Jena, recommending his subjects to his generosity, was in an especial manner the object of invective. His states were overrun, and the official bulletins disgraced by a puerile tirade against a general who had done nothing but discharge his duty to his sovereign. For this he was punished by the total confiscation of his dominions. So virulent was the language employed, and such the apprehensions in consequence inspired, that the wounded general was compelled, with great personal suffering, to take refuge in Altona, where he soon after died. The Queen, whose spirit in prosperous and constancy in adverse fortune had justly endeared her to her subjects, and rendered her the admiration of all Europe, was pursued in successive bulletins with unmanly sarcasms; and a heroic princess, whose only fault, if fault it was, had been an excess of patriotic ardour, was compared to Helen, whose faithless vices had involved her country in the calamities consequent on the siege of Troy. The whole dominions of the Elector of Hesse Cassel were next seized; and that prince, who had not even combated at Jena, but merely permitted, when he could not prevent, the entry of the Prussians into his dominions, was dethroned and deprived of all his possessions. . . . The Prince of Orange, brother-in-law to the King of Prussia, . . . shared the same fate: while to the nobles of Berlin he used publicly the cruel expression, more withering to his own reputation than theirs,—'I will render that noblesse so poor that they shall be obliged to beg their bread.' . . . Meanwhile the French armies, without any further resistance, took possession of the whole country between the Rhine and the Oder; and in the rear of the victorious bands appeared, in severity unprecedented even in the revolutionary armies, the dismal scourge of contributions. Resolved to maintain the war exclusively on the provinces which were to be its theatre, Napoleon had taken only 24,000 francs in specie across the Rhine in the military chest of the army. It soon appeared from whom the deficiency was to be supplied. On the day after the battle of Jena appeared a proclamation, directing the levy of an extraordinary war contribution of 159,000,000 francs (£6,300,000) on the countries at war with France, of which 100,000,000 was to be borne by the Prussian states to the west of the Vistula, 25,000,000 by the Elector of Saxony [who had already detached himself from his alliance with Prussia], and the remainder by the lesser states in the Prussian confederacy. This enormous burden . . . was levied with unrelenting severity. . . . Nor was this all. The whole civil authorities who remained in the abandoned provinces were compelled to take an oath of fidelity to the French Emperor,—an unprecedented step, which clearly indicated the intention of annexing the Prussian dominions to the great nation. . . . Early in November there appeared an elaborate ordinance, which provided for the complete civil organisation and military occupation of the whole country from the Rhine to the Vistula. By this decree the conquered states were divided into four departments; those of Berlin, of Magdeburg, of Stettin, and of Custrin [Küstrin]; the military and civil government of the whole conquered territory was intrusted to a governor-general at Berlin, having under him eight commanders of provinces into which it was divided. . . . The same system of government was extended to the duchy of Brunswick, the states of Hesse and Hanover, the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the Hanse towns, including

Hamburg, which was speedily oppressed by grievous contributions. . . . The Emperor openly announced his determination to retain possession of all these states till England consented to his demands on the subject of the liberty of the seas. . . . Meanwhile the negotiations for the conclusion of a separate peace between France and Prussia were resumed. . . . The severity of the terms demanded, as well as . . . express assurances that no concessions, how great soever, could lead to a separate accommodation, as Napoleon was resolved to retain all his conquests until a general peace, led, as might have been expected, to the rupture of the negotiations. Desperate as the fortunes of Prussia were, . . . the King . . . declared his resolution to stand or fall with the Emperor of Russia [who was vigorously preparing to fulfil his promise of help to the stricken nation]. This refusal was anticipated by Napoleon. It reached him at Posen, whither he had advanced on his road to the Vistula; and nothing remained but to enter vigorously on the prosecution of the war in Poland. To this period of the war belongs the famous Berlin decree [see FRANCE: 1806-1810] of the 21st November against the commerce of Great Britain. . . . Napoleon . . . at Posen, in Prussian Poland, gave audience to the deputies of that unhappy kingdom, who came to implore his support to the remains of its once mighty dominion. His words were calculated to excite hopes which his subsequent conduct never realised. . . . While the main body of the French army was advancing by rapid strides from the Oder to the Vistula, Napoleon, ever anxious to secure his communications, and clear his rear of hostile bodies, caused two different armies to advance to support the flanks of the invading force. . . . The whole of the north of Germany was overrun by French troops, while 100,000 were assembling to meet the formidable legions of Russia in the heart of Poland. Vast as the forces of Napoleon were, such prodigious efforts, over so great an extent of surface, rendered fresh supplies indispensable. The senate at Paris was ready to furnish them; and on the requisition of the Emperor 80,000 were voted from the youth who were to arrive at the military age in 1807. . . . A treaty, offensive and defensive, between Saxony and France, was the natural result of these successes. This convention, arranged by Talleyrand, was signed at Posen, on the 12th December. It stipulated that the Elector of Saxony should be elevated to the dignity of king; he was admitted into the Confederation of the Rhine, and his contingent fixed at 20,000 men. By a separate article, it was provided that the passage of foreign troops across the kingdom of Saxony should take place without the consent of the sovereign: a provision which sufficiently pointed it out as a military outpost of the great nation—while, by a subsidiary treaty, signed at Posen three days afterwards, the whole minor princes of the House of Saxony were also admitted into the Confederacy."—A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 10, ch. 43, sect. 87-99.

ALSO IN: P. Lanfrey, *History of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 16.—S. Austin, *Germany from 1760 to 1814*, p. 294.—E. H. Hudson, *Life and times of Louisa, queen of Prussia*, v. 2, ch. 8-9.

1806-1807.—Opening of Napoleon's campaign against the Russians.—Deluding of the Poles.—Indecisive battle of Eylau.—The campaign against the Russians "opened early in the winter. The 1st of November, the Russians and French marched towards the Vistula, the former from the Memel, the latter from the Oder. Fifty thousand Russians pressed forward under General Benning-

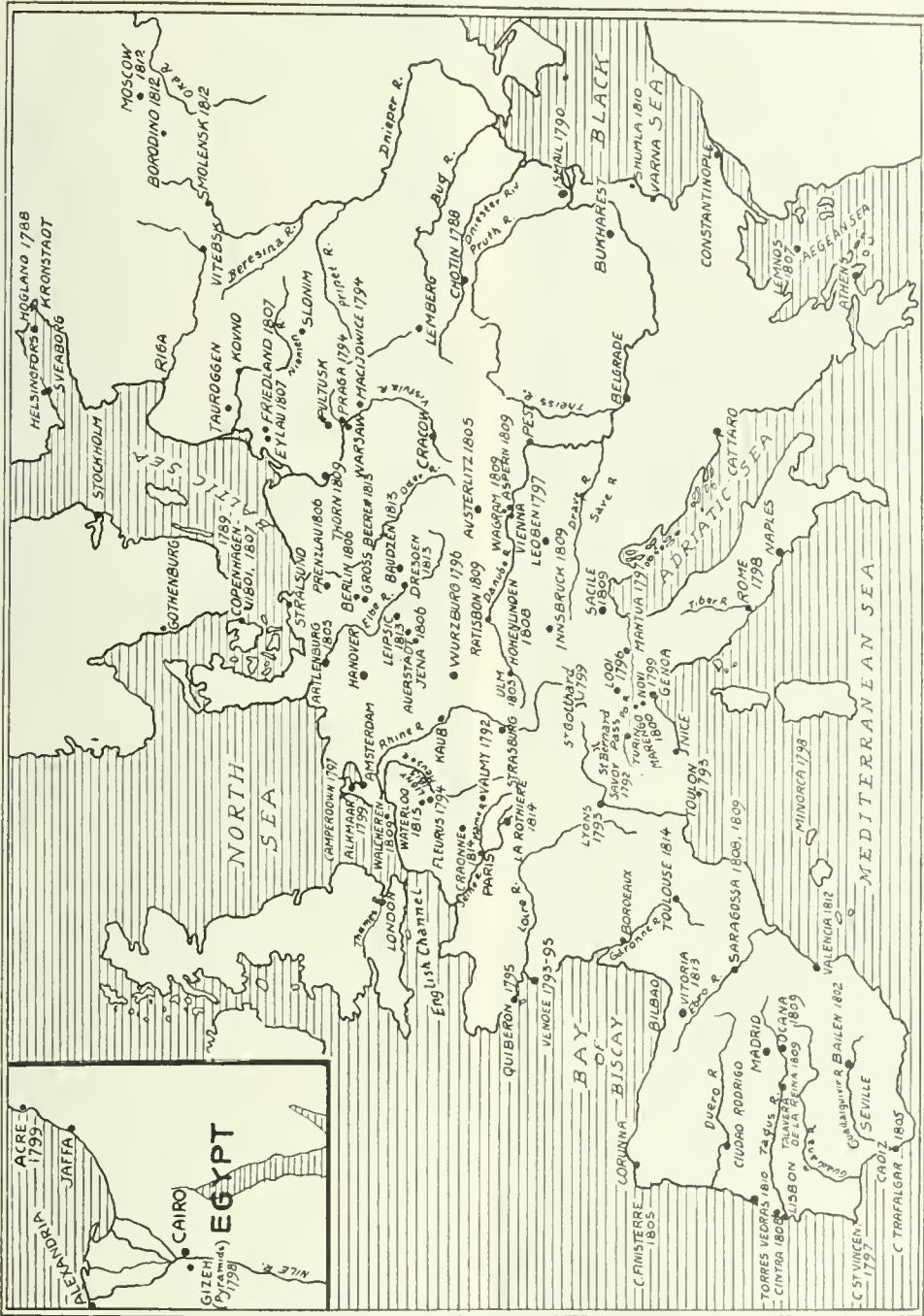
sen; a second and equal army followed at a distance with a reserve force. Some of the Russian forces on the Turkish frontier were recalled, but were still remote. The first two Russian armies, with the remaining Prussians, numbered about 120,000. England made many promises and kept few of them, thinking more of conquering Spanish and Dutch colonies than of helping her allies. Her aid was limited to a small reinforcement of the Swedes guarding Swedish Pomerania, the only portion of Northern Germany not yet in French power. Gustavus II., the young King of Sweden, weak and impulsive, rushed headlong, without a motive, into the . . . alliance [against Napoleon], destined to be so fatal to Sweden. . . . Eighty thousand men under Murat crossed the Oder and entered Prussian Poland, and an equal number stood ready to sustain them. November 9, Davout's division entered Posen, the principal town of the Polish provinces still preserving the national sentiment, and whose people detested Prussian rule and resented the treachery with which Prussia dismembered Poland after swearing alliance with her. All along the road, the peasants hastened to meet the French; and at Posen, Davout was hailed with an enthusiasm which moved even him, cold and severe as he was, and he urged Napoleon to justify the hopes of Poland, who looked to him as her savior. The Russian vanguard reached Warsaw before the French, but made no effort to remain there, and recrossed the Vistula. November 28, Davout and Murat entered the town, and public delight knew no bounds. It would be a mere illusion to fancy that sentiments of right and justice had any share in Napoleon's resolve, and that he was stirred by a desire to repair great wrongs. His only question was whether the resurrection of Poland would increase his greatness or not; and if he told the Sultan that he meant to restore Poland, it was because he thought Turkey would assist him the more willingly against Russia. He also offered part of Silesia to Austria, if she would aid him in the restoration of Poland by the cession of her Polish provinces; but it was not a sufficient offer, and therefore not serious. The truth was that he wanted promises from the Poles before he made any to them. . . . Thousands of Poles enlisted under the French flag and joined the Polish legions left from the Italian war. Napoleon established a provisional government of well-known Poles in Warsaw, and required nothing but volunteers of the country. He had seized without a blow that line of the Vistula which the Prussian king would not barter for a truce, and might have gone into winter-quarters there; but the Russians were close at hand on the opposite shore, in two great divisions 100,000 strong, in a wooded and marshy country forming a sort of triangle, whose point touches the union of the Narew and Ukra rivers with the Vistula, a few leagues below Warsaw. The Russians communicated with the sea by a Prussian corps stationed between them and Dantzic. Napoleon would not permit them to hold this post, and resolved to strike a blow, before going into winter-quarters, which should cut them off from the sea and drive them back towards the Memel and Lithuania. He crossed the Vistula, December 23, and attacked the Russians between the Narew and the Ukra. A series of bloody battles followed [the most important being at Pultusk and Golymin, December 26] in the dense forests and deep bogs of the thawing land. Napoleon said that he had discovered a fifth element in Poland,—mud. Men and horses stuck in the swamp and the cannons could not be extricated. Luckily the Russians were in

the incompetent hands of General Kamenski, and both parties fought in the dark, the labyrinth of swamps and woods preventing either army from guessing the other's movements. The Russians were finally driven, with great loss, beyond the Narew towards the forests of Belostok, and a Prussian corps striving to assist them was driven back to the sea. . . . The grand army did not long enjoy the rest it so much needed; for the Russians, whose losses were more than made up by the arrival of their reserves, suddenly resumed the offensive. General Benningsen, who gave a fearful proof of his sinister energy by the murder of Paul I., had been put in command in Kamenski's place. Marching round the forests and traversing the line of lakes which divide the basin of the Narew from those watercourses flowing directly to the sea, he reached the maritime part of old Prussia, intending to cross the Vistula and drive the French from their position in Poland. He had hoped to surprise the French left wing, lying between the Passarge and Lower Vistula, but arrived too late. Ney and Bernadotte rapidly concentrated their forces and fought with a bravery which arrested the Russians (January 25 and 27). Napoleon came to the rescue, and having once driven the enemy into the woods and marshes of the interior, now strove to turn those who meant to turn him, by an inverse action forcing them to the sea-coast. . . . Benningsen then halted beyond Eylau, and massed his forces to receive battle next day [February 8]. He had about 70,000 men, twice the artillery of Napoleon (400 guns against 200), and hoped to be joined betimes by a Prussian corps. Napoleon could only dispose of 60,000 out of his 300,000 men,—Ney being some leagues away and Bernadotte out of reach. . . . The battlefield was a fearful sight next day. Twelve thousand Russians and 10,000 French lay dying and dead on the vast fields of snow reddened with blood. The Russians, besides, carried off 15,000 wounded. 'What an ineffectual massacre!' cried Ney, as he traversed the scene of carnage. This was too true; for although Napoleon drove the Russians to the sea, it was not in the way he desired. Benningsen succeeded in reaching Königsberg, where he could rest and reinforce his army, and Napoleon was not strong enough to drive him from this last shelter."—H. Martin, *Popular history of France from 1789*, v. 2, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: Baron Jomini, *Life of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 10.—C. Joyneville, *Life and times of Alexander I.*, v. 1, ch. 8.—J. C. Ropes, *First Napoleon*, lect. 3.—Baron de Marbot, *Memoirs*, v. 1, ch. 29-30.

1806-1810.—Commercial blockade by the English orders in council and Napoleon's decrees. See FRANCE: 1806-1810.

1807 (February-June).—Closer alliance of Prussia and Russia.—Treaty of Bartenstein.—Napoleon's victory at Friedland.—End of the campaign.—The effect produced in Europe by the doubtful battle of Eylau "was unlucky for France; in Paris the Funds fell. Benningsen boldly ordered the Te Deum to be sung. In order to confirm his victory, re-organise his army, reassure France, re-establish the opinion of Europe, encourage the Polish insurrection, and to curb the ill-will of Germany and Austria, Napoleon remained a week at Eylau. He negotiated: on one side he caused Talleyrand to write to Zastrow, the Prussian foreign minister, to propose peace and his alliance; he sent Bertrand to Memel to offer to re-establish the King of Prussia, on the condition of no foreign intervention. He also tried to negotiate with Ben-



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nigsen; to which the latter made answer, 'that his master had charged him to fight, and not negotiate.' After some hesitation, Prussia ended by joining her fortunes to those of Russia. By the convention of Bartenstein (25th April, 1807) the two sovereigns came to terms on the following points:—1. The re-establishment of Prussia within the limits of 1805. 2. The dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine. 3. The restitution to Austria of the Tyrol and Venice. 4. The accession of England to the coalition, and the aggrandisement of Hanover. 5. The co-operation of Sweden. 6. The restoration of the house of Orange, and indemnities to the kings of Naples and Sardinia. This document is important; it nearly reproduces the conditions offered to Napoleon at the Congress of Prague, in 1813. Russia and Prussia proposed then to make a more pressing appeal to Austria, Sweden, and England; but the Emperor Francis was naturally undecided, and the Archduke Charles, alleging the state of the finances and the army, strongly advised him against any new intervention. Sweden was too weak; and notwithstanding his fury against Napoleon, Gustavus III. had just been forced to treat with Mortier. The English minister showed a remarkable inability to conceive the situation; he refused to guarantee the new Russian loan of a hundred and fifty millions, and would lend himself to no maritime diversion. Napoleon showed the greatest diplomatic activity. The Sultan Selim III. declared war against Russia; General Sebastiani, the envoy at Constantinople, put the Bosphorus in a state of defence, and repulsed the English fleet [see TURKEY: 1806-1807]; General Gardane left for Ispahan, with a mission to cause a Persian outbreak in the Caucasus. Dantzic had capitulated [May 24, after a long siege], and Lefebvre's 40,000 men were therefore ready for service. Masséna took 36,000 of them into Italy. In the spring, Bennigsen, who had been reinforced by 10,000 regular troops, 6,000 Cossacks, and the Imperial Guard, being now at the head of 100,000 men, took the offensive; Gortchakof commanding the right and Bagration the left. He tried, as in the preceding year, to seize Ney's division; but the latter fought, as he retired, two bloody fights, at Gutstadt and Ankendorff. Bennigsen, again in danger of being surrounded, retired on Heilsberg. He defended himself bravely (June 10); but the French, extending their line on his right, marched on Eylau, so as to cut him off from Königsberg. The Russian generalissimo retreated; but being pressed, he had to draw up at Friedland, on the Alle, with the steep bed of the river at their backs, which in case of misfortune left them only one means of retreat, over the three bridges of Friedland. . . . 'Where are the Russians concealed?' asked Napoleon when he came up. When he had noted their situation, he exclaimed, 'It is not every day that one surprises the enemy in such a fault.' He put Lannes and Victor in reserve, ordered Mortier to oppose Gortchakof on the left and to remain still, as the movement which 'would be made by the right would pivot on the left.' As to Ney, he was to cope on the right with Bagration, who was shut in by the angle of the river; he was to meet them 'with his head down,' without taking any care of his own safety. Ney led the charge with irresistible fury; the Russians were riddled by his artillery at 150 paces: he successively crushed the chasseurs of the Russian Guard, the Ismailovski, and the Horse Guards, burnt Friedland by shells, and cannonaded

the bridges which were the only means of retreat. . . . The Russian left wing was almost thrown into the river; Bagration, with the Semenovski and other troops, was hardly able to cover the defeat. On the Russian right, Gortchakof, who had advanced to attack the immovable Mortier, had only time to ford the Alle. Count Lambert retired with 29 guns by the left bank; the rest fled by the right bank, closely pursued by the cavalry. Meanwhile Murat, Davoust, and Soult, who had taken no part in the battle, arrived before Königsberg. Lestocq, with 25,000 men, tried to defend it, but on learning the disaster of Friedland he hastily evacuated it. Only one fortress now remained to Frederick William—the little town of Memel. The Russians had lost at Friedland from 15,000 to 20,000 men, besides 80 guns (June 14, 1807). . . . Alexander had no longer an army. Only one man, Barclay de Tolly, proposed to continue the war; but in order to do this it would be necessary to re-enter Russia, to penetrate into the very heart of the empire, to burn everything on the way, and only present a desert to the enemy. Alexander hoped to get off more cheaply. He wrote a severe letter to Bennigsen and gave him powers to treat." —A. Rambaud, *History of Russia*, v. 2, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: Duke de Rovigo, *Memoirs*, v. 2, pt. 1, ch. 4-6.

1807 (June-July).—Treaty of Tilsit.—Its known and its unknown agreements.—"Alexander I. now determined to negotiate in person with the rival emperor, and on the 25th of June the two sovereigns met at Tilsit, on a raft which was moored in the middle of the Niemen. The details of the conference are a secret, as Napoleon's subsequent account of it is untrustworthy, and no witnesses were present. All that is certain is that Alexander I., whose character was a curious mixture of nobility and weakness, was completely won over by his conqueror. . . . Napoleon, . . . instead of attempting to impose extreme terms upon a country which it was impossible to conquer, . . . offered to share with Russia the supremacy in Europe which had been won by French arms. The only conditions were the abandonment of the cause of the old monarchies, which seemed hopeless, and an alliance with France against England. Alexander had several grievances against the English government, especially the lukewarm support that had been given in recent operations, and made no objection to resume the policy of his predecessors in this respect. Two interviews sufficed to arrange the basis of an agreement. Both sovereigns abandoned their allies without scruple. Alexander gave up Prussia and Sweden, while Napoleon deserted the cause of the Poles, who had trusted to his zeal for their independence, and of the Turks, whom his envoy had recently induced to make war upon Russia. The Treaty of Tilsit was speedily drawn up; on the 7th of July peace was signed between France and Russia, on the 9th between France and Prussia. Frederick William III. had to resign the whole of his kingdom west of the Elbe, together with all the acquisitions which Prussia had made in the second and third partitions of Poland. The provinces that were left, amounting to barely half of what he had inherited, were burthened with the payment of an enormous sum as compensation to France. The district west of the Elbe was united with Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, and ultimately with Hanover, to form the kingdom of Westphalia, which was given to Napoleon's youngest brother, Jerome. Of Polish Prussia, one province, Bialystock, was added to Russia, and the rest was made into the grand duchy of War-

saw, and transferred to Saxony. Danzig, with the surrounding territory, was declared a free state under Prussian and Saxon protection, but it was really subject to France, and remained a centre of French power on the Baltic. All trade between Prussia and England was cut off. Alexander I., on his side, recognised all Napoleon's new creations in Europe—the Confederation of the Rhine, the kingdoms of Italy, Naples, Holland, and Westphalia, and undertook to mediate between France and England. But the really important agreement between France and Russia was to be found, not in the formal treaties, but in the secret conventions which were arranged by the two emperors. The exact text of these has never been made public, and it is probable that some of the terms rested upon verbal rather than on written understandings, but the general drift of them is unquestionable. The bribe offered to Alexander was the aggrandisement of Russia in the East. To make him an accomplice in the acts of Napoleon, he was to be allowed to annex Finland from Sweden, and Moldavia and Wallachia from Turkey. With regard to England, Russia undertook to adopt Napoleon's blockade-system, and to obtain the adhesion of those states which still remained open to English trade—Sweden, Denmark, and Portugal.”—R. Lodge, *History of modern Europe*, ch. 24, sect. 25.—“‘I thought,’ said Napoleon at St. Helena, ‘it would benefit the world to drive these brutes, the Turks, out of Europe. But when I reflected what power it would give to Russia, from the number of Greeks in the Turkish dominions who may be considered Russians, I refused to consent to it, especially as Alexander wanted Constantinople, which would have destroyed the equilibrium of power in Europe. France would gain Egypt, Syria, and the islands; but those were nothing to what Russia would have obtained.’ This coincides with Savary's [duke de Rovigo's] statement, that Alexander told him Napoleon said he was under no engagements to the new Sultan, and that changes in the world inevitably changed the relations of states to one another; and again, Alexander said that, in their conversations at Tilsit, Napoleon often told him he did not require the evacuation of Moldavia and Wallachia; he would place things in a train to dispense with it, and it was not possible to suffer longer the presence of the Turks in Europe. ‘He even left me,’ said Alexander, ‘to entertain the project of driving them back into Asia. It is only since that he has returned to the idea of leaving Constantinople to them, and some surrounding provinces.’ One day, when Napoleon was talking to Alexander, he asked his secretary, M. Meneval, for the map of Turkey, opened it, then renewed the conversation; and placing his finger on Constantinople said several times to the secretary, though not loud enough to be heard by Alexander, ‘Constantinople, Constantinople, never. It is the capital of the world.’ . . . It is very evident in their conversations that Napoleon agreed to his [Alexander's] possessing himself of the Turkish Empire up to the Balkan, if not beyond; though Bignon denies that any plan for the actual partition of Turkey was embodied in the treaty of Tilsit. Hardenberg, not always well informed, asserts that it was. Savary says he could not believe that Napoleon would have abandoned the Turks without a compensation in some other quarter; and he felt certain Alexander had agreed in return to Napoleon's project for the conquest of Spain, ‘which the Emperor had very much at heart.’”—C. Joyneville, *Life and times of Alexander I*, v. 1, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 10, ch. 46.—M. de Melito, *Memoirs*, ch. 24.—P. Lanfrey, *History of Napoleon*, ch. 3-4.—Prince de Talleyrand, *Memoirs*, v. 1, pt. 3.—A. Thiers, *History of the consulate and the empire*, v. 2, bk. 27.

1807 (July).—Collapse of Prussia and its causes.—“For the five years that followed, Prussia is to be conceived, in addition to all her other humiliations, as in the hands of a remorseless creditor whose claims are decided by himself without appeal, and who wants more than all he can get. She is to be thought of as supporting for more than a year after the conclusion of the Treaty a French army of more than 150,000 men, then as supporting a French garrison in three principal fortresses, and finally, just before the period ends, as having to support the huge Russian expedition in its passage through the country. . . . It was not in fact from the Treaty of Tilsit, but from the systematic breach of it, that the sufferings of Prussia between 1807 and 1813 arose. It is indeed hardly too much to say that the advantage of the Treaty was received only by France, and that the only object Napoleon can have had in signing it was to inflict more harm on Prussia than he could inflict by simply continuing the war. Such was the downfall of Prussia. The tremendousness of the catastrophe strikes us less because we know that it was soon retrieved, and that Prussia rose again and became greater than ever. But could this recovery be anticipated? A great nation, we say, cannot be dissolved by a few disasters; patriotism and energy will retrieve everything. But precisely these seemed wanting. The State seemed to have fallen in pieces because it had no principle of cohesion, and was only held together by an artificial bureaucracy. It had been created by the energy of its government and the efficiency of its soldiers, and now it appeared to come to an end because its government had ceased to be energetic and its soldiers to be efficient. The catastrophe could not but seem as irremediable as it was sudden and complete.” There may be discerned “three distinct causes for it. First, the undecided and pusillanimous policy pursued by the Prussian government since 1803 had an evident influence upon the result by making the great Powers, particularly England and Austria, slow to render it assistance, and also by making the commanders, especially Brunswick, irresolute in action because they could not, even at the last moment, believe the war to be serious. This indecision we have observed to have been connected with a mal-organisation of the Foreign Department. Secondly, the corruption of the military system, which led to the surrender of the fortresses. Thirdly, a misfortune for which Prussia was not responsible, its desertion by Russia at a critical moment, and the formation of a close alliance between Russia and France.”—J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 5.

1807-1808.—Great revolutionary reforms of Hardenberg, Stein and Scharnhorst.—Edict of emancipation.—Military reorganization.—Beginning of local self-government.—Seeds of a new national life.—“The work of those who resisted Napoleon—even if no one of them should ever be placed in the highest class of the benefactors of mankind—has in some cases proved enduring, and nowhere so much as in Germany. They began two great works—the reorganisation of Prussia and the revival of the German nationality, and time has deliberately ratified their views. Without retrogression, without mistake, except the mistake which in such matters is the most venial

that can be committed, that, namely, of over-caution, of excessive hesitation, the edifice which was then founded has been raised higher and higher till it is near completion. . . . Because Frederick-William III. remains quietly seated on the throne through the whole period, we remain totally unaware that a Prussian revolution took place then—a revolution so comprehensive that the old reign and glories of Frederick may fairly be said to belong to another world—to an 'ancien régime' that has utterly passed away. It was a revolution which, though it did not touch the actual framework of government in such a way as to substitute one of Aristotle's forms of government for another, yet went so far beyond government, and made such a transformation both in industry and culture, that it deserves the name of revolution far more, for instance, than our English Revolution



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of the 17th century. . . . In Prussia few of the most distinguished statesmen, few even of those who took the lead in her liberation from Napoleon, were Prussians. Blücher himself began life in the service of Sweden, Scharnhorst was a Hanoverian, so was Hardenberg, and Stein came from Nassau. Niebuhr was enticed to Berlin from the Bank of Copenhagen. Hardenberg served George III. and afterwards the Duke of Brunswick before he entered the service of Frederick-William II.; and when Stein was dismissed by Frederick-William III. in the midst of the war of 1800, though he was a man of property and rank, he took measures to ascertain whether they were in want of a Finance Minister at St. Petersburg. . . . We misapprehend the nature of what took place when we say, as we usually do, that some important and useful reforms were introduced by Stein, Hardenberg, and Scharnhorst. In the first place, such a word as reform is not properly applied to changes so vast, and in the second place, the changes then made or at least commenced, went far beyond legislation. We want some word stronger than reform which shall convey that one of the greatest events of modern history now took place in Prussia. Revolution would convey this, but unfortunately we appropriate that word to changes in the form of government, or even mere changes of dynasty, provided they are violent, though such changes are commonly quite insignificant com-

pared to what now took place in Prussia. . . . The form of government indeed was not changed. Not merely did the king continue to reign, but no Parliament was created even with powers ever so restricted. Another generation had to pass away before this innovation, which to us seems the beginning of political life, took place. But a nation must be made before it can be made free, and, as we have said, in Prussia there was an administration (in great disorder) and an army, but no nation. When Stein was placed at the head of affairs in the autumn of 1807, he seems, at first, hardly to have been aware that anything was called for beyond the reform of the administration, and the removal of some abuses in the army. Accordingly he did reform the administration from the top to the bottom, remodelling the whole machinery both of central and local government which had come down from the father of Frederick the Great. But the other work also was forced upon him, and he began to create the nation by emancipating the peasantry, while Scharnhorst and Gneisenau were brooding over the ideas which, five years later, took shape in the Landwehr of East Prussia [see MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 28]. Besides emancipating the peasant he emancipated industry,—everywhere abolishing that strange caste system which divided the population rigidly into nobles, citizens, and peasants, and even stamped every acre of land in the country with its own unalterable rank as noble, or citizen, or peasant land. Emancipation, so to speak, had to be given before enfranchisement. The peasant must have something to live for; freewill must be awakened in the citizen; and he must be taught to fight for something before he could receive political liberty. Of such liberty Stein only provided one modest germ. By his Städteordnung he introduced popular election into the towns. Thus Prussia and France set out towards political liberty by different roads. Prussia began modestly with local liberties, but did not for a long time attempt a Parliament. France with her charte, and in imitation of France many of the small German States, had grand popular Parliaments, but no local liberties. And so for a long time Prussia was regarded as a backward State. . . . It was only by accident that Stein stopped short at municipal liberties and created no Parliament [see also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Development of the city as a local business unit]. He would have gone further, and in the last years of the wartime Hardenberg did summon deliberative assemblies, which, however, fell into disuse again after the peace. . . . In spite however of all reaction, the change irrevocably made by the legislation of that time was similar to that made in France by the Revolution, and caused the age before Jena to be regarded as an 'ancien régime.' But in addition to this, a change had been made in men's minds and thoughts by the shocks of the time, which prepared the way for legislative changes which have taken place since. How unprecedented in Prussia, for instance, was the dictatorial authority wielded by Hardenberg early in 1807, by Stein in the latter part of that year and in 1808, and by Hardenberg again from 1810 onwards! Before that time in the history of Prussia we find no subject eclipsing or even approaching the King in importance. Prussia had been made what she was almost entirely by her electors and kings. In war and organisation alike all had been done by the Great Elector or Frederick-William I., or Frederick the Great. But now this is suddenly changed. Everything now turns on the minister. Weak min-



isters are expelled by pressure put upon the king, strong ones are forced upon him. He is compelled to create a new ministerial power much greater than that of an English Prime Minister, and more like that of a Grand Vizier, and by these dictators the most comprehensive innovations are made. The loyalty of the people was not impaired by this; on the contrary, Stein and Hardenberg saved the Monarchy; but it evidently transferred the Monarchy, though safely, to a lower pedestal."—J. R. Seeley, *Prussian history (Macmillan's Magazine, v. 36, pp. 342-351)*.

Also in: J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein, v. 1-2, pt. 3-5*.—R. B. D. Morier, *Agrarian legislation of Prussia (Systems of land tenure: Cobden club essays, ch. 5)*.

1807-1810.—Stein's emancipation reforms restricted by the 'servants' ordinance.'—"But the large manorial proprietors viewed with apprehension the prospect of their labourers being free to go and do as they wished, and they besought the King to sanction the issue of a code of regulations for servants, or 'Servants' Ordinance' (*Gesindeordnung*), by which the liberty of the labourer would be restricted and he would still, for practical purposes, be bound to the soil. In spite of the opposition of . . . Stein, the King agreed, and several days before the emancipatory edict of 1807 came into operation in November, 1810, the 'Servants' Ordinance for all the provinces of the Prussian Monarchy of November 8, 1810,' was promulgated. The object of this 'Ordinance' was said to be the removal of uncertainty on the subject of rights and duties as between employers and servants, and it superseded most of the existing provincial 'Ordinances' of the kind. But it did more. The old 'Ordinances' were intended to apply to domestic servants. The new and uniform 'Ordinance,' by the mere introduction of a phrase, drew into its net the entire class of agricultural servants living with their masters."—W. H. Dawson, *Evolution of modern Germany, p. 280*.

1808.—Awakening of the national spirit.—Effects of the Spanish rising, and of Fichte's addresses.—The beginnings of the great rising in Spain against Napoleon (see SPAIN: 1808 [May-September], and after) "were watched by Stein from Berlin while he was engaged in negotiating with [Count] Daru; we can imagine with what feelings! His cause had been, since his ministry began, substantially the same as that of Spain; but he had perhaps understood it himself but dimly, at any rate hoped but faintly to see it prosper. But now he ripens at once into a great nationality statesman; the reforms of Prussia begin at once to take a more military stamp, and to point more decisively to a great uprising of the German race against the foreign oppressor. The change of feeling which took place in Prussia after the beginning of the Spanish troubles is very clearly marked in Stein's autobiography. After describing the negotiations at Paris and Berlin, . . . he begins a new paragraph thus: 'The popular war which had broken out in Spain and was attended with good success, had heightened the irritation of the inhabitants of the Prussian State caused by the humiliation they had suffered. All thirsted for revenge; plans of insurrection, which aimed at exterminating the French scattered about the country, were arranged; among others, one was to be carried out at Berlin, and I had the greatest trouble to keep the leaders, who confided their intentions to me, from a premature outbreak. We all watched the progress of the Spanish war and the commencement of the Austrian, for the preparations of that Power had not remained

a secret; expectation was strained to the highest point; pains were necessary to moderate the excited eagerness for resistance in order to profit by it in more favourable circumstances. . . . Fichte's Addresses to the Germans, delivered during the French occupation of Berlin and printed under the censorship of M. Bignon, the Intendant, had a great effect upon the feelings of the cultivated class.' . . . That in the midst of such weighty matters he should remember to mention Fichte's Addresses is a remarkable testimony to the effect produced by them on the public mind, and at the same time it leads us to conjecture that they must have strongly influenced his own. They had been delivered in the winter at Berlin and of course could not be heard by Stein, who was then with the King, but they were not published till April. As affecting public opinion therefore, and also as known to Stein, the book was almost exactly of the same date as the Spanish Rebellion, and it is not unnatural that he should mention the two influences together. . . . When the lectures were delivered at Berlin a rising in Spain was not dreamed of, and even when they were published it had not taken place, nor could clearly be foreseen. And yet they teach the same lesson. That doctrine of nationality which was taught affirmatively by Spain had been suggested to Fichte's mind by the *reductio ad absurdum* which events had given to the negation of it in Germany. Nothing could be more convincing than the concurrence of the two methods of proof at the same moment, and the prophetic elevation of these discourses (which may have furnished a model to Carlyle) was well fitted to drive the lesson home, particularly to a mind like Stein's, which was quite capable of being impressed by large principles. . . . Fichte's Addresses do not profess to have in the first instance nationality for this subject. They profess to inquire whether there exists any grand comprehensive remedy for the evils with which Germany is afflicted. They find such a remedy where Turgot long before had looked for deliverance from the selfishness to which he traced all the abuses of the old régime, that is, in a grand system of national education. Fichte reiterates the favourite doctrine of modern Liberalism, that education as hitherto conducted by the Church has aimed only at securing for men happiness in another life, and that this is not enough, inasmuch as they need also to be taught how to bear themselves in the present life so as to do their duty to the state, to others and themselves. He is as sure as Turgot that a system of national education will work so powerfully upon the nation that in a few years they will not be recognisable, and he explains at great length what should be the nature of this system, dwelling principally upon the importance of instilling a love of duty for its own sake rather than for reward. The method to be adopted is that of Pestalozzi. Out of fourteen lectures the first three are entirely occupied with this. But then the subject is changed, and we find ourselves plunged into a long discussion of the peculiar characteristics which distinguish Germany from other nations and particularly other nations of German origin. At the present day this discussion, which occupies four lectures, seems hardly satisfactory; but it is a striking deviation from the fashion of that age. . . . But up to this point we perceive only that the subject of German nationality occupies Fichte's mind very much, and that there was more significance than we first remarked in the title, Addresses to the German Nation; otherwise we have met with nothing likely to seem of great im-

portance to a statesman. But the eighth Lecture propounds the question, What is a Nation in the higher signification of the word, and what is patriotism? It is here that he delivers what might seem a commentary on the Spanish Revolution, which had not yet taken place. . . . Fichte proclaims the Nation not only to be different from the State, but to be something far higher and greater. . . . Applied to Germany this doctrine would lead to the practical conclusion that a united German State ought to be set up in which the separate German States should be absorbed. . . . In the lecture before us he contents himself with advising that patriotism as distinguished from loyalty to the State should be carefully inculcated in the new education, and should influence the individual German Governments. It would not indeed have been safe for Fichte to propose a political reform, but it rather appears that he thought it an advantage rather than a disadvantage that the Nation and the State should be



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distinct. . . . I should not have lingered so long over this book if it did not strike me as the prophetic or canonical book which announces and explains a great transition in modern Europe, and the prophecies of which began to be fulfilled immediately after its publication by the rising in Spain. . . . It is this Spanish Revolution which when it has extended to the other countries we call the Anti-Napoleonic Revolution of Europe. It gave Europe years of unparalleled bloodshed, but at the same time years over which there broods a light of poetry; for no conception can be more profoundly poetical than that which now woke up in every part of Europe, the conception of the Nation. Those years also led the way to the great movements which have filled so much of the nineteenth century, and have rearranged the whole central part of the map of Europe on a more natural system."—J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 2, pt. 4, ch. 1.

1808 (January).—Kehl, Cassel and Wesel annexed to France. See FRANCE: 1807-1808 (November-February).

1808 (April-December).—Tugendbund, and Stein's relations to it.—'English people think of Stein almost exclusively in connexion with land laws. But the second and more warlike period of his Ministry has also left a faint impression in the minds of many among us, who are in the habit of regarding him as the founder of the Tugendbund [Society of Virtue]. In August and September [1808], the very months in which Stein was taking up his new position, this society was attracting general attention, and accordingly this is the place to consider Stein's relation to it. That he was secretly animating and urging it on must have seemed at the time more than probable, almost self-evident. It aimed at the very objects which he had at heart, it spoke of him with warm admiration, and in general it used language which seemed an echo of his own. . . . Whatever his connexion with the Tugendbund may have been, it cannot have commenced till April, 1808, for it was in that month that the Tugendbund began its existence, and therefore nothing can be more absurd than to represent Stein as beginning to revolutionise the country with the help of the Tugendbund, for his revolutionary edict had been promulgated in the October before. . . . In his autobiography . . . Stein [says]: 'An effect and not the cause of this passionate national indignation at the despotism of Napoleon was the Tugendbund, of which I was no more the founder than I was a member, as I can assert on my honour and as is well known to its originators. About July, 1808, there was formed at Königsberg a society consisting of several officers, for example, Col. Gneisenau, Grolmann, &c., and learned men, such as Professor Krug, in order to combat selfishness and to rouse the nobler moral feelings; and according to the requirements of the existing laws they communicated their statutes and the list of their members to the King's Majesty, who sanctioned the former without any action on my part, it being my belief in general that there was no need of any other institute but to put new life into the spirit of Christian patriotism; the germ of which lay already in the existing institutions of State and Church. The new Society held its meetings, but of the proceedings I knew nothing, and when later it proposed to exert an indirect influence upon educational and military institutions I rejected the proposal as encroaching on the department of the civil and ecclesiastical governing bodies. As I was driven soon afterwards out of the public service, I know nothing of the further operations of this Society.' . . . He certainly seems to intend his readers to understand that he had not even any indirect or underhand connexion with it, but from first to last stood entirely aloof, except in one case when he interfered to restrain its action. It is even possible that by telling us that he had nothing to do with the step taken by the King when he sanctioned the statutes of the society he means to hint that, had his advice been taken, the society would not have been even allowed to exist. . . . The principal fact affirmed by Stein is indeed now beyond controversy; Stein was certainly not either the founder or a member of the Tugendbund. The society commonly known by that name, which however designated itself as the Moral and Scientific Union, was founded by a number of persons, of whom many were Freemasons, at Königsberg in the month of April. Professor Krug, mentioned by Stein, was one of them; Gneisenau and Grolmann, whom he also

mentions, were not among the first members, and Gneisenau, it seems, was never a member. The statutes were drawn by Krug, Bardeleben and Baersch, and if any one person can be called the Founder of the Tugendbund, the second of these, Bardeleben, seems best to deserve the title. The Order of Cabinet by which the society was licensed is dated Königsberg, June 30th, and runs as follows: 'The revival of morality, religion, serious taste and public spirit, is assuredly most commendable; and, so far as the society now being formed under the name of a Virtue Union (Tugendverein) is occupied with this within the limits of the laws of the country and without any interference in politics or public administration, His Majesty the King of Prussia approves the object and constitution of the society.' . . . From Königsberg missionaries went forth who established branch associations, called Chambers, in other towns, first those of the Province of Prussia, Braunsberg, Elbing, Graudenz, Eylau, Hohenstein, Memel, Stallupöhnen; then in August and September Bardeleben spread the movement with great success through Silesia. The spirit which animated the new society could not but be approved by every patriot. They had been deeply struck with the decay of the nation, as shown in the occurrences of the war, and their views of the way in which it might be revived were much the same as those of Stein and Fichte. The only question was whether they were wise in organising a society in order to promulgate these views, whether such a society was likely to do much good, and also whether it might not by possibility do much harm. Stein's view, as he has given it, was that it was not likely to do much good, and that such an organisation was unnecessary. . . . It did not follow because he desired Estates or Parliaments that he was prepared to sanction a political club. . . . It may well have seemed to him that to suffer a political club to come into existence was to allow the guidance of the Revolution which he had begun to pass out of his hands. There appears, then, when we consider it closely, nothing unnatural in the course which Stein declares himself to have taken."—J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 2, pt. 4, ch. 3.—The Tugendbund was dissolved in 1809, but continued to operate in secret for many years.

Also in: T. Frost, *Secret societies of the European revolution*, v. 1, ch. 4.

1808 (September-October).—Imperial conference and Treaty of Erfurt. See FRANCE: 1808 (September-October).

1809 (January-June).—Outburst of Austrian feeling against France.—Reopening of war.—Napoleon's advance to Vienna.—His defeat at Aspern and perilous situation.—Austrian reverses in Italy and Hungary.—"The one man of all the Austrians who felt the least amount of hatred against France, was, perhaps, the Emperor. All his family and all his people—nobles and priests, the middle classes and the peasantry—evinced a feeling full of anger against the nation which had upset Europe. . . . By reason of the French, the disturbers and spoilers, the enemies of the human race, despisers of morality and religion alike, Princes were suffering in their palaces, workmen in their shops, business men in their offices, priests in their churches, soldiers in their camps, peasants in their huts. The movement of exasperation was irresistible. Every one said that it was a mistake to have laid down their arms; that they ought against France to have fought on to the bitter end, and to have sacrificed the last man and the last florin; that they had been wrong

in not having gone to the assistance of Prussia after the Jena Campaign; and that the moment had arrived for all the Powers to coalesce against the common enemy and crush him. . . . All Europe had arrived at a paroxysm of indignation. What was she waiting for before rising? A signal. That signal Austria was about to give. And this time with what chances of success! The motto was to be 'victory or death.' But they were sure of victory. The French army, scattered from the Oder to the Tagus, from the mountains of Bohemia to the Sierra Morena, would not be able to resist the onslaught of so many nations eager to break their bonds. . . . Vienna, in 1809, indulged in the same language, and felt the same passions, that Berlin did in 1806. . . . The Landwehr, then only organized a few months, were impatiently awaiting the hour when they should measure themselves against the Veterans of the



ARCHDUKE CHARLES  
OF AUSTRIA

French army. Volunteers flocked in crowds to the colours. Patriotic subscriptions flowed in. . . . Boys wanted to leave school to fight. All classes of society vied with each other in zeal, courage, and a spirit of sacrifice. When the news was made public that the Archduke Charles had, on the 20th of February, 1809, been appointed Generalissimo, there was an outburst of joy and confidence from one end of the Empire to the other."—I. de Saint-Amand, *Memoirs of the Empress Marie Louise*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—"On receiving decisive intelligence of these hostile preparations, Napoleon returned with extraordinary expedition from Spain to Paris, in January, 1809, and gave orders to concentrate his forces in Germany, and call out the full contingents of the Confederation of the Rhine. Some further time was consumed by the preparations on either side. At last, on the 8th of April, the Austrian troops crossed the frontiers at once on the Inn, in Bohemia, in the Tyrol and in Italy. The whole burthen of the war rested on Austria alone, for Prussia remained neutral, and Russia, now allied to France, was even bound

to make a show at least, though it were no more, of hostility to Austria. On the same day on which the Austrian forces crossed the frontiers, the Tyrol rose in insurrection [see below: 1809-1810 (April-February)], and was swept clear of the enemy in four days, with the exception of a Bavarian garrison, that still held out in Kufstein. The French army was at this time dispersed over a line of forty leagues in extent, with numerous undefended apertures between the corps; so that the fairest possible opportunity presented itself to the Austrians for cutting to pieces the scattered forces of the French, and marching in triumph to the Rhine. As usual, however, the archduke's early movements were subjected to most impolitic delays by the Aulic Council; and time was allowed Napoleon to arrive on the theatre of war (April 17), and repair the faults committed by his adjutant-general, Berthier. He instantly extricated his army from its perilous position—almost cut in two by the advance of the Austrians—and, beginning on the 19th, he beat the latter in five battles on five successive days, at Thaur, Abensberg, Landshut, Eckmühl, and Ratisbon. The Archduke Charles retired into Bohemia to collect reinforcements, but General Hiller was, in consequence of the delay in repairing the fortifications of Lintz, unable to maintain that place, the possession of which was important, on account of its forming a connecting point between Bohemia and the Austrian Oberland. Hiller, however, at least saved his honour by pushing forward to the Traun, and in a fearfully bloody encounter at Ebersberg, captured three French eagles, one of his colours alone falling into the enemy's hands. He was, nevertheless, compelled to retire before the superior forces of the French, and crossing over at Krems to the left bank of the Danube, he formed a junction with the Archduke Charles. The way was now clear to Vienna, which, after a slight show of defence, capitulated to Napoleon on the 12th of May. The Archduke Charles had hoped to reach the capital before the French, and to give battle to them beneath its walls; but as he had to make a circuit whilst the French pushed forward in a direct line, his plan was frustrated, and he arrived, when too late, from Bohemia. Both armies, separated by the Danube, stood opposed to one another in the vicinity of the imperial city. Both commanders were desirous of coming to a decisive engagement. The French had secured the island of Lobau, to serve as a mustering place, and point of transit across the Danube. The archduke allowed them to establish a bridge of boats, being resolved to await them on the Marchfeld. There it was that Rudolph of Habsburg, in the battle against Ottakar, had laid the foundation of the greatness of the house of Austria; and there the political existence of that house and the fate of the monarchy were now to be decided. Having crossed the river, Napoleon was received on the opposite bank, near Aspern and Esslingen, by his opponent, and, after a dreadful battle [in which Marshal Lannes was killed], that was carried on with unwearied animosity for two days, May 21st and 22nd, 1809, he was completely beaten, and compelled to fly for refuge to the island of Lobau. The rising stream had, meanwhile, carried away the bridge, Napoleon's sole chance of escape to the opposite bank. For two days he remained on the island with his defeated troops, without provisions, and in hourly expectation of being cut to pieces; the Austrians, however, neglected to turn the opportunity to advantage, and allowed the French leisure to rebuild the bridge, a work of extreme difficulty. During

six weeks afterwards, the two armies continued to occupy their former positions under the walls of Vienna, on the right and left banks of the Danube, narrowly watching each other's movements, and preparing for a final struggle. Whilst these events were in progress, the Archduke John had successfully penetrated into Italy, where he had totally defeated the Viceroy Eugene at Salice, on the 16th of April. Favoured by the simultaneous revolt of the Tyrolese, he might have obtained the most decisive results from this victory, but the extraordinary progress of Napoleon down the valley of the Danube rendered necessary the concentration of the whole forces of the monarchy for the defence of the capital. Having begun a retreat, he was pursued by Eugene, and defeated on the Piave, with great loss, on the 8th of May. Escaping thence, without further molestation, to Villach, in Carinthia, he received intelligence of the fall of Vienna, together with a letter from the Archduke Charles, of the 15th of May, directing him to move with all his forces upon Lintz, to act on the rear and communications of Napoleon. Instead of obeying these orders, he thought proper to march into Hungary, abandoning the Tyrol and the whole projected operations on the Upper Danube to their fate. His disobedience was disastrous to the fortunes of his house, for it caused the fruits of the victory at Aspern to be lost. He might have arrived, with 50,000 men, on the 24th or 25th, at Lintz, where no one remained but Bernadotte and the Saxons, who were incapable of offering any serious resistance. Such a force, concentrated on the direct line of Napoleon's communications, immediately after his defeat at Aspern, on the 22nd, would have deprived him of all means of extricating himself from the most perilous situation in which he had yet been placed since ascending the consular throne. After totally defeating Jellachich in the valley of the Muhr, Eugene desisted from his pursuit of the army of Italy, and joined Napoleon at Vienna. The Archduke John united his forces at Raab with those of the Hungarian insurrection, under his brother, the Palatine. The viceroy again marched against him, and defeated him at Raab on the 14th of June. The Palatine remained with the Hungarian insurrection in Komorn; Archduke John moved on to Presburg. In the north, the Archduke Ferdinand, who had advanced as far as Warsaw, had been driven back by the Poles under Poniatowsky, and by a Russian force sent by the Emperor Alexander to their aid, which, on this success, invaded Galicia."—W. K. Kelly, *History of the House of Austria*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 12, ch. 56-57.—Duke de Rovigo, *Memoirs*, v. 2, pt. 2, ch. 3-12.—Baron Jomini, *Life of Napoleon*, v. 3, ch. 14.—Baron de Marbot, *Memoirs*, v. 1, ch. 42-48.

1809 (April-July).—**Risings against the French in the north.**—"A general revolt against the French had nearly taken place in Saxony and Westphalia, where the enormous burdens imposed on the people, and the insolence of the French troops had kindled a deadly spirit of hostility against the oppressors. Everywhere the Tugendbund were in activity; and the advance of the Austrians towards Franconia and Saxony, at the beginning of the war, blew up the flame. The two first attempts at insurrection, headed respectively by Katt, a Prussian officer (April 3), and Dornberg, a Westphalian colonel (April 23), proved abortive; but the enterprise of the celebrated Schill was of a more formidable character. This enthusiastic patriot, then a colonel in the Prussian army,

had been compromised in the revolt of Dornberg; and finding himself discovered, he boldly raised the standard (April 29) at the head of 600 soldiers. His force speedily received accessions, but failing in his attempts on Wittenberg and Magdeburg, he moved towards the Baltic, in hope of succour from the British cruisers, and at last threw himself into Stralsund. Here he was speedily invested; the place was stormed (May 31), and the gallant Schill slain in the assault, a few hours only before the appearance of the British vessels—the timely arrival of which might have secured the place, and spread the rising over all Northern Germany. The Duke of Brunswick-Oels, with his 'black band' of volunteers, had at the same time invaded Saxony from Bohemia; and though then obliged to re-

trian fortifications erected to defend the former bridge were turned, the villages occupied by their army taken, and the Archduke Charles was menaced both in flank and rear, the French line of battle appuyed on Enzersdorf being at a right angle to his left wing. Under these circumstances the Archduke, retiring his left, attempted to outflank the French right, while Napoleon bore down upon his centre at Wagram. This village became the scene of a sanguinary struggle, and one house only remained standing when night closed in. The Archduke sent courier after courier to hasten the advance of his brother, between whom and himself was Napoleon, whose line on the right of the 5th extended from Loibersdorf on the right to some two miles beyond Wagram on the left. Na-



NAPOLEON AT THE BATTLE OF WAGRAM, JULY 5, 1809

(Painting by H. Vernet)

trat, he made a second incursion in June, occupied Dresden and Leipsic, and drove the King of Westphalia into France. After the battle of Wagram he made his way across all Northern Germany, and was eventually conveyed, with his gallant followers, still 2,000 strong, to England."—*Epitome of Alison's history of Europe, sect. 525-526.*

1809 (July-September).—Napoleon's victory at Wagram.—Peace of Schönbrunn.—Immense surrender of Austrian territory.—"The operation of establishing the bridges between the French camp and the left bank of the Danube commenced on the night of the 30th of June; and during the night of the 4th of July the whole French army, passing between the villages of Enzersdorf and Muhlleuten, debouched on the Marchfeld, wheeling to their left. Napoleon was on horseback in the midst of them by daylight; all the Aus-

oleon passed the night in massing his centre, still determining to manœuvre by his left in order to throw back the Archduke Charles on that side before the Archduke John could come up on the other. At six o'clock on the morning of the 6th of July he commanded the attack in person. Disregarding all risk, he appeared throughout the day in the hottest of the fire, mounted on a snow-white charger, Euphrates, a present from the Shah of Persia. The Archduke Charles as usual committed the error which Napoleon's enemies had not even yet learned was invariably fatal to them: extending his line too greatly he weakened his centre, at the same time opening tremendous assaults on the French wings, which suffered dreadfully. Napoleon ordered Lauriston to advance upon the Austrian centre with a hundred guns, supported by two whole divisions of infantry in column. The artillery, when within half cannon-

shot, opened a terrific fire: nothing could withstand such a shock. The infantry, led by Macdonald, charged; the Austrian line was broken and the centre driven back in confusion. The right, in a panic, retrograded; the French cavalry then bore down upon them and decided the battle, the Archduke still fighting to secure his retreat, which he at length effected in tolerably good order. By noon the whole Austrian army was abandoning the contest. Their defeat so demoralized them that the Archduke John, who came up on Napoleon's right before the battle was over, was glad to retire with the rest, unnoticed by the enemy. That evening the Marchfeld and Wagram were in possession of the French. The population of Vienna had watched the battle from the roofs and ramparts of the city, and saw the retreat of their army with fear and gloom. Between 300,000 and 400,000 men were engaged, and the loss on both sides was nearly equal. About 20,000 dead and 30,000 wounded strewed the ground; the latter were conveyed to the hospitals of Vienna. . . . Twenty thousand Austrians were taken prisoners, but the number would have been greater had the French cavalry acted with their usual spirit. Bernadotte, issuing a bulletin, almost assuming to himself the sole merit of the victory, was removed from his command. Macdonald was created a marshal of the empire on the morning after the battle. . . . The battle of Wagram was won more by good fortune than skill. Napoleon's strategy was at fault, and had the Austrians fought as stoutly as they did at Aspern, Napoleon would have been signally defeated. Had the Archduke John acted promptly and vigorously, he might have united with his brother's left—which was intact—and overwhelmed the French. . . . The defeated army retired to Znaim, followed by the French; but further resistance was abandoned by the Emperor of Austria. The Archduke Charles solicited an armistice on the 9th; hostilities ceased, and Napoleon returned to the palace of Schönbrunn while the plenipotentiaries settled the terms of peace. . . . English Ministers displayed another instance of their customary spirit of procrastination. Exactly eight days after the armistice of Znaim, which assured them that Austria was no longer in a position to profit by or co-operate with their proceedings, they sent more than 80,000 fighting men, under the command of Lord Chatham, to besiege Antwerp [see ENGLAND: 1809 (July-December)]. . . . Operations against Naples proved equally abortive. . . . In Spain alone English arms were successful. Sir Arthur Wellesley won the battle of Talavera on the 28th of July [see SPAIN: 1809 (February-July)]. . . . A treaty of peace between France and Austria was signed on the 14th of October at Vienna [sometimes called the Treaty of Vienna, but more commonly the Peace of Schönbrunn]. The Emperor of Austria ceded Salzburg and a part of Upper Austria to the Confederation of the Rhine; part of Bohemia, Cracow, and Western Galicia to the King of Saxony as Grand Duke of Warsaw; part of Eastern Galicia to the Emperor of Russia; and Trieste, Carniola, Friuli, Villach, and some part of Croatia and Dalmatia to France: thus connecting the kingdom of Italy with Napoleon's Illyrian possessions, making him master of the entire coast of the Adriatic, and depriving Austria of its last seaport. It was computed that the Emperor Francis gave up territory to the amount of 45,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 4,000,000. He also paid a large contribution in money.—R. H. Horne, *Life of Napoleon*, ch. 32.—“The cessions made directly to Napoleon were the county of Görz, or Goricia, and

that of Montefalcone, forming the Austrian Friuli; the town and government of Trieste, Carniola, the circle of Villach in Carinthia, part of Croatia and Dalmatia, and the lordship of Râzuns in the Grison territory. All these provinces, with the exception of Râzuns, were incorporated by a decree of Napoleon, with Dalmatia and its islands, into a single state with the name of the Illyrian Provinces. They were never united with France, but always governed by Napoleon as an independent state. A few districts before possessed by Napoleon were also incorporated with them: as Venetian Istria and Dalmatia with the Bocca di Cattaro, Ragusa, and part of the Tyrol. . . . The only other articles of the treaty of much importance are the recognition by Austria of any changes made, or to be made, in Spain, Portugal, and Italy; the adherence of the Emperor to the prohibitive system adopted by France and Russia, and his engaging to cease all correspondence and relationship with Great Britain. By a decree made at Ratisbon, April 24th 1809, Napoleon had suppressed the Teutonic Order in all the States belonging to the Rhenish Confederation, reannexed its possessions to the domains of the prince in which they were situated, and incorporated Mergentheim, with the rights, domains, and revenues attached to the Grand Mastership of the Order, with the Kingdom of Würtemberg. These dispositions were confirmed by the Treaty of Schönbrunn. The effect aimed at by the Treaty of Schönbrunn was to surround Austria with powerful states, and thus to paralyse all her military efforts. . . . The Emperor of Russia . . . was very ill satisfied with the small portion of the spoils assigned to him, and the augmentation awarded to the duchy of Warsaw. Hence the first occasion of coldness between him and Napoleon, whom he suspected of a design to re-establish the Kingdom of Poland.”—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 4, bk. 7, ch. 14.

Also in: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 13, ch. 59-60.—M. Dumas, *Memoirs*, v. 2, ch. 13.—E. Baines, *History of the wars of the French Revolution*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 9.—J. C. Ropes, *First Napoleon*, lect. 4.

1809-1810 (April-February).—Revolt in the Tyrol.—Heroic struggle of Andreas Hofer and his countrymen.—“The Tyrol, for centuries a possession of Austria, was ceded to Bavaria by the Peace of Presburg in 1805. The Bavarians made many innovations, in the French style, some good and some bad; but the mountaineers, clinging to their ancient ways, resisted them all alike. They hated the Bavarians as foreign masters forced upon them; and especially detested the military conscription, to which Austria had never subjected them. The priests had an almost unlimited influence over these faithful Catholics, and the Bavarians, who treated them rudely, were regarded as innovators and allies of revolutionary France. Thus the country submitted restlessly to the yoke of the Rhine League until the spring of 1809. A secret understanding was maintained with Austria and the Archduke John, and the people never abandoned the hope of returning to their Austrian allegiance. When the great war of 1809 began, the Emperor Francis summoned all his people to arms. The Tyrolese answered the call. . . . They are a people trained in early life to the use of arms, and to activity, courage, and ready devices in hunting, and in traveling on their mountain paths. Austria could be sure of the faithfulness of the Tyrol, and made haste to occupy the country. When the first troops were seen entering the passes, the people arose and drove away the Bavarian garrisons. The alarm was soon sounded through the

deepest ravines of the land. Never was there a more united people, and each troop or company chose its own officers, in the ancient German style, from among their strongest and best men. Their commanders were hunters, shepherds, priests: the former gamekeeper, Speckbacher; the innkeeper, Martin Teimer; the fiery Capuchin monk, Haspinger, whose sole weapon in the field was a huge ebony crucifix, and many more of like peaceful occupations. At the head of the whole army was a man who, like Saul, towered by a head above all others, while his handsome black beard fell to his girdle—Andrew Hofer, formerly an innkeeper at Passeyr—a man of humble piety and simple faithfulness, who fairly represented the people he led. He regarded the war as dutiful service to his religion, his emperor, and his country. The whole land soon swarmed with little bands of men, making their way to Innsprück (April, 1809), whence the Bavarian garrison fled. Meanwhile a small French corps came from Italy to relieve them. Though fired upon by the peasants from every ravine and hill, they passed the Brenner, and reached the Iselberg, near Innsprück. But here they were surrounded on every side, and forced to surrender. The first Austrian soldiers, under General Chasteler, then reached the capital, and their welcome was a popular festival. The liberators, as the Tyrolese soldiers regarded themselves, committed no cruelties, but carried on their enterprise in the spirit of a national jubilee. The tidings of the disasters at Regensburg [Ratisbon] now came upon them like a thunderbolt. The withdrawal of the Austrian army then left the Tyrol without protection. Napoleon treated the war as a mutiny, and set a price upon Chasteler's head. Neither Chasteler nor any of the Austrian officers with him understood the warfare of the peasantry. The Tyrolese were left almost wholly to themselves, but they resolved to defend their mountains. On May 11 the Bavarians under Wrede again set out from Salzburg, captured the pass of the Strub after a bloody fight, and then climbed into the valley of the Inn. They practiced frightful cruelties in their way. A fierce struggle took place at the little village of Schwatz; the Bavarians burned the place, and marched to Innsprück. Chasteler withdrew, and the Bavarians and French, under Wrede and Lefevre, entered the capital. The country again appeared to be subdued. But cruelty had embittered the people. Wrede was recalled, with his corps, by Napoleon; and now Hofer, with his South Tyrolese, recrossed the Brenner Pass. Again the general alarm was given, the leaders called to arms, and again every pass, every wall of rock, every narrow road was seized. The struggle took place at the Iselberg. The Bavarians, 7,000 in number, were defeated with heavy loss. The Tyrol now remained for several months undisturbed, during the campaign around Vienna. After the battle of Aspern, an imperial proclamation formally assured the Tyrolese that they should never be severed from the Austrian Empire; and that no peace should be signed unless their indissoluble union with the monarchy were recognized. The Tyrolese quietly trusted the emperor's promise, until the armistice of Znaim. But in this the Tyrol was not mentioned, and the French and their allies prepared to chastise the loyal and abandoned country."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, ch. 28.—"In the month of July, an army of 40,000 French and Bavarians attacked the Tyrol from the German side; while from Italy, General Rusca, with 18,000 men, entered from Klagenfurth, on the southern side of the Tyrolese Alps. Undismayed by this

double and formidable invasion, they assailed the invaders as they penetrated into their fastnesses, defeated and destroyed them. The fate of a division of 10,000 men, belonging to the French and Bavarian army, which entered the Upper Innthal, or Valley of the Inn, will explain in part the means by which these victories were obtained. The invading troops advanced in a long column up a road bordered on the one side by the river Inn, there a deep and rapid torrent, where cliffs of immense height overhang both road and river. The vanguard was permitted to advance unopposed as far as Prutz, the object of their expedition. The rest of the army were therefore induced to trust themselves still deeper in this tremendous pass, where the precipices, becoming more and more narrow as they advanced, seemed about to close above their heads. No sound but of the screaming of the eagles disturbed from their eyries, and the roar of the river, reached the ears of the soldier, and on the precipices, partly enveloped in a hazy mist, no human forms showed themselves. At length the voice of a man was heard calling across the ravine, 'Shall we begin?'—'No,' was returned in an authoritative tone of voice, by one who, like the first speaker, seemed the inhabitant of some upper region. The Bavarian detachment halted, and sent to the general for orders; when presently was heard the terrible signal, 'In the name of the Holy Trinity, cut all loose!' Huge rocks, and trunks of trees, long prepared and laid in heaps for the purpose, began now to descend rapidly in every direction, while the deadly fire of the Tyrolese, who never throw away a shot, opened from every bush, crag, or corner of rock, which would afford the shooter cover. As this dreadful attack was made on the whole line at once, two-thirds of the enemy were instantly destroyed; while the Tyrolese, rushing from their shelter, with swords, spears, axes, scythes, clubs and all other rustic instruments which could be converted into weapons, beat down and routed the shattered remainder. As the vanguard, which had reached Prutz, was obliged to surrender, very few of the 10,000 invaders are computed to have extricated themselves from the fatal pass. But not all the courage of the Tyrolese, not all the strength of their country, could possibly enable them to defend themselves, when the peace with Austria had permitted Buonaparte to engage his whole immense means for the acquisition of these mountains. Austria too—Austria herself, in whose cause they had incurred all the dangers of war, instead of securing their indemnity by some stipulations in the treaty, sent them a cold exhortation to lay down their arms. Resistance, therefore, was abandoned as fruitless; Hofer, chief commander of the Tyrolese, resigned his command, and the Bavarians regained the possession of a country which they could never have won back by their own efforts. Hofer, and about thirty chiefs of these valiant defenders of their country, were put to death [February, 1810], in poor revenge for the loss their bravery had occasioned. But their fame, as their immortal spirit, was beyond the power of the judge alike and executioner; and the place where their blood was shed, becomes sacred to the thoughts of freedom, as the precincts of a temple to those of religion."—W. Scott, *Life of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. 12, ch. 58.—*History of Hofer* (*Quarterly Review*, July, 1817).—C. H. Hall, *Life of Andrew Hofer*.

1810.—Annexation of the Hanse towns and territory on the North sea to France. See FRANCE: 1810 (February-December).

1810-1812.—Marriage of the Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria to Napoleon.—Alliance of German powers with Napoleon against Russia. See FRANCE: 1810-1812.

1811.—Inauguration of poll tax, land tax and income tax in Prussia. See TAXATION: Prussia, France and Great Britain.

1812.—Map showing various principalities.—Confederation of the Rhine. See EUROPE: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1812.—Russian campaign of Napoleon and its disastrous ending. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September); (September); (October-December).

1812-1813.—Teutonic uprising against Napoleon.—Beginning of the War of Liberation.—Alliance of Prussia and Russia.—“During Napoleon’s march on Moscow and his fatal return, Macdonald remained on the Lower Dwina, before Riga, with an observation corps of Prussians and Poles, nor had he ever received an order to retreat from Napoleon. Learning of the misfortunes of the grand army, he went from the Dwina towards the Niemen. As he passed through Courland, General York, commander of the Prussian troops, allowed him to lead the way with the Poles, and then signed an agreement of neutrality with the Russians (December 30, 1812). The Prussian troops, from a military spirit of honor, had fought the Russians bravely; they retained some scruples relative to the worthy marshal under whom they served, and forsook without betraying him, that is, they left him time to escape. This was a most important event and the beginning of the inevitable defection of Germany. The attitude of Czar Alexander decided General York; the former was completely dazzled by his triumphs, and aspired to nothing less than to destroy Napoleon and liberate Europe, even France! With mingled enthusiasm and calculation, he promised all things to all men; on returning to Wilna, he granted an amnesty for all acts committed in Poland against Russian authority. On the one hand, he circulated a rumor that he was about to make himself King of Poland, and, on the other hand, he announced to the Prussians that he was ready to restore the Polish provinces taken from them by Napoleon. He authorized ex-Minister Stein to take possession, as we may say, of Old Prussia, just evacuated by the French, and to promise the speedy enfranchisement of Germany, protesting, at the same time, that he would not dispute ‘the legitimate greatness’ of France. The French army, on hearing of York’s defection, left Königsberg with ten or twelve thousand sick men and eight or ten thousand armed troops, withdrawing to the Vistula and thence to Warta and Posen. General Rapp had succeeded in gathering at Dantzic, the great French depot of stores and reserves, 25,000 men, few of whom had gone through the Russian campaign, and a division of almost equal numbers occupied Berlin. The French had in all barely 80,000 men, from Dantzic to the Rhine, not including their Austrian and Saxon allies, who had fallen back on Warsaw and seemed disposed to fight no more. Murat, to whom Napoleon confided the remains of the grand army, followed the Emperor’s example and set out to defend his Neapolitan kingdom, leaving the chief command to Prince Eugene. Great agitation prevailed around the feeble French forces still occupying Germany. The Russians themselves, worn out, did not press the French very hotly; but York and Stein, masters of Königsberg, organized and armed Old Prussia without awaiting authorization from the king, who was not considered as a free agent, being under foreign rule. Pamphlets, proclamations, and popular

songs were circulated everywhere, provoking the people to rebellion. The idea of German union ran like wildfire from the Niemen to the Rhine; federal union, not unity in a single body or state, which was not thought of then.”—H. Martin, *Popular history of France from 1789, v. 2, ch. 16.*—“The king of Prussia had suddenly abandoned Berlin [January, 1813], which was still in the hands of the French, for Breslau, whence he declared war against France. A conference also took place between him and the emperor Alexander at Calisch [Kalisch], and, on the 28th of February, 1813, an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between them. The hour for vengeance had at length arrived. The whole Prussian nation, eager to throw off the hated yoke of the foreigner, to obliterate their disgrace in 1806, to regain their ancient name, cheerfully hastened to place their lives and property at the service of the impoverished government. The whole of the able-bodied population was put under arms. The standing army was increased: to each regiment were appended troops of volunteers, Jaegers, composed of young men belonging to the higher classes, who furnished their own equipments: a numerous Landwehr, a sort of militia, was, as in Austria, raised besides the standing army, and measures were even taken to call out, in case of necessity, the heads of families and elderly men remaining at home, under the name of the Landsturm. The enthusiastic people, besides furnishing the customary supplies and paying the taxes, contributed to the full extent of their means towards defraying the immense expense of this general arming. Every heart throbbed high with pride and hope. . . . More loudly than even in 1809 in Austria was the German cause now discussed, the great name of the German empire now invoked in Prussia for in that name alone could all the races of Germany be united against their hereditary foe. The celebrated proclamation, promising external and internal liberty to Germany, was, with this view, published at Calisch by Prussia and Russia. Nor was the appeal vain. It found an echo in every German heart, and such plain demonstrations of the state of the popular feeling on this side the Rhine were made, that Davoust [Davout] sent serious warning to Napoleon, who contemptuously replied, ‘Pah! Germans never can become Spaniards!’ With his customary rapidity he levied in France a fresh army 300,000 strong, with which he so completely awed the Rhenish confederation as to compel it once more to take the field with thousands of Germans against their brother Germans. The troops, however, reluctantly obeyed, and even the traitors were but lukewarm, for they doubted of success. Mecklenburg alone sided with Prussia. Austria remained neutral. A Russian corps under General Tettgenhorn had preceded the rest of the troops and reached the coasts of the Baltic. As early as the 24th of March, 1813, it appeared in Hamburg and expelled the French authorities from the city. The heavily oppressed people of Hamburg, whose commerce had been totally annihilated by the continental system, gave way to the utmost demonstrations of delight, received their deliverers with open arms, revived their ancient rights, and immediately raised a Hanseatic corps destined to take the field against Napoleon. Dörnberg, the ancient foe to France, with another flying squadron took the French division under Morand prisoner, and the Prussian, Major Hellwig (the same who, in 1806, liberated the garrison of Erfurt), dispersed, with merely 120 hussars, a Bavarian regiment 1,300 strong and captured five pieces of artillery. In January, the peasantry of the upper



country had already revolted against the conscription, and, in February, patriotic proclamations had been disseminated throughout Westphalia under the signature of the Baron von Stein. In this month, also, Captain Maas and two other patriots, who had attempted to raise a rebellion, were executed. As the army advanced, Stein was nominated chief of the provisional government of the still unconquered provinces of Western Germany. The first Russian army, 17,000 strong, under Wittgenstein, pushed forward to Magdeburg, and, at Mökern, repulsed 40,000 French who were advancing upon Berlin. The Prussians, under their veteran general, Blücher, entered Saxony and garrisoned Dresden, on the 27th of March, 1813, after an arch of the fine bridge across the Elbe [had] been uselessly blown up by the French. Blücher, whose gallantry in the former wars had gained for him the general esteem and whose kind and generous disposition had won the affection of the soldiery, was nominated generalissimo of the Prussian forces, but subordinate in command to Wittgenstein, who replaced Kutusow as generalissimo of the united forces of Russia and Prussia. The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia accompanied the army and were received with loud acclamations by the people of Dresden and Leipzig.—W. Menzel, *History of Germany*, v. 3, ch. 260.—Bernadotte, the adopted crown prince and expectant king of Sweden, had been finally thrown into the arms of the new coalition against Napoleon, by the refusal of the latter to take Norway from Denmark and give it to Sweden. "The disastrous retreat of the French from Moscow . . . led to the signature of the Treaty of Stockholm on the 2d of March, 1813, by which England acceded to the union of Norway to Sweden, and a Swedish force was sent to Pomerania under General Sandels. On the 18th of May, 1813, Bernadotte landed at Stralsund."—Lady Bloomfield, *Biographical sketch of Bernadotte (Memoir of Lord Bloomfield)*, v. 1, p. 31.

ALSO IN: J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 3, pt. 7.—A. Thiers, *History of the consulate and the empire*, v. 4, bk. 47.

1813 (April-May).—Battle of Lützen.—Humiliation of the king of Saxony.—"On the 14th April, Napoleon left Paris to assume the command of the army. Previous to his departure, with a view, perhaps, of paying a compliment to the Emperor of Austria, the Empress Marie Louise was appointed regent in his absence; but Prince Schwarzenberg, who had arrived on a special mission from Vienna, was treated only as the commander of an auxiliary corps, to which orders would immediately be transmitted. On the 16th he reached Mayence, where, for the last time, vassal princes assembled courtier-like around him; and on the 20th he was already at Erfurt, in the midst of his newly-raised army. The roads were everywhere crowded with troops and artillery, closing in towards the banks of the Saale. From Italy, Marshal Bertrand joined with 40,000 men, old trained soldiers; the Viceroy brought an equal number from the vicinity of Magdeburg; and Marshal Macdonald having, on the 20th, taken Merseburg by assault, the whole army, which Bade, the ablest and most accurate of the authors who have written on this campaign, estimates at 140,000 men, was assembled for action. With this mighty force Napoleon determined to seek out the enemy, and bring them quickly to battle. The Russian and Prussian armies were no sooner united, after the alliance concluded between the sovereigns, than they crossed the Elbe, occupied Dresden, which the King of Saxony had abandoned, and advanced

to the banks of the Saale. General Blücher commanded the Prussians, and Count Wittgenstein the Russian corps; and, death having closed the career of old Marshal Kutusof, . . . the command of both armies devolved upon the last mentioned officer. Informed of the rapid advance of the French, the allied monarchs joined their forces, which were drawn together in the plains between the Saale and the Elbe; their numerous cavalry giving them perfect command of this wide and open country. Napoleon, always anxious for battle, determined to press on towards Leipzig, behind which he expected to find the Allied army, who, as it proved, were much nearer than he anticipated. At the passage of the Rippach, a small stream that borders the wide plain of Lützen, he already encountered a body of Russian cavalry and artillery under Count Winzingerode; and as the French were weak in horse, they had to bring the whole of Marshal Ney's corps into action before they could oblige the Russians to retire. Marshal Bessières, the commander of the Imperial Guard, was killed. . . . On the evening of the 1st of May, Napoleon established his quarters in the small town of Lützen. The Allies, conscious of the vast numerical superiority of the French, did not intend to risk a general action on the left bank of the Elbe; but the length of the hostile column of march, which extended from beyond Naumburg almost to the gates of Leipzig, induced Scharnhorst to propose an advance from the direction of Borna and Pegau against the right flank of the enemy, and a sudden attack on the centre of their line in the plain of Lützen. It was expected that a decisive blow might be struck against this centre, and the hostile army broken before the distant wings could close up and take an effective part in the battle. The open nature of the country, well adapted to the action of cavalry, which formed the principal strength of the Allies, spoke in favour of the plan. . . . The bold attempt was immediately resolved upon, and the onset fixed for the following morning. The annals of war can hardly offer a plan of battle more skilfully conceived than the one of which we have here spoken; but unfortunately the execution fell far short of the admirable conception. Napoleon, with his Guards and the corps of Lauriston, was already at the gates of Leipzig, preparing for an attack on the city, when about one o'clock [May 2] the roar of artillery burst suddenly on the ear, and gathering thicker and thicker as it rolled along, proclaimed that a general action was engaged in the plain of Lützen,—proclaimed that the army was taken completely at fault, and placed in the most imminent peril. . . . The Allies, who, by means of their numerous cavalry, could easily mask their movement, had advanced unobserved into the plain of Lützen," and the action was begun by a brigade of Blücher's corps attacking the French in the village of Great-Görschen (Gross-Görscher). "Reinforcements . . . poured in from both sides, and the narrow and intersected ground between the villages became the scene of a most murderous and closely-contested combat of infantry. . . . But no attempt was made to employ the numerous and splendid cavalry, that stood idly exposed, on open plain, to the shot of the French artillery. . . . When night put an end to the combat, Great-Görschen was the sole trophy of the murderous fight that remained in the hands of the Allies. . . . On the side of the Allies, 2,000 Russians and 8,000 Prussians had been killed or wounded; among the slain was Prince Leopold of Hesse-Homburg; among the wounded was the admirable Scharnhorst, who died a few weeks after-

wards. . . . The loss sustained by the French is not exactly known; but . . . Jomini tells us that the 3d corps, to which he was attached as chief of the staff, had alone 500 officers and 12,000 men 'hors de combat.' Both parties laid claim to the victory: the French, because the Allies retired on the day after the action; the Allies, because they remained masters of part of the captured battlefield, had taken two pieces of artillery, and 800 prisoners. . . . The Allies alleged, or pretended perhaps, that it was their intention to renew the action on the following morning: in the Prussian army every man, from the king to the humblest soldier, was anxious indeed to continue the fray; and the wrath of Blücher, who deemed victory certain, was altogether boundless when he found the retreat determined upon. But . . . opinion has, by degrees, justified Count Wittgenstein's resolution to recross the Elbe and fall back on the reinforcements advancing to join the army. . . . On the 8th of May, Napoleon held his triumphal entrance into Dresden. . . . On the advance of the Allies, the Saxon monarch had retired to Ratisbon, and from thence to Prague, intending, as he informed Napoleon, to join his efforts to the mediation of Austria. Orders had, at the same time, been given to General Thielman, commanding the Saxon troops at Torgau, to maintain the most perfect neutrality, and to admit neither of the contending parties within the walls of the fortress. Exasperated by this show of independence, Napoleon caused the following demands to be submitted to the King, allowing him only six hours to determine on their acceptance or refusal:—1. 'General Thielman and the Saxon troops instantly evacuate Torgau, and form the 7th corps under General Régnier; and all the resources of the country to be at the disposal of the Emperor, in conformity with the principles of the Confederation of the Rhine.' 2. 'The Saxon Cavalry—some regiments had accompanied the King—return immediately to Dresden.' 3. 'The King declares, in a letter to the Emperor, that he is still a member of the Confederation of the Rhine, and ready to fulfil all the obligations which it imposes upon him.' 'If these conditions are not immediately complied with,' says Napoleon in the instructions to his messenger, 'you will cause his Majesty to be informed that he is guilty of felony, has forfeited the Imperial protection, and has ceased to reign.' . . . Frederick Augustus, finding himself threatened with the loss of his crown by an overbearing conqueror already in possession of his capital, . . . yielded in an evil hour to those imperious demands, and returned to Dresden. . . . Fortune appeared again to smile upon her spoiled and favoured child; and he resolved, on his part, to leave no expedient untried to make the most of her returning aid. The mediation of Austria, which from the first had been galling to his pride, became more hateful every day, as it gradually assumed the appearance of an armed interference, ready to enforce its demands by military means. . . . Tidings having arrived that the allied army, instead of continuing their retreat, had halted and taken post at Bautzen, he immediately resolved to strike a decisive blow in the field, as the best means of thwarting the pacific efforts of his father-in-law."—J. Mitchell, *Fall of Napoleon*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1789-1815*, v. ch. 13, ch. 75.—Duchess d' Abrantes, *Memoirs of Napoleon*, v. 2, ch. 44.—Baron de Marbot, *Memoirs*, v. 3.

1813 (May-August).—Battle of Bautzen.—Armistice of Pleswitz.—Accession of Austria

and Great Britain to the coalition against Napoleon.—"While the Emperor paused at Dresden, Ney made various demonstrations in the direction of Berlin, with the view of inducing the Allies to quit Bautzen; but it soon became manifest that they had resolved to sacrifice the Prussian capital, if it were necessary, rather than forego their position. . . . Having replaced by wood-work some arches of the magnificent bridge over the Elbe at Dresden, which the Allies had blown up on their retreat, Napoleon now moved towards Bautzen, and came in sight of the position on the morning of the 21st of May. Its strength was obviously great. In their front was the river Spree: wooded hills supported their right, and eminences well fortified their left. The action began with an attempt to turn their right, but Barclay de Tolly anticipated this movement, and repelled it with such vigour that a whole column of 7,000 dispersed and fled into the hills of Bohemia for safety. The Emperor then determined to pass the Spree in front of the enemy, and they permitted him to do so, rather than come down from their position. He took up his quarters in the town of Bautzen, and his whole army bivouacked in presence of the Allies. The battle was resumed at day-break on the 22d; when Ney on the right, and Oudinot on the left, attempted simultaneously to turn the flanks of the position; while Soult and Napoleon himself directed charge after charge on the centre. During four hours the struggle was maintained with unflinching obstinacy; the wooded heights, where Blücher commanded, had been taken and retaken several times—the bloodshed on either side had been terrible—ere . . . the Allies perceived the necessity either of retiring, or of continuing the fight against superior numbers on disadvantageous ground. They withdrew accordingly; but still with all the deliberate coolness of a parade, halting at every favourable spot and renewing their cannonade. 'What,' exclaimed Napoleon, 'no results! not a gun! not a prisoner!—these people will not leave me so much as a nail.' During the whole day he urged the pursuit with impetuous rage, reproaching even his chosen generals as 'creeping scoundrels,' and exposing his own person in the very hottest of the fire." His closest friend, Duroc, Grand Master of the Palace, was mortally wounded by his side, before he gave up the pursuit. "The Allies, being strongly posted during most of the day, had suffered less than the French; the latter had lost 15,000, the former 10,000 men. They continued their retreat into Upper Silesia; and Buonaparte advanced to Breslau, and released the garrison of Glogau. Meanwhile the Austrian, having watched these indecisive though bloody fields, once more renewed his offers of mediation. The sovereigns of Russia and Prussia expressed great willingness to accept it; and Napoleon also appears to have been sincerely desirous for the moment of bringing his disputes to a peaceful termination. He agreed to an armistice [of six weeks] and in arranging its conditions agreed to fall back out of Silesia; thus enabling the allied princes to reopen communications with Berlin. The lines of country to be occupied by the armies, respectively, during the truce, were at length settled, and it was signed on the 1st of June [at Pleswitz]. The French Emperor then returned to Dresden, and a general congress of diplomatists prepared to meet at Prague. England alone refused to send any representative to Prague, alleging that Buonaparte had as yet signified no disposition to recede from his pretensions on Spain, and that he had consented to the armistice with the sole view of gaining time for political intrigue and further military prepara-

tion. It may be doubted whether any of the allied powers who took part in the Congress did so with much hope that the disputes with Napoleon could find a peaceful end. . . . But it was of the utmost importance to gain time for the advance of Bernadotte; for the arrival of new reinforcements from Russia; for the completion of the Prussian organization; and, above all, for determining the policy of Vienna. Metternich, the Austrian minister, repaired in person to Dresden, and while inferior diplomatists wasted time in endless discussions at Prague, one interview between him and Napoleon brought the whole question to a definite issue. The Emperor . . . assumed at once that Austria had no wish but to drive a good bargain for herself, and asked broadly, 'What is your price? Will Illyria satisfy you? I only wish you to be neutral—I can deal with these Russians and Prussians single-handed.' Metternich stated plainly that the time in which Austria could be neutral was past; that the situation of Europe at large must be considered; . . . that events had proved the impossibility of a steadfast peace unless the sovereigns of the Continent were restored to the rank of independence; in a word, that the Rhenish Confederacy must be broken up; that France must be contented with the boundary of the Rhine, and pretend no longer to maintain her usurped and unnatural influence in Germany. Napoleon replied by a gross personal insult: 'Come, Metternich,' said he, 'tell me honestly how much the English have given you to take their part against me.' The Austrian court at length sent a formal document, containing its ultimatum, the tenor of which Metternich had sufficiently indicated in this conversation. Talleyrand and Fouché, who had now arrived from Paris, urged the Emperor to accede to the proffered terms. They represented to him the madness of rousing all Europe to conspire for his destruction, and insinuated that the progress of discontent was rapid in France itself. Their arguments were backed by intelligence of the most disastrous character from Spain [see SPAIN: 1812-1814]. . . . Napoleon was urged by his military as well as political advisers, to appreciate duly the crisis which his affairs had reached. . . . He proceeded to insult both ministers and generals . . . and ended by announcing that he did not wish for any plans of theirs, but their service in the execution of his. Thus blinded by arrogance and self-confidence, and incapable of weighing any other considerations against what he considered as the essence of his personal glory, Napoleon refused to abate one iota of his pretensions—until it was too late. Then, indeed, . . . he did show some symptoms of concession. A courier arrived at Prague with a note, in which he signified his willingness to accede to a considerable number of the Austrian stipulations. But this was on the 11th of August. The day preceding was that on which, by the agreement, the armistice was to end. On that day Austria had to sign an alliance, offensive and defensive, with Russia and Prussia. On the night between the 10th and 11th, rockets answering rockets, from height to height along the frontiers of Bohemia and Silesia, had announced to all the armies of the Allies this accession of strength, and the immediate recommencement of hostilities."—J. G. Lockhart, *Life of Napoleon Buonaparte*, ch. 32-33.—"On the 14th of June Great Britain had become a party to the treaty concluded between Russia and Prussia. She had promised assistance in this great struggle: but no aid could have been more effectual than that which she was rendering in the Peninsula."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England*, v. 7, ch. 32.

ALSO IN: G. R. Gleig, *Leipsic campaign*, ch. 7-16.—A. Thiers, *History of the consulate and the empire*, v. 4, bk. 48-49.—Prince Metternich, *Memoirs*, 1773-1815, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 8.—J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 3, pt. 7, ch. 4-5.—J. Philippart, *Northern campaigns, 1812-1813*, v. 2.

1813 (August-October).—Strength of Napoleon's army.—Opposing forces.—Provisional agreement between Francis I and the prince royal of Sweden.—Napoleon's proposed plan of operation.—Battle of Dresden.—Vandamme at Königstein.—French defeats at Katzbach, Gross-Beeren, and Kulm.—French reverses at Dennewitz.—Napoleon's march on Leipzig.—"During the armistice [Pleswitz] Napoleon had made the best possible use of his time. The army with which he now confronted the enemy is estimated at 440,000 men. Of cavalry, the lack of which he had lamented so bitterly a few weeks before, he now had a superabundance; nor was there any longer a deficiency of artillery. And although his forces were made up of the youngest of the youth of France and the states of the Rhenish Confederation available for service, yet we have seen these striplings at Lützen and Bautzen fight like veterans. . . . But money for the men's pay was scarce, and the corruption was incredible; so that the young warriors suffered excessively from hunger, which sent many thousands to the hospitals. Moreover, there was still a great scarcity of officers and subalterns; the latter doubtless because the Emperor took the best material for his Guard, which had now grown to 58,000 (normal strength 80,000) and was cared for with the same solicitude as before. It almost looked as if the Emperor, who was free from national ties, meant to make a personal army of this host within a host. Besides this body there were fourteen army corps. One corps of the division under Davout, on the lower Elbe, had been detached and sent to Dresden under Vandamme. A second was brought from Franconia and put under Saint-Cyr. Poniatowski had brought 12,000 unarmed Poles through Austria, and in addition there were five reserve corps of cavalry under Murat, the Emperor manifestly intending in this way to bring this general out of his political vacillation and bind him to himself. The entire force was stationed for the most part between Dresden and Liegnitz; only three corps under Oudinot were north of Kottbus and Kalau, facing Bülow, who was to cover Berlin. The allies, too, had been making mighty preparations during the last few months. Alexander I. had organized the recruiting system, so that troops could arrive from all parts of the Russian empire, to say nothing of the great reserves in Poland. Prussia, thanks to the warlike enthusiasm of her people, had done wonders. 'We now have an army,' wrote Gneisenau as early as on July 11th to Stein, 'such as Prussia never had before, even in her most glorious days.' Austria, likewise, had made all conceivable exertions. As to the plans for the proper utilizing of these forces (reckoned at 480,000) against the dreaded Cæsar, a provisional agreement had been reached even in June at Gitschin, when Francis I. first suggested the possibility of his co-operation with the other powers. The plans were further discussed and settled at Trachenberg, in concert with the Prince Royal of Sweden. There were to be three armies in the field. The main army was to occupy Bohemia, out of regard for Austria, which had been so courted and now feared a new invasion from the north and the occupation of Vienna by the enemy; re-enforcements from Silesia raised it to the desired

size, and at the end of the armistice it numbered 230,000 men. Then a northern army under Bernadotte (156,000, over 40,000 of which, however, were detached); and finally a Silesian army under Blücher (of 95,000). The fundamental plan of strategy adopted for the campaign was, that if the enemy threw himself with his main body on any one of these armies, it should fall back while the other two advanced to the attack. Napoleon had received no information of such a plan. He became aware of it quite late from the march of Russian troops toward Bohemia. He himself had never formed the purpose of marching on Vienna which was ascribed to him in the enemies' camp. His plan was quite different; he wanted Davout from Hamburg and Oudinot from the south to co-operate in an offensive movement on Berlin, which he thought would be successful, for he far underestimated the northern army and judged that to be the weakest point in the enemies' lines. To form a connecting link between those two generals a division under Girard was to proceed east from Magdeburg. After the Prussian capital had been occupied, Küstrin and Stettin were to be relieved at once and so the left wing of the entire French line would be pushed towards the east. In the meantime the Emperor meant to cover this movement by a vigorous defence against the other two armies, leaving the enemy to take the offensive. From what point the attack would be made he was not certain. To prepare for any emergency he took a temporary position at Görlitz with the Guard, supposing that the united forces of the Russians and Prussians might advance from Bohemia by way of Zittau. He tried to secure Dresden from being surprised by means of earthworks and palisades, and entrusted the defence to Saint-Cyr, though he himself could take part in it within a few days. But the expected offensive movement of the enemy at Zittau did not take place. On the contrary, Blücher had already commenced hostilities on the 16th of August and had driven four French corps under Ney, which were immediately in front of him at Leignitz, over the Bober. Napoleon wanted to retrieve the loss and strike Blücher a fatal blow. But the latter at once became aware of his presence by the very behaviour of the French troops, if not by the resounding cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' and discerning the purpose of a decisive movement, he did what had been agreed upon, and retired fighting beyond the Katzbach. The Emperor failed to see that this retreat was intentional, and so pushed on eagerly after him, until a call for help from Saint-Cyr unexpectedly overtook him: Dresden was most seriously threatened by the advance of a hostile army from the Erzgebirge. So the issue was to be determined in quite a different quarter from what Napoleon had supposed. He left Macdonald [commander at Katzbach] with three corps in front of Blücher and set out with the remainder to the west on the 23d of August. After extraordinary forced marches for three days the troops arrived in the vicinity of Dresden. The Emperor now conceived the daring plan of crossing the Elbe below the enemy, who was already near the city, so as to bring the hostile army between himself and Saint-Cyr, and thus cut off its line of retreat. But he was obliged to drop the brilliant conception at once; Saint-Cyr was too weak to make any lasting resistance, and the defensive works were still incomplete, so he had to choose the safer way and advance upon the enemy from Dresden. All he did was to send Vandamme [commander at Kulm] with 40,000 men to Pirna and Königstein, while he himself entered the city on the forenoon of the 26th of August with the

Guard, which had marched from Löwenberg in three days, over eighty-five miles. The corps of Marmont and Victor were still on the way. It was fortunate for him that at the enemy's headquarters, where Schwarzenberg was commander-in-chief, though with constant interference on the part of the three monarchs and their advisers, the favourable moment for attack the next morning was allowed on trifling grounds to slip by, and the assault on the city was postponed until the afternoon. Not until about four o'clock did the allies advance in a semicircle broken by the declivities near Plauen. But being without means for storming, and without re-enforcements on account of the scattered state of their forces, they were unable to spite of desperate valour to gain any lasting success, but just threw away their lives in the futile attempt to get possession of the suburbs. In the evening Napoleon himself issued from the gates to the attack and drove the Russians back on the left far beyond Striesen, the Austrians on the right to Löbtaw and Cotta, and the Austrians and Prussians in the centre to the heights of Räcknitz. The battle was won without the corps of Marmont and Victor, which arrived during the night and greatly strengthened the French army. On the next day the Emperor at once assumed the offensive. He engaged the enemy's right wing and centre, while Murat with his corps of cavalry pushed through between the centre and the left wing, which he cut off, surrounded, and routed, taking an Austrian division prisoners. The enemy's mistake in leaving his cavalry inactive in the centre greatly aided the victory of the French. Meantime Vandamme also had crossed the Elbe and engaged a weak corps of the enemy at Königston. Threatened in their rear, and with their left wing severely crippled, the allies retired. In those two days they had lost nearly a third of their forces in dead, wounded, and prisoners, while the enemy, being well protected by their position, had much smaller losses to report and could boast of another proud victory. If Napoleon had followed it up with the same skill with which he won it, the main army of the allies would have been overtaken by catastrophe that no successes of the other two armies could have retrieved. He did not do so. Primarily because, although he was certain of victory, he did not feel sure that the enemy, whose main forces in the centre and left wing had been but little engaged, would not renew the battle the next day. The commands he issued that evening leave no doubt that he expected yet a third day of fighting. And in fact the plan of retiring with the whole army to the heights of Dippoldiswalde and renewing the battle there was discussed at the headquarters of the allies far into the night. Finally, Schwarzenberg urged that the Austrians were poorly armed, and so ordered a retreat. Not until the next morning did Napoleon, riding forward to the line of battle of the preceding day, learn this decision when he saw the enemy's columns disappearing in the valleys on the road to Dippoldiswalde and Maxen. As Vandamme with 40,000 men held the Pirna highroad that led by Peterswalde to Teplitz, it was the Emperor's conviction that the allies would seek to reach Teplitz by shorter though less convenient roads. He ordered Saint-Cyr and Marmont to follow them on the road past Sayda Victor, while Murat was to march to Freyberg and Frauenstein and threaten their flank and rear. On the 28th he wrote to Vandamme, whose position near Pirna was not taken by Mortier, that the enemy seemed to have started in the direction of Altenberg, and that he prevent their making connections with Teplitz and especially do great dam-

age to their baggage-train. He himself by no means deemed the enemy conquered, having just expected him to renew the battle, and evidently regarded it as a great success that he had victoriously repulsed the assault of the main army. If he had any inkling of the dejection in the other camp, the ill-feeling of the Austrians, the poor order on the retreat, the confused marching of the columns so that 40,000 Prussians under Kleist had to turn aside and climb the hills to make any progress at all, he would not have wavered for a moment, but completed his victory by a crushing blow. But there was another circumstance. During the last few days the Emperor had been notified of a calamity that had befallen the army of Oudinot: it had been defeated at Gross-Beeren on the 23d of August by Bülow and forced to retreat to Wittenberg. And as if there were not enough, just now, as he was about joining the pursuing corps, the news arrived of a brilliant victory by Blücher on the 26th at Wahlstatt on the Katzbach over Macdonald, whereby the eastern army of the French lost 20,000 men and was driven back into the Lausitz. Under these circumstances could he still afford to go into Bohemia? He weighed this question and answered it in a series of notes in the negative. For it had been his main plan originally to remain on the defensive in the south and make an offensive movement only in the north. Hence the Dresden affair he regarded as merely a defensive victory, at a time when his scheme of an attack on Berlin and the Oder, where the garrisons could hold out no longer than October according to his reckoning, was on the point of miscarrying. That, therefore, must be the direction of his next movement with stronger forces and in person, whereas Dresden he merely put into a better defensive position. And now it was the politician in him that joined the strategist and led him astray; 'I can succeed thereby in separating the Russians from the Austrians, for I can bring to bear upon Austria my regard for her in not having carried the war into Bohemia.' It was his plan within the next two weeks to take Berlin,—supposing Macdonald to check Bülow,—provision Stettin, destroy the Prussian defences, and disorganize the landwehr. The pursuit into Bohemia was given up. It must be left to military experts to criticize the strategic aspect of this plan. Hitherto they have condemned it. And as if the very events themselves were to put the Emperor in the wrong, Vandamme in his advanced and isolated position met in front on the 29th of August resistance from a superior force of Russians and Austrians at Kuhn [Kulm], and finally, on the 30th, was attacked in the rear, as well, by Kleist, who had got behind him on the Peterswalde road. His corps was annihilated with the exception of a small remnant, which sought safety in flight over the mountains. Nor was the enterprise against Berlin destined to be carried out. The commands for it had indeed already been issued early in September, when a gloomy report came from Macdonald summoning the Emperor to Bautzen with the auxiliary corps. He repaired thither, intending to reinforce the threatened army with the corps of Marmont and a corps of cavalry, thus to defeat the impetuously advancing Blücher, and then move 'in great haste' on Berlin. An excellent plan. But suppose no battle ensued? Suppose Blücher, whose vehement energy was guided and held in check by the superior intellect of his chief-of-staff, Gneisenau, learns again, as once before, in August, of the Emperor's presence and retires, luring his foe after him into the wasted country? That was just what took place. Blücher fell back from

Hochkirch to Görlitz, fighting constantly. This time, however, Napoleon discerned his aim and stopped the pursuit. He was now obliged to move against Bernadotte without having defeated, as he had hoped, the Silesian army. He gave orders to that effect, when news comes from Dresden of a new offensive movement of the Bohemian army. In any case, he would have been too late in the north for the present; for the impetuous energy of Bülow and the valour of the Prussian landwehr, for which Napoleon's contempt knew no bounds, had inflicted such a decisive defeat on Ney (now in Oudinot's place) at Dennewitz on the 6th of September that he had to take flight far beyond Torgau. 'Your left flank is exposed,' wrote the defeated marshal to the Emperor on the next day, 'take care. I think it is time to leave the Elbe and retire to the Saale.' Before receiving this letter Napoleon had already arrived at Dresden, and in a reconnaissance beheld the heights of the mountain roads to Bohemia occupied by the enemy. For the allies, thoroughly elated by their own victory at Kuhn and the successes of the other two armies, as soon as they learned of Napoleon's advance against Blücher, undertook a double diversion in favour of the latter. A division of 60,000 Austrians was to cross the Elbe and fall on the flank of the advancing enemy at Rumburg, while the remainder of the main army held in check the forces left at Dresden. Napoleon was aware of the intended diversion at Rumburg. He sought to seize the moment to drive the enemy back to Peterswalde and there venture an advance into Bohemia if circumstances favoured. He succeeded in doing the first, but the nature of the country frustrated the latter intention, and on the 12th of September the Emperor was again in Dresden. When the allies, who had recalled all but one division of the Austrian corps at the first news of his presence, soon afterwards advanced anew over the mountains to mask Schwarzenberg's march north-west in the direction of Leipzig, Napoleon thwarted the scheme by making another sally as far as Kuhn [Kulm]. The enemy's position seemed to him still too strong for a successful attack, as he himself was obliged by the difficulty of procuring supplies to send two corps to the north to protect convoys on the Elbe. He had to content himself with a 'system of hither and thither' with Schwarzenberg. Here again he longed earnestly to be attacked, but in vain. The enemy evades the commander-in-chief and defeats his generals. But he cannot afford to remain idle long, as the circle of the hostile forces keeps drawing closer around him and he can provide for the masses of his troops in the restricted space only with daily-increasing difficulty. Ney, who had crossed again to the left bank of the Elbe, reported that the army of Bernadotte and Bülow were planning to cross that river and were making preparations for it in the vicinity of Dessau, and that one division of Blücher's army was approaching from the south-east. In the face of this danger of having his flank turned, Napoleon ordered a retreat to the left bank of the Elbe and abandoned the right. Ever since he had neglected the decisive moment after the battle of Dresden, his will-power seemed broken, and he himself to have become but a plaything of his enemies, tossed back and forth,—the people, on account of his repeated trips to Bautzen, jocularly called him the 'Bautzen Messenger,'—until at last his advance position was wholly untenable. Besides, the army was in a most uncomfortable condition, on every hand were discontent and bitterness, especially among the higher officers. Even strangers could not help taking

notice. The Würtemberg General Trancquemont wrote to his king on the 10th of September: 'The French generals and officers seem to me disgusted with the war, and only the presence of the Emperor can animate the soldiers.' In fact, when his eye was not resting on them, they threw aside their duty like a heavy burden, frequently got rid of their weapons and left the columns or stole away among the slightly wounded by maiming themselves. Hardly a month had passed since hostilities reopened, and already over 60,000 men and nearly 300 cannon had fallen into the hands of the enemy, while companies of hundreds, nay, thousands, of unarmed men were bound for the west. What drove these from the ranks was the terrible distress that set in when the harried lands of Silesia and Saxony had given up their last potatoes, and the convoys from the Elbe found it almost impossible to get through, now that Ney had retired. 'M. le Comte de Daru,' wrote Napoleon himself on the 23d of September to the director of the commissariat, 'the army is no longer being fed. It would be an illusion to take any other view of it.' But he could not help matters, and he was far from knowing all the wretchedness which eye-service, forgetful of duty, carefully tried to conceal just as it knew how to deceive him as to the truth of unpleasant facts. (It may have been Bertrand's accounts of the battle of Gross-Beeren that led Napoleon to withhold reinforcements from the northern army, thus facilitating its second defeat by the Prussians.) Under such circumstances it is hardly to be wondered at that of the 400,000 men at the Emperor's disposal at the middle of August, scarcely 250,000 answered the roll-call at the end of September. These were ill supplied with clothing and shoes, and soon ammunition began to fail as the transports from the west were captured by hostile bands with increasing frequency. While the allies were reinforced by a corps of 50,000 Russian and Polish reserves under command of Bennigsen, Augereau brought only 16,000 French troops to Leipzig. To be sure, orders were issued at Paris on the 27th of September for 160,000 conscripts of 1815 and 120,000 men of the last seven age classes; but although the Senate at once enacted the proper decree, the new recruits would be of no use in the immediate future, evidently so critical."—A. Fournier, *Napoleon the First* (tr. by E. G. Bourne), pp. 622-631.—"Napoleon now resolved to march against the Bohemian army at Leipzig. On October 14, on approaching the city from the north, he heard cannon-shots on the opposite side. It was the advanced guard of the main army, which was descending from the Erz-Gebirge range, after a sharp but indecisive cavalry battle with Murat at the village of Liebertwolkwitz, south of Dresden. In the broad, thickly settled plains around Leipzig, the armies of Europe now assembled for the final and decisive conflict. Napoleon's command included Portuguese, Spaniards, Neapolitans, and large contingents of Germans from the Rhine League, as well as the flower of the French youth; while the allies brought against him Cossacks and Calmucks, Swedes and Magyars, besides all the resources of Prussian patriotism and Austrian discipline. Never since the awful struggle at Chalons, which saved Western civilization from Attila, had there been a strife so well deserving the name of 'the battle of the nations.' West of the city of Leipzig runs the Pleisse, and flows into the Elster on the northwest side. Above their junction, the two streams run for some distance near one another, inclosing a sharp angle of swampy land. The great highway to Lindenau from Leipzig crosses the Elster, and then runs southwesterly to

Lützen and Weissenfels. South of the city and east of the Pleisse lie a number of villages, of which Wachau, Liebertwolkwitz, and Probstheida, nearer the city, were important points during the battle. The little river Partha approaches the city on the east, and then runs north, reaching the Elster at Gohlis. Napoleon occupied the villages north, east and south of the city, in a small circle around it."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, ch. 30, sect. 7-11.

ALSO IN: E. Baines, *History of the wars of the French Revolution*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 23.—Marshal Macdonald, *Souvenirs*.—Baron de Marbot, *Memoirs*, v. 3.

1813 (October).—"Battle of the nations."—"The town of Leipzig has four sides and four gates. . . . On the south is the rising ground called the Swedish Camp, and another called the Sheep-walk, bordering on the banks of the Pleisse. To this quarter the Grand Army of the Allies was seen advancing on the 15th of October. Buona-parto made his arrangements accordingly. Bertrand and Poniatowski defended Lindenau and the east side of the city, by which the French must retreat. Augereau was posted farther to the left, on the elevated plain of Wachau, and on the south, Victor, Lauriston, and Macdonald confronted the advance of the Allies with the Imperial Guards placed as a reserve. On the north, Marmont was placed between Mæckern and Euterist, to make head against Blücher, should he arrive in time to take part in the battle. On the opposite quarter, the sentinels of the two armies were within musket-shot of each other, when evening fell. . . . The number of men who engaged the next morning was estimated at 136,000 French, and 230,000 on the part of the Allies. . . . Napoleon remained all night in the rear of his own Guards, behind the central position, facing a village called Gossa, occupied by the Austrians. At daybreak on the 16th of October the battle began. The French position was assailed along all the southern front with the greatest fury. . . . The Allies having made six desperate attempts, . . . all of them unsuccessful, Napoleon in turn assumed the offensive. . . . This was about noon. The village of Gossa was carried by the bayonet. Macdonald made himself master of the Swedish Camp; and the eminence called the Sheep-walk was near being taken in the same manner. The impetuosity of the French had fairly broken through the centre of the Allies, and Napoleon sent the tidings of his success to the King of Saxony, who ordered all the bells in the city to be rung. . . . The King of Naples, with Latour-Maubourg and Kellermann, poured through the gap in the enemy's centre at the head of the whole body of cavalry, and thundered forward as far as Magdeburg, a village in the rear of the Allies, bearing down General Rayefskoi with the Grenadiers of the Russian reserve. At this moment, while the French were disordered by their own success, Alexander, who was present, ordered forward the Cossacks of his Guard, who, with their long lances, bore back the dense body of cavalry that had so nearly carried the day. Meantime, as had been apprehended, Blücher arrived before the city, and suddenly came into action with Marmont, being three times his numbers. He in consequence obtained great and decided advantages; and before night-fall had taken the village of Mæckern, together with 20 pieces of artillery and 2,000 prisoners. But on the south side the contest continued doubtful. Gossa was still disputed. . . . General Mehrfeldt fell into the hands of the French. The battle raged till night-fall, when it ceased by mutual consent. . . . The armies slept on the ground they had occupied

during the day. The French on the southern side had not relinquished one foot of their original position, though attacked by such superior numbers. Marmont had indeed been forced back by Blücher, and compelled to crowd his line of defence nearer the walls of Leipsic. Thus pressed on all sides with doubtful issues, Buonaparte availed himself of the capture of General Mehrfeldt to demand an armistice and to signify his acceptance of the terms proposed by the Allies, but which were now found to be too moderate. . . . Napoleon received no answer till his troops had recrossed the Rhine; and the reason assigned is, that the Allies had pledged themselves solemnly to each other to enter into no treaty with him 'while a single individual of the French army remained in Germany.' . . . The 17th was spent in preparations on both sides, without any actual hostilities. At eight o'clock on the morning of the 18th they were renewed with tenfold fury. Napoleon had considerably contracted his circuit of defence, and the French were posted on an inner line, nearer to Leipsic, of which Probstheyda was the central point. . . . Barclay, Wittgenstein, and Kleist advanced on Probstheyda, where they were opposed by Murat, Victor, Augereau, and Lauriston, under the eye of Napoleon himself. On the left Macdonald had drawn back his division to a village called Stoetteritz. Along this whole line the contest was maintained furiously on both sides; nor could the terrified spectators, from the walls and steeples of Leipsic, perceive that it either receded or advanced. About two o'clock the Allies forced their way . . . into Probstheyda; the camp-followers began to fly; the tumult was excessive. Napoleon . . . placed the reserve of the Old Guard in order, led them in person to recover the village, and saw them force their entrance ere he withdrew to the eminence from whence he watched the battle. . . . The Allies, at length, felt themselves obliged to desist from the murderous attacks on the villages which cost them so dear; and, withdrawing their troops, kept up a dreadful fire with their artillery. The French replied with equal spirit, though they had fewer guns; and, besides, their ammunition was falling short. Still, however, Napoleon completely maintained the day on the south of Leipsic, where he commanded in person. On the northern side, the yet greater superiority of numbers placed Ney in a precarious situation; and, pressed hard both by Blücher and the Crown-Prince, he was compelled to draw nearer the town, and had made a stand on an eminence called Heiterblick, when on a sudden the Saxons, who were stationed in that part of the field, deserted from the French and went over to the enemy. In consequence of this unexpected disaster, Ney was unable any longer to defend himself. It was in vain that Buonaparte dispatched his reserves of cavalry to fill up the chasm that had been made; and Ney drew up the remainder of his forces close under the walls of Leipsic. The battle once more ceased at all points. . . . Although the French army had thus kept its ground up to the last moment on these two days, yet there was no prospect of their being able to hold out much longer at Leipsic. . . . All things counselled a retreat, which was destined (like the rest of late) to be unfortunate. . . . The retreat was commenced in the night-time; and Napoleon spent a third harassing night in giving the necessary orders for the march. He appointed Macdonald and Poniatowski . . . to defend the rear. . . . A temporary bridge which had been erected had given way, and the old bridge on the road to Lindenau was the only one that remained

for the passage of the whole French army. But the defence of the suburbs had been so gallant and obstinate that time was allowed for this purpose. At length the rear-guard itself was about to retreat, when, as they approached the banks of the river, the bridge blew up by the mistake of a sergeant of a company of sappers who . . . set fire to the mine of which he had charge before the proper moment. This catastrophe effectually barred the escape of all those who still remained on the Leipsic side of the river, except a few who succeeded in swimming across, among whom was Marshal Macdonald. Poniatowski . . . was drowned in making the same attempt. In him, it might be said, perished the last of the Poles. About 25,000 French were made prisoners of war, with a great quantity of artillery and baggage."—W. Hazlitt, *Life of Napoleon*, v. 3, ch. 50.—"The battle of Leipsic was over. Already had the allied sovereigns entered the town, and forcing, not without difficulty, their way through the crowd, passed on to the market-place. Here, the house in which the King of Saxony had lodged was at once made known to them by the appearance of the Saxon troops whom Napoleon had left to guard their master. . . . Moreover, the King himself . . . stood bare-headed on the steps of the stairs. But the Emperor of Russia, who appears at once to have assumed the chief direction of affairs, took no notice of the suppliants. . . . The battle of Leipsic constitutes one of those great hinges on which the fortunes of the world may be said from time to time to turn. The importance of its political consequence cannot be overestimated."—G. R. Gleig, *Leipsic campaign*, ch. 41.—"No more here than at Moscow must we seek in the failure of the leader's talents the cause of such deplorable results,—for he was never more fruitful in resource, more bold, more resolute, nor more a soldier,—but in the illusions of pride, in the wish to regain at a blow an immense fortune which he had lost, in the difficulty of acknowledging to himself his defeat in time, in a word, in all those errors which we may discern in miniature and caricature in an ordinary gambler, who madly risks riches acquired by folly; errors which are found on a large and terrible scale in this gigantic gambler, who plays with human blood as others play with money. As gamblers lose their fortunes twice,—once from not knowing where to stop, and a second time from wishing to restore it at a single cast,—so Napoleon endangered his at Moscow by wishing to make it exorbitantly large, and in the Dresden campaign by seeking to restore it in its full extent. The cause was always the same, the alteration not in the genius, but in the character, by the deteriorating influence of unlimited power and success."—A. Thiers, *History of the consulate and the empire*, v. 4, bk. 50.

Also in: Duke de Rovigo, *Memoirs*, v. 3, pt. 2, ch. 17.—J. C. Ropes, *First Napoleon*.—Baron de Marbot, *Memoirs*, v. 2, ch. 38-39.

1813 (October-December).—Retreat of Napoleon beyond the Rhine.—Battle of Hanau.—Liberation achieved.—Fall of the kingdom of Westphalia.—Surrender of French garrisons and forces.—"Notwithstanding the sluggish pursuit of the beaten army, the battle of Leipzig brought freedom to all the German lands as far as the Rhine. To the Austrians also the victory which had been gained seemed almost too great as soon as its import was fully grasped. The inevitable annihilation of the Napoleonic power was in prospect, but it was averted by the fault of the great headquarters-staff. Bennigsen's army withdrew to the Elbe; the Bohemian army advanced slowly westward through Franconia and Thuringia; the

northern army returned towards Hanover and Westphalia. But Blicher, upon the Frankfort road, followed close upon the heels of the enemy, until, when only a day's march from the Emperor's headquarters, he suddenly received orders to turn aside from the direct road, towards Wetterau and the valley of the Lahn, because Emperor Francis with his Austrians wished to enter the old coronation town. Consequently with his rear unmenaced Napoleon conducted his troops through the difficult and narrow passes of the Rhöngelbirge. Thousands had deserted, to live as marauders, and many had been slaughtered by the infuriated peasants, but the nucleus of the army held together, successfully reached the plain of the Main at Hanau, and there, breaking forth from the forest of Lamboy, defeated the Bavarian-Austrian army under General Wrede, who endeavoured to bar its passage (October 30th and 31st). The Bavarian leader, the most outrageous boaster among the mercenaries of the Confederation of the Rhine, had expected by a brilliant victory to secure for his state the favour of the allied powers, but he had wasted valuable days before the walls of Würzburg, and did not attain at the favourable moment the advantageous position on the Kinzig passes, where the French retreat could have been easily cut off. He had supposed that the allies would be closely pursuing the enemy, and when he at length perceived his error, he did not decline battle, because Bavaria had to earn the confidence of her new friends. Consequently the Emperor had the satisfaction of closing his German campaigns with the humiliation of an unfaithful vassal. A force of 70,000 men gained the left bank of the Rhine. Here, however, the last energies of the unfortunate men collapsed; their ranks were thinned by terrible outbreaks of illness, and for some weeks France was without an army, defenceless against any attack. The 100,000 men who were still dispersed through the fortresses of North Germany and Poland were given up for lost by Napoleon. He offered to evacuate the lines of the Oder and the Vistula, on condition that the garrisons should be allowed to withdraw unmolested, but the allies saw through his design and refused to present the desperate man with a new army. Bülow's corps had the delight of reoccupying the lost western provinces. As soon as the news of the battle of Leipzig arrived, the Westphalian director of taxes, von Motz, immediately brought out his old uniform, and made his appearance in Mülhausen as royal Prussian Landrat; the people obeyed his orders as a matter of course. Everywhere the liberators were received with open arms, and nowhere with more loudly expressed delight than in East Frisia, the favorite country of the great king. . . . The same moving manifestations of self-sacrificing upheaval which in the spring had been witnessed in the eastern provinces, were now seen in the west. . . . In most circles of Cleves and of the County Mark, a formal levying of troops was unnecessary, for the supply of volunteers greatly exceeded the demand. Even the East Frisians, whom King Frederick had exempted from cantonal duty, overcame the hostility of seamen to military service, and offered themselves in great numbers. The result was that a large proportion of the troops that were formed in such haste were able to be utilised advantageously for investing the French fortresses. . . . [On the other hand] when in December the allies entered Alsace, they were everywhere encountered with a gloomy and fanatical hatred. The people had been completely intoxicated by the warlike renown of the Napoleonic eagles, and the peasants believed, even more firmly

than in the nineties, that the victory of the coalition would revive for them the vexations of the tithes and of the corvée. . . . Among all the princes of the north-west, it was only the minor mediatised lords who showed any zeal for the German cause, and this was because they hoped to regain their crowns by their valour in war. . . . General Bülow issued a threat that he would have all the petty princes of Westphalia arrested if they ventured to give themselves out as ruling princes. The Hansa towns were more fortunate than these mediatised lords. As early as November 5th, the ancient senate of Bremen assembled upon its own responsibility; the re-establishment of the republic was formally proclaimed, and Smidt was sent to the headquarters at Frankfort. The adroit diplomat immediately urged the citizens of Hamburg and of Lübeck to send representatives to the monarch, and able to influence the Austrian statesmen so cleverly that they overcame their mistrust of anything republican. . . . The three towns received assent to their re-establishment, and by the fault of Stein, yet a fourth republic was introduced into the new monarchical Germany, the old coronation town of Frankfort. . . . These Rhenish confederates, now that the issue was decided, all thronged busily round the allies. As had formerly happened at Rastatt, in Paris, and in Posen, the high nobility of Germany sued for the grace of the conqueror, and this time it was not necessary to come with hands full of money. When Emperor Francis entered Frankfort, he was greeted by the shouting people as the ruler of Germany; the same 'our emperor' once more exercised its powerful charm upon German hearts. . . . As early as the beginning of November, Metternich, in opposition to the letter and to the spirit of the treaty of Teplitz, had entered into separate negotiations with the captured French diplomat St. Aignan, and had assured him that no one contemplated the dethronement of Napoleon. If the Emperor would recognise the independence of Spain, Italy, and Holland, France could maintain her old position of power within her natural frontiers between the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, and, without any formal suzerainty, could exercise over the petty German states that influence which every great nation necessarily possesses over its less powerful neighbours. . . . Meanwhile Stein, whom the Austrian statesmen had hitherto retained in Leipzig, came to Frankfort, and immediately threw himself with ardent zeal into the cause of the continuation of the war. He proved successful in winning over the czar, and subsequently the king as well. Napoleon's pride could not brook giving an immediate assent to the unduly favourable proposals of Austria. When he at length declared himself ready to undertake negotiations for peace, with the proviso that the petty states of Germany and Italy must in some way or other be subjected to his suzerainty, at the headquarters the decision had already been made, not indeed to break off the negotiations, but simultaneously to carry on the war. Thus Stein had won the game, for every new success of the allied armies must unavoidably render the peace conditions more onerous. . . . The manifesto of December 1st, which announced to the French the intended attack, seemed precisely calculated to increase to the utmost that French arrogance, which during the past two decades the world had never allowed to slumber. In flattering terms, such as had never before been employed in a declaration of war, the allies excused their undertaking. . . . The Austrian war authorities had discovered upon the map the plateau of Langres, that modest elevation on the frontiers of the Burgun-



dian highlands which constitutes the watershed of three river basins, leading to as many seas. They assumed that Napoleon in his campaigns would also allow himself to be guided by the considerations of geographical learning, and were prepared to demonstrate that 'a winter campaign against this remarkable plateau would force the Emperor to make peace.' In December, the great army slowly set itself in motion in order to make a wide detour, through Baden, Alsace, and Switzerland, to Langres. In pursuing this plan, the Hofburg was at the same time working with accessory political aims in view, intending to restore in Switzerland the old aristocratic régime, and to force the enemy to evacuate the Italian theatre of war, which was far more important to Austria than to France. The Austrian strategists justified the unnatural artificiality of this plan of campaign, which arbitrarily diverted the principal power of the allies

this was the only great siege in this war so full of battles. Far more important was the conquest of Holland. Since Bernadotte had in November proceeded from Hanover to Denmark, in order to secure his Norwegian booty, Bülow was freed from the detested commander-in-chief; he advanced from Westphalia into the Netherlands, and the world immediately learned once more what the northern army was capable of effecting, when it was allowed to act freely. General Oppen stormed the fortress of Doesborgh; the Kolberg regiment and the queen's dragoons, the old Ansbach-Bayreuths, added a new leaf to their laurels. Next Arnheim was taken by storm, the passage was forced across the Rhine and the Meuse, Herzogenbusch had to open its gates, and from now onwards, as in the days of the great elector, the predominant position of France in the Netherlands had been overthrown by the might of Prussian arms."—H. G. von Treit-



BLÜCHER CROSSING THE RHINE AT CAAB IN JANUARY, 1814

(Painting by Huttenroth)

from the direct and safe road to victory, by the extraordinary contention that in this way they would gain the support of Wellington's army, which was in the extreme southwest of France, near the Pyrenees. The leaders of the Silesian army wished to keep Langeron occupied in the investment of Mainz, far from the theatre of war. It was only after a long and violent struggle that Blücher secured permission to cross the French frontier on the Middle Rhine. Thence, by the territories of the Saar and Lorraine, he also was to gain the wonderful plateau. Thus did the incapacity of an antediluvian policy and strategy give the Emperor another chance of rescue, furnishing him with three months' respite in which to create a new army. . . . Meanwhile some of the fortresses of the north-east, which were defended by the French with commendable tenacity, at length fell into the hands of the allies, and among these Danzig and Torgau. On January 13th, Wittenberg was taken by storm by Tautentzien's troops, after a fierce artillery attack which was ably directed by young Bardeleben;

schke, *History of Germany in the nineteenth century* (tr. by Eden and Cedar Paul), v. 1, pp. 508-600, 602-603, 607-608, 615-618.—See also AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

ALSO IN: *Epitome of Alison's history of Europe*, sect. 737-742 (v. 17, ch. 82, in complete work).—M. Bourrienne, *Private memoirs of Napoleon*, v. 4, ch. 16.—A. Fournier, *Napoleon the First*.—J. Philippart, *Campaign in Germany and France*, 1813, v. 1, pp. 230-278.

1814.—Allies in France and in possession of Paris.—Collapse of the empire.—Fall of Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March); (March-April).

1814.—Extent of holdings in Lombardy. See ITALY: 1814.

1814 (May).—Readjustment of French boundaries by the Treaty of Paris. See FRANCE: 1814 (April-June).

1814-1815.—Congress of Vienna.—Its territorial and political readjustments. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1814-1820.—Reconstruction of Germany.—Germanic confederation and its constitution.—“Germany was now utterly disintegrated. The Holy Roman Empire had ceased to exist; the Confederation of the Rhine had followed it; and from the Black Forest to the Russian frontier there was nothing but angry ambitions, vengeance, and fears. If there was ever to be peace again in all these wide regions, it was clearly necessary to create something new. What was to be created was a far more difficult question; but already, on the 30th of May 1814, the powers had come to some sort of understanding, if not with regard to the means to be pursued, at least with regard to the end to be attained. In the Treaty of Paris we find these words: ‘Les états de l’Allemagne seront indépendants et unis par un lien fédératif.’ But how was this to be effected? There were some who wished the Holy Roman Empire to be restored. . . . Of course neither Prussia, Bavaria, nor Wurtemberg, could look kindly upon a plan so obviously unfavourable to them; but not even Austria really wished it, and indeed it had few powerful friends. Then there was a project of a North and South Germany, with the Maine for boundary; but this was very much the reverse of acceptable to the minor princes, who had no idea of being grouped like so many satellites, some around Austria and some around Prussia. Next came a plan of reconstruction by circles, the effect of which would have been to have thrown all the power of Germany into the hands of a few of the larger states. To this all the smaller independent states were bitterly opposed, and it broke down, although supported by the great authority of Stein, as well as by Gagern. If Germany had been in a later phase of political development, public opinion would perhaps have forced the sovereigns to consent to the formation of a really united Fatherland with a powerful executive and a national parliament—but the time for that had not arrived. What was the opposition of a few hundred clear-sighted men with their few thousand followers, that it should prevail over the masters of so many legions? What these potentates cared most about were their sovereign rights, and the dream of German unity was very readily sacrificed to the determination of each of them to be, as far as he possibly could, absolute master in his own dominions. Therefore it was that it soon became evident that the results of the deliberation on the future of Germany would be, not a federative state, but a confederation of states—a Staaten-Bund, not a Bundes-Staat. There is no doubt, however, that much mischief might have been avoided if all the stronger powers had worked conscientiously together to give this Staaten-Bund as national a character as possible. . . . Prussia was really honestly desirous to effect something of this kind, and Stein, Hardenberg, William von Humboldt, Count Münster, and other statesmen, laboured hard to bring it about. Austria, on the other hand, aided by Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden, did all she could to oppose such projects. Things would perhaps have been settled better than they ultimately were, if the return of Napoleon from Elba had not frightened all Europe from its propriety, and turned the attention of the sovereigns towards warlike preparations. . . . The document by which the Germanic Confederation is created is of so much importance that we may say a word about the various stages through which it passed. First, then, it appears as a paper drawn up by Stein in March 1814, and submitted to Hardenberg, Count Münster, and the Emperor Alexander. Next, in the month of September, it took the form of an

official plan, handed by Hardenberg to Metternich, and consisting of forty-one articles. This plan contemplated the creation of a confederation which should have the character rather of a Bundes-Staat than of a Staaten-Bund; but it went to pieces in consequence of the difficulties which we have noticed above, and out of it, and of ten other official proposals, twelve articles were sublimated by the rival chemistry of Hardenberg and Metternich. Upon these twelve articles the representatives of Austria, Prussia, Hanover, and Wurtemberg, deliberated. Their sittings were cut short partly by the ominous appearance which was presented in the autumn of 1814 by the Saxon and Polish questions, and partly by the difficulties from the side of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, which we have already noticed. The spring brought a project of the Austrian statesman Wessenberg, who proposed a Staaten-Bund rather than a Bundes-Staat; and out of this and a new Prussian project drawn up by W. von Humboldt, grew the last sketch, which was submitted on the 23d of May 1815 to the general conference of the plenipotentiaries of all Germany. They made short work of it at the last, and the Federal-Act (Bundes-Acte) bears date June 8th, 1815. This is the document which is incorporated in the principal act of the Congress of Vienna, and placed under the guarantee of eight European powers, including France and England. Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Homburg, did not form part of the Confederation for some little time—the latter not till 1817; but after they were added to the powers at first consenting, the number of the sovereign states in the Confederation was altogether thirty-nine. . . . The following are the chief stipulations of the Federal Act. The object of the Confederation is the external and internal security of Germany, and the independence and inviolability of the confederate states. A diète fédérative (Bundes-Versammlung) is to be created, and its attributions are sketched. The Diet is, as soon as possible, to draw up the fundamental laws of the Confederation. No state is to make war with another on any pretence. All federal territories are mutually guaranteed. There is to be in each state a ‘Landständische Verfassung’—‘il y aura des assemblées d’états dans tous les pays de la Confédération.’ Art. 14 reserves many rights to the mediatised princes. Equal civil and political rights are guaranteed to all Christians in all German States, and stipulations are made in favour of the Jews. The Diet did not actually assemble before the 5th of November 1816. Its first measures, and, above all, its first words, were not unpopular. The Holy Allies, however, pressed with each succeeding month more heavily upon Germany, and got at last the control of the Confederation entirely into their hands. The chief epochs in this sad history were the Congress of Carlsbad, 1819—the resolutions of which against the freedom of the press were pronounced by Gentz to be a victory more glorious than Leipzig; the ministerial conferences which immediately succeeded it at Vienna; and the adoption by the Diet of the Final Act (Schluss Acte) of the Confederation on the 8th of June 1820. The following are the chief stipulations of the Final Act:—The Confederation is indissoluble. No new member can be admitted without the unanimous consent of all the states, and no federal territory can be ceded to a foreign power without their permission. The regulations for the conduct of business by the Diet are amplified and more carefully defined. All quarrels between members of the Confederation are to be stopped before recourse is had to violence. The Diet may interfere to keep order in a state where



# GERMANY

AFTER THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA 1815.

PRUSSIAN   
 AUSTRIAN 

THE BOUNDARY OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION, AS ARRANGED BY THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, IS SHOWN BY THE HEAVY RED LINE.



## THE NETHERLANDS



SHOWING THE CHANGES OF 1830-1839

THE TERRITORY LOST BY THE KING OF HOLLAND IS SHOWN IN BORDER COLOR  
 THE ALTERATIONS IN THE WESTERN BOUNDARY OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION IN 1834 ARE SHOWN BY THE DOTTED RED LINES.

## GERMANY

AFTER THE PEACE OF PRAGUE 1866.

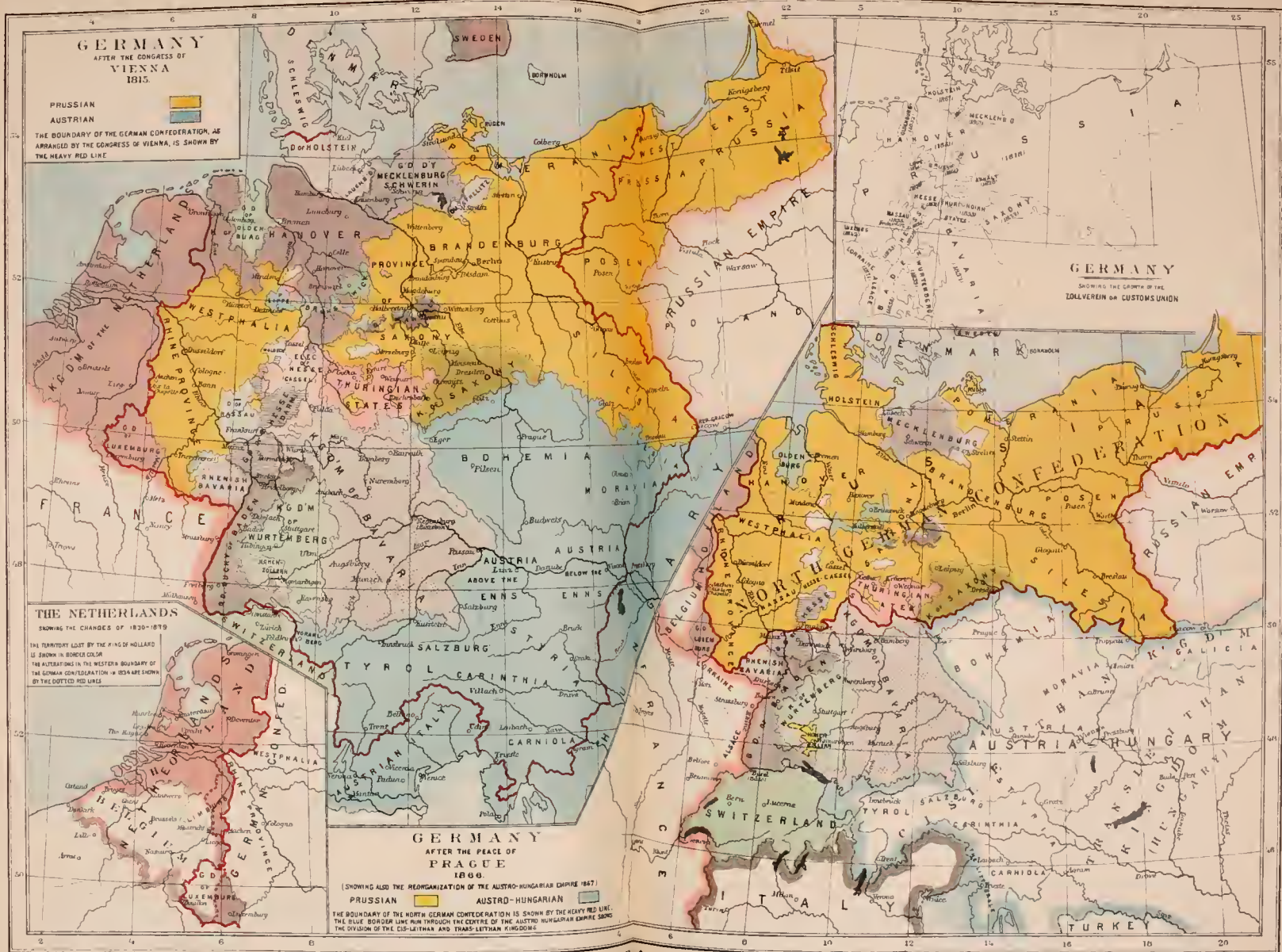
(SHOWING ALSO THE REORGANIZATION OF THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE (1867))

PRUSSIAN  AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN 

THE BOUNDARY OF THE NORTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION IS SHOWN BY THE HEAVY RED LINE.  
 THE BLUE BORDER LINE RUN THROUGH THE CENTRE OF THE AUSTRO HUNGARIAN EMPIRE SHOWS THE DIVISION OF THE CIS-LEITHAN AND TRANS-LEITHAN KINGDOMS.



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the government of that state is notoriously incapable of doing so. Federal execution is provided for in case any government resists the authority of the Diet. Other articles declare the right of the Confederation to make war and peace as a body, to guard the rights of each separate state from injury, to take into consideration the differences between its members and foreign nations, to mediate between them, to maintain the neutrality of its territory, to make war when a state belonging to the Confederation is attacked in its non-federal territory if the attack seems likely to endanger Germany."—M. E. G. Duff, *Studies in European politics*, ch. 5.—See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Modern federations; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

ALSO IN: J. R. Seeley, *Life and times of Stein*, v. 3, pt. 8.—E. Hertslet, *Map of Europe by treaty*, v. 1, no. 26 (*Text of federative constitution*).

1815.—Napoleon's return from Elba.—Quadruple Alliance.—Waterloo campaign and its results. See FRANCE: 1814-1815; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3.

1815.—Final overthrow of Napoleon.—Allies again in Paris.—Second treaty with France.—Restitutions and indemnities.—French frontier of 1790 reestablished. See FRANCE: 1815 (June); (June-August).

1815.—Holy Alliance. See HOLY ALLIANCE.

1817-1820.—Burschenschaft.—Assassination of Kotzebue.—Karlsbad conference.—"In 1817, the students of several Universities assembled at the Wartburg in order to celebrate the tercentenary of the Reformation. In the evening, a small number of them, the majority having already left, were carried away by enthusiastic zeal, and, in imitation of Luther, burnt a number of writings recently published against German freedom, together with other emblems of what was considered hateful in the institutions of some of the German States. These youthful excesses were viewed by the Governments as symptoms of grave peril. At the same time, a large number of students united to form one great German Burschenschaft [association of students], whose aim was the cultivation of a love of country, a love of freedom, and the moral sense. Thereupon increased anxiety on the part of the Governments, followed by vexatious police interference. Matters grew worse in consequence of the rash act of a fanatical student, named Sand. It became known that the Russian Government was using all its powerful influence to have liberal ideas suppressed in Germany, and that the playwright Kotzebue had secretly sent to Russia slanderous and libellous reports on German patriots. Sand travelled to Mannheim and thrust a dagger into Kotzebue's heart. The consequences were most disastrous to the cause of freedom in Germany. The distrust of the Governments reached its height: it was held that this bloody deed must needs be the result of a wide-spread conspiracy; the authorities suspected demagogues everywhere. Ministers, of course at the instigation of Metternich, met at Karlsbad, and determined on repressive measures. These were afterwards adopted by the Federal Diet at Frankfort, which henceforth became an instrument in the hands of the Emperor Francis and his Minister for guiding the internal policy of the German States. Accordingly, the cession of state-constitutions was opposed, and prosecutions were instituted throughout Germany against all who identified themselves with the popular movement; many young men were thrown into prison; gymnastic and other societies were arbitrarily suppressed; a rigid censorship of the press was established, and the freedom of the Universities restrained; various professors, among them

Arndt, whose songs had helped to fire the enthusiasm of the *Freiheitskämpfer*—the soldiers of Freedom—in the recent war, were deprived of their offices; the Burschenschaft was dissolved, and the wearing of their colours, the future colours of the German Empire, black, red, and gold, was forbidden. . . . The Universities continued to uphold the national idea; the Burschenschaft soon secretly revived as a private association, and as early as 1820 there again existed at most German Universities, Burschenschaften, which, though their aims were not sharply defined, bore a political colouring and placed the demand for German Unity in the foreground."—G. Krause, *Growth of German unity*, ch. 8.

1817-1840.—Tendencies towards Germanic union and Prussian leadership.—Zollverein.—"In Austria, in the decades succeeding the wars of liberation, there reigned the most immovable quiet. The much-praised system of government consisted in unthinking inactivity. The Emperor Francis, a man with the nature of a subaltern official, hated anything that approached to a constitution, and a saying of his was often quoted: 'Totus mundus stultizat et vult habere constitutiones novas.' Metternich's power rested on the 'dead motionlessness' of affairs. As far as his German policy was concerned his aim was to hold fast to the preponderating influence of Austria over the German states, but not to undertake any responsibilities towards them. . . . As for Prussia, in spite of the great sacrifices which she had made, she emerged from the diplomatic negotiations and intrigues of the Vienna Congress with the most unfavorable disposition of territory imaginable. To the five million inhabitants that had remained to her five and a half millions were added in districts that had belonged to more than a hundred different territories and had stood under the most varied laws. There began now for this state a time well filled with quiet work, the aim and object being to create a whole out of the various parts."—Bruno-Gebhardt, *Lehrbuch der deutschen Geschichte* (tr. from the German), v. 2, pp. 501-504.—"The German confederation was, on the whole, provisional in its character; this fact comes out more and more plainly with each thorough analysis and illustration of its constitution and of its institutions. . . . Technically the emperor of Austria had the honorary direction of the confederation; practically he possessed as emperor of Germany little or no power. . . . In reality the strongest member of the German confederation was the kingdom of Prussia. . . . Only gradually, in the various heads, did the opinion begin to form of the historical vocation of Prussia to take her place at the head of the German confederation or, possibly, of a new German empire. Gradually this opinion ripened into a firmer and firmer conviction and gained more and more supporters. The more evidently impossible an actual guidance of Germany by Austria became, the more conscious did men grow of the danger of the whole situation should the dualism be allowed to continue. In consequence of this the idea of the Prussian hegemony began to be viewed with constantly increasing favor. A great step forward in this direction was taken by the Prussian government when it called into being the Zollverein [or customs-union]. The Zollverein laid iron bands around the separate parts of the German nation. It was utterly impossible to think of forming a customs-union with Austria, for all economic interests were as widely different as possible; on purely material grounds the division between Austria and Prussia showed itself to be a necessity. On the other hand the economic bonds between

Prussia and the rest of the German lands grew stronger from day to day. This material union was the prelude to the political one: the Zollverein was the best and most effectual preparation for the German federal state or for the German empire of later days."—W. Maurenbrecher, *Gründung des deutschen Reichs*, pp. 4, 5.—"Paul Pfizer wrote in 1831 his 'correspondence of two Germans,' the first writing in the German language in which liberation from Austria and union with Prussia was put down as the solution of the German question, and in which faith in Prussia was made a part of such love to the German fatherland as should be no longer a mere dream. . . . 'So little as the dead shall rise again this side the grave, so little will Austria, which once held the heritage of German fame and German glory, ever again become for Germany what she has once been.'"—W. Oncken, *Das Zeitalter des Kaisers Wilhelm* (tr. from the German), v. 1, pp. 69, 70.—The formation of the Zollverein "was the most important occurrence since the wars of liberation: a deed of peace of more far-reaching consequences and productive of more lasting results than many a battle won. The economic blessings of the Zollverein soon began to show themselves in the increasing sum total of the amount of commerce and in the regularly growing customs revenues of the individual states. These revenues, for example, increased between 1834 and 1842 from 12 to 21 million thalers. Foreign countries began to look with respect and in part also with envy on this commercial unity of Germany and on the results which could not fail to come. . . . A second event happened in Germany in 1834, less marked in its beginnings and yet scarcely less important in its results than the Zollverein. Between Leipzig and Dresden the first large railroad in Germany was started, the first mesh in that network of roads that was soon to branch out in all directions and spread itself over all Germany. . . . A direct political occurrence, independent of the Zollverein and the railroads, was, in the course of the thirties, to assist in awakening and strengthening the idea of unity in the German people by making evident and plain the lack of such unity and its disastrous consequences. This was the Hanoverian 'coup d'état' of the year 1837. . . . In that year William IV. of England died without direct successors. . . . Hanover came into the hands of the Duke of Cumberland, Ernest Augustus. . . . The new king, soon after his inauguration, refused to recognize the constitution that had been given to Hanover in 1833, on the ground that his ratification as next heir to the throne had not been asked at that time. . . . By persistent efforts Ernest Augustus . . . in 1840 brought about a constitution that suited him. Still more than this constitutional struggle itself did a single incident connected with it occupy and excite public opinion far and wide. Seven professors of the Göttingen university protested against the abrogation of the constitution of 1833. . . . Without more ado they were dismissed from their positions. . . . The brave deed of the Göttingen professors and the new act of violence committed against them caused intense excitement throughout all Germany. . . . In the course of the forties the idea of nationality penetrated more and more all the pores of German opinion and gave to it more and more, by pressure from all sides, the direction of a great and common goal. At first there were only isolated attempts at reform . . . but soon the national needs outgrew such single expressions of good will. . . . A tendency began to show itself in the public opinion of Germany to accept the plan of a Prussian leadership of all un-Austrian Germany."—K. Bieder-

mann, *Dreissig Jahre deutscher Geschichte*, v. 1, pp. 9-91.

1817-1876.—Independence of the Lutheran church. See LUTHERAN CHURCH: 1817-1876.

1818.—Congress following Napoleonic wars.—Decisions reached. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3.

1819-1847.—Arbitrary rulers and discontented subjects.—Ferment before revolution.—Formation of the Zollverein.—"The history of Germany during the thirty years of peace which followed [the Congress of Carlsbad] is marked by very few events of importance. It was a season of gradual reaction on the part of the rulers, and of increasing impatience and emity on the part of the people. Instead of becoming loving families, as the Holy Alliance designed, the states (except some of the little principalities) were divided into two hostile classes. There was material growth everywhere; the wounds left by war and foreign occupation were gradually healed; there was order, security for all who abstained from politics, and a comfortable repose for such as were indifferent to the future. But it was a sad and disheartening period for the men who were able to see clearly how Germany, with all the elements of a freer and stronger life existing in her people, was falling behind the political development of other countries. The three days' Revolution of 1830, which placed Louis Philippe on the throne of France, was followed by popular uprisings in some parts of Germany. Prussia and Austria were too strong, and their people too well held in check, to be affected; but in Brunswick the despotic Duke Karl was deposed, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were obliged to accept co-rulers (out of their reigning families) and the English Duke, Ernest Augustus, was made viceroy of Hannover. These four States also adopted a constitutional form of government. The German Diet, as a matter of course, used what power it possessed to counteract these movements, but its influence was limited by its own laws of action. The hopes and aspirations of the people were kept alive, in spite of the system of repression, and some of the smaller States took advantage of their independence to introduce various measures of reform. As industry, commerce and travel increased, the existence of so many boundaries, with their custom-houses, taxes and other hindrances, became an unendurable burden. Bavaria and Würtemberg formed a customs union in 1828, Prussia followed, and by 1836 all of Germany except Austria was united in the Zollverein (Tariff Union) [see TARIFF: 1833], which was not only a great material advantage, but helped to inculcate the idea of a closer political union. On the other hand, however, the monarchical reaction against liberal government was stronger than ever. Ernest Augustus of Hannover arbitrarily overthrew the constitution he had accepted, and Ludwig I. of Bavaria, renouncing all his former professions, made his land a very nest of absolutism and Jesuitism. In Prussia, such men as Stein, Gneisenau, and Wilhelm von Humboldt had long lost their influence, while others of less personal renown, but of similar political sentiments, were subjected to contemptible forms of persecution. In March, 1835, Francis II. of Austria died, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand I., a man of such weak intellect that he was in some respects idiotic. On June 1840, Frederick William III. of Prussia died, and was also succeeded by his son, Frederick William IV., a man of great wit and intelligence, who had made himself popular as Crown-prince, and whose accession the people hailed with joy, in the enthusiastic belief that better days were coming. The two dead

monarchs, each of whom had reigned 43 years, left behind them a better memory among their people than they actually deserved. They were both weak, unstable and narrow-minded; had they not been controlled by others, they would have ruined Germany; but they were alike of excellent personal character, amiable, and very kindly disposed towards their subjects so long as the latter were perfectly obedient and reverential. There was no change in the condition of Austria, for Mettenich remained the real ruler, as before. In Prussia a few unimportant concessions were made, an amnesty for political offenses was declared, Alexander von Humboldt became the king's chosen associate and much was done for science and art; but in their main hope of a liberal reorganization of the government, the people were bitterly deceived. Frederick William IV. took no steps towards the adoption of a Constitution; he made the censorship and the supervision of the police more severe; he interfered in the most arbitrary and bigoted manner in the system of religious instruction in the schools [he suppressed Calvinism and Lutheranism in 1839 and established a new Evangelical church with constitution and liturgy of his own drawing up]; and all his acts showed that his policy was to strengthen his throne by the support of the nobility and the civil service, without regard to the just claims of the people. Thus, in spite of the external quiet and order, the political atmosphere gradually became more sultry and disturbed. . . . There were signs of impatience in all quarters; various local outbreaks occurred, and the aspects were so threatening that in February, 1847, Frederick William IV. endeavored to silence the growing opposition by ordering the formation of a Legislative Assembly. But the provinces were represented, not the people, and the measure only emboldened the latter to clamor for a direct representation. Thereupon, the king closed the Assembly, after a short session. . . . In most of the other German States, the situation was very similar; everywhere there were elements of opposition, all the more violent and dangerous, because they had been kept down with a strong hand for so many years."—B. Taylor, *History of Germany*, ch. 37.—See also AUSTRIA: 1815-1835.

ALSO IN: C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, ch. 5.

1820-1822.—Congresses of Troppau, Laibach and Verona. See VERONA, CONGRESS OF.

1825-1855.—Growth of young men's (artisans) societies. See Y. M. C. A.: 1844-1854.

1832.—First railway. See RAILROADS: 1832-1905.

1835-1846.—Death of the Emperor Francis II of Austria.—Accession of Ferdinand I.—Extinction of the Polish republic of Cracow.—Its annexation to Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1840.

1839-1840.—Turko-Egyptian question and its settlement.—Quadruple Alliance. See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

1840-1850.—Beginnings of representative government.—Leadership of Baden in genuine constitutional movement.—Reactionary constitution of 1850. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1840-1850.

1845-1876.—Social insurance.—Early organizations of miners.—Voluntary aid societies. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1845-1876.

1848.—Censorship of the press made less rigid. See CENSORSHIP: Germany.

1848.—Conditions contributing to political unrest.—Reform outbreak.—Overthrow of Metternich's authority.—The reform outbreak "in France

[1848] spread far and wide through Europe, where . . . the seeds of revolt had been widely sown. Outbreaks occurred in Italy, Poland, Switzerland and Ireland, and in Germany the revolutionary fever burned hot. Baden was the first state to yield to the demands of the people for freedom of the press, a parliament and other reforms, and went so far as to abolish the imposts still remaining from feudal times. The other minor states followed its example. In Saxony, Würtemberg and other states class abuses were abolished, liberals given prominent positions under government, the suffrage and the legislature reformed, and men of liberal sentiment summoned to discuss the formation of new constitutions. But it was in the great despotic states of Germany—Prussia and Austria—that the liberals gained the most complete and important victory, and went farthest in overthrowing autocratic rule and establishing constitutional government. The notable Austrian statesman who had been a leader in the Congress of Vienna and who had suppressed liberalism in Italy, Prince Metternich, was still, after more than thirty years, at the head of affairs in Vienna. He controlled the policy of Austria; his word was law in much of Germany; time had cemented his authority, and he had done more than any other man in Europe in maintaining despotism and building a dam against the rising flood of liberal sentiment. But the hour of the man who had destroyed the work of Napoleon was at hand. . . . An incitement was needed, and it came in the news of the Paris revolution. . . . The old system was evidently at an end. The policy of Metternich could restrain the people no longer."—C. Morris, *Nations of Europe*, pp. 190-200.—See also AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; EUROPE: Modern: Political revolution of 1848.

1848.—Expulsion of Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1760-1871.

1848 (March).—Revolutionary outbreaks in Prussia.—Reforms granted by king of Prussia.—Riot in Berlin.—"The Rhenish provinces of Prussia, whose near neighbourhood and former connexion with France made them more peculiarly combustible, broke out with a cry for the most extensive reforms; that is to say, for representative institutions, the passion for which had spread over the whole of Germany. . . . The reform fever which had attacked the Rhenish provinces quickly spread to the rest of the body politic. The urban populace—a class in all countries rarely incited to agitation—took the lead. They were headed by the students. Breslau, Königsberg and Berlin, were in violent commotion. In the month of March, a great open air meeting was held at Berlin: it ended in a riot. . . . A deputation from the Rhenish provinces arrived at Berlin on the 18th, bearing a petition from Cologne to the king for reform. He promised to grant it. . . . Finding he could not keep the movement in check, he resolved to put himself at the head of it. It was probably the only course open to him, if he would preserve his crown. . . . The king must have previously had the questions which were agitating Germany under careful consideration; for he at once published a proclamation embodying the whole of them: the unity of Germany, by forming it into a federal state, with a federal representation; representative institutions for the separate states; a general military system for all Germany, under one federal banner; a German fleet; a tribunal for settling disputes between the states, and a right for all Germans to settle and trade in any part of Germany they thought fit; the whole of Germany formed into one customs union, and included in the Zollverein; one system of money, weights, and

measures; and the freedom of the press. These were the subjects touched upon. . . . The popularity of the proclamation with the mob-leaders was unbounded, and the mob shouted. . . . A crowd got together at the palace to express their gratitude; the king came out of a window, and was loudly cheered. Two regiments of dragoons unluckily mistook the cheering for an attack, and began pushing them back by forcing their horses forward. . . . Unfortunately, as the conflict (if conflict it could be called, which was only a bout of which could push hardest) was going forward, two musket-shots were fired by a regiment of infantry. It appears that the muskets went off accidentally. No one was injured by them. It is not clear they were not blank cartridges; but the people took fright. They imagined that there was a design to slaughter them. At once they rushed to arms; barricades were thrown up in every street. . . . The fight raged for fifteen hours. Either the king lost his head when it began, or the troops, having their blood up, would not stop. . . . The firing began at two o'clock on the 18th of March and the authorities succeeded in withdrawing the troops and stopping it the next morning at five o'clock, they having been during that time successful at all points. . . . The king put out a manifesto at seven o'clock, declaring that the whole business arose from an unlucky misunderstanding between the troops and the people, as it unquestionably did, and the people appear to have been aware of the fact and ashamed of themselves. . . . A general amnesty was proclaimed for all parties concerned, and orders were given to form at once a burgher guard to supply the place of the military, who were to be withdrawn. A new ministry was appointed, of a liberal character. . . . The troops were marched out of the town, and were cheered by the people. . . . It is estimated that, of the populace, about 200 were killed; 187 received a public funeral. . . . The king's object was to divert popular enthusiasm into another channel; he therefore assumed the lead in the regeneration of Germany. On the 21st he issued a proclamation, enlarging on these views, and rode through the streets with the proscribed German tricolor on his helmet, and was vociferously cheered as he passed along. Prussia was not the first of the German states where the old order of things was overturned. During the whole of the month of March, Germany underwent the process of revolution. . . . On the 3d of March . . . the new order of things . . . began at Würtemberg. The Duke of Hesse-Darmstadt abdicated. In Bavaria, things took a more practical turn. The people insisted on the dismissal of the king's mistress, Lola Montez: she was sent away, but, trusting to the king's dotage, she came back, police or no police—was received by the king—he created her Countess of Lansfeldt. This was a climax to which the people were not prepared to submit. . . . The king was compelled to expel her, to annul her patent of naturalization, and resume the grant he had made of property in her favour. This was more than he could stand, and he shortly after abdicated in favour of his heir. In Saxony the king gave way, after his troops had refused to act, and the freedom of the press was established, and other popular demands granted."—E. S. Cayley, *European revolutions of 1848*, v. 2: *Germany*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: C. E. Maurice, *Revolutionary movement of 1848-1849*, ch. 7.

1848 (March-September). — Election and meeting of the national assembly at Frankfort. — Resignation of the diet. — Election of Archduke John to be administrator of Germany.—

Powerlessness of the new government.—Troubles rising from the Schleswig-Holstein question.—Outbreak at Frankfort.—Setting in of reaction.—“In south-western Germany the liberal party set itself at the head of the movement. . . . The Heidelberg assembly of March 5th, consisting of the former opposition leaders in the various Chambers, issued a call to the German nation, and chose a commission of seven men, who were to make propositions with regard to a permanent parliament and to summon a preliminary parliament at Frankfort. This preliminary parliament assembled in St. Paul's church, March 31st. . . . The majority, consisting of constitutional monarchists, resolved that an assembly chosen by direct vote of the people . . . should meet in the month of May, with full and sovereign power to frame a constitution for all Germany. . . . These measures did not satisfy the radical party, whose leaders were Hecker and Struve. As their proposition to set up a sovereign assembly and republicanize Germany, was rejected, they left Frankfort, and held in the highlands of Baden popular meetings at which they demanded the proclamation of the republic. A Hesse-Darmstadt corps under Frederic von Gagern . . . was sent to disperse them. An engagement took place at Kandern, in which Gagern was shot, but Hecker and his followers were put to flight. . . . The disturbances in Odenwald, and in the Main and Tauber districts, once the home of the peasant war, were of a different description. There the country people rose against the landed proprietors, destroyed the archives, with the odious tithe and rental books, and demolished a few castles. The Diet, which in the meantime continued its illusory existence, thought to extricate itself from the present difficulties by a few concessions. It . . . invited the governments to send confidential delegates to undertake, along with its members, a revision of the constitution of the confederation. . . . These confidential delegates, among them the poet Uhland from Würtemberg, began their work on the 30th of March. The elections for the National Assembly stirred to their innermost fibers the German people, dreaming of the restoration of their former greatness. May 18, about 320 delegates assembled in the Imperial Hall, in the Römer (the Rathaus), at Frankfort.—W. Müller, *Political history of recent times*, sect. 17.—“Rarely has any public body contained so many men of profound thought and high ideals; rarely has any public body contained so few members of practical experience; never was there a more discouraging failure. The assembly had begun well; . . . but soon came disappointment. With wars threatening on all sides; with the mob spirit seething in every city; with desperate efforts, open or secret, by the old governments to regain their power; with attempts throughout the nation, sometimes contemptible, sometimes ferocious, to abolish absolutism; and with the whole German people, indeed the whole world, longing for practical measures, the assembly became simply a debating club. Professors and jurists discussed, day after day and week after week, their theories of the state, of the origin of sovereignty, of the nature of popular rights,—everything save practical measures necessary to secure national liberty and unity. Soon sophists, satirists, and caricaturists were at work, many of them doubtless well paid by the supporters of absolutism. Popular confidence waned.”—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*, p. 397.—“It was decided . . . that a provisional central executive should be created in the place of the Diet, and created, not by the National Assembly in concert

with the princes, but by the National Assembly alone. June 27, following out the bold conception of its president, the assembly decided to appoint an irresponsible administrator, with a responsible ministry; and June 29, Archduke John of Austria was chosen Administrator of Germany by 436 votes out of 546. He made his entry into Frankfurt July 11, and entered upon his office on the following day [see also AUSTRIA: 1848]. The hour of the Diet had struck, apparently for the last time. It resigned its authority into the hands of the Administrator, and, after an existence of 32 years, left the stage unmourned. Archduke John was a popular prince, who found more pleasure in the mountain air of Tyrol and Styria than in the perfumed atmosphere of the Vienna court. But, as a novice 66 years of age, he was not equal to the task of governing, and as a thorough Austrian he lacked a heart for all Germany. The main question for him and for the National Assembly was, what force they could apply in case the individual governments refused obedience to the decrees issued in the name of the National Assembly. This was the Achilles's heel of the German revolution. . . . Orders were issued by the federal minister of war that all the troops of the Confederation should swear allegiance to the federal administrator on the 6th of August, but Prussia and Austria, with the exception of the Vienna garrison, paid no attention to these orders; Ernest Augustus, in Hanover, successfully set his hard head against them, and only the lesser states obeyed. . . . There certainly was no other way out of the difficulty than by the formation of a parliamentary army. . . . One humiliation was submitted to after another, while the Assembly, busying itself for months with a theoretical question, as if it were a juristic faculty, entered into a detailed consideration of the fundamental rights of the German people. The Schleswig-Holstein question, which had just entered upon a new phase of its existence, was the first matter of any importance to manifest the disagreement between the central administration and the separate governments; and it opened, as well, a dangerous gulf in the Assembly itself. The question at issue was one of succession [see DENMARK: 1848-1862]. . . . The Estates of the duchies [Schleswig and Holstein] established a provisional government, applied at Frankfurt for the admission of Schleswig into the German confederation, and besought armed assistance both there and at Berlin. The preliminary parliament [this having occurred in April, before the meeting of the National Assembly] approved the application of Schleswig for admission, and commissioned Prussia, in conjunction with the 10th army corps of the Confederation, to occupy Schleswig and Holstein. On the 21st of April, 1848, General Wrangel crossed the Eider as commander of the forces of the Confederation; and on the 23d, in conjunction with the Schleswig-Holstein troops, he drove the Danes out of the Danewerk. On the following day the Danes were defeated at Oeversee by the 10th army corps, and all Schleswig-Holstein was free. Wrangel entered Jutland and imposed a war tax of 3,000,000 thalers (about \$2,250,000). He meant to occupy this province until the Danes—who, owing to the inexcusable smallness of the Prussian navy, were in a position unhindered to injure the commerce of the Baltic—had indemnified Prussia for her losses; but Prussia, touched to the quick by the destruction of her commerce, and intimidated by the threatening attitude of Russia, Sweden and England, recalled her troops, and concluded an armistice at Malmö, in Sweden, on the 26th of August. All measures of the provisional government

were pronounced invalid; a common government for the duchies was to be appointed, one half by Denmark, and the other by the German confederation; the Schleswig troops were to be separated from those of Holstein; and the war was not to be renewed before the 1st of April, 1849—i. e., not in the winter, a time unfavorable for the Danes. This treaty was unquestionably no masterpiece on the part of the Prussians. All the advantage was on the side of the conquered Danes. . . . It was not merely the radicals who urged, if not the final rejection, at least a provisional cessation of the armistice, and the countermanding of the order to retreat. . . . A bill to that effect, demanded by the honor of Germany, had scarcely been passed by the majority, on the 5th of September, when the moderate party reflected that such action, involving a breach with Prussia, must lead to civil war and revolution, and call into play the wildest passions of the already excited people. In consequence of this the previous vote was rescinded, and the armistice of Malmö accepted by the Assembly, after the most excited debates, September 16th. This gave the radicals a welcome opportunity to appeal to the fists of the lower classes, and imitate the June outbreak of the social democrats in Paris. . . . A collision ensued [September 18]; barricades were erected, but were carried by the troops without much bloodshed. . . . General Auerswald and Prince Lichnowsky, riding on horseback near the city, were followed by a mob. They took refuge in a gardener's house on the Bornheimer-heide, but were dragged out and murdered with the most disgraceful atrocities. Thereupon the city was declared in a state of siege, all societies were forbidden, and strong measures were taken for the maintenance of order. The March revolution had passed its season, and reaction was again beginning to bloom. . . . Reaction drew moderate men to its side, and then used them as stepping-stones to immoderation."—W. Müller, *Political history of recent times*, sect. 17.

ALSO IN: A. Alison, *History of Europe, 1815-1852*, ch. 53.—E. F. Henderson, *Short history of Germany*.—H. Parris, *Germany and the German emperor*.—J. A. R. Marriott and C. G. Robertson, *Evolution of Prussia*.—H. G. von Treitschke, *History of Germany in the nineteenth century*.

1848-1849.—Revolutionary risings in Austria and Hungary.—Bombardment of Vienna.—War in Hungary.—Abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand.—Accession of Francis Joseph. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

1848-1850.—Prussian national assembly, and its dissolution.—Work and the failure of the national assembly of Frankfurt.—Refusal of the imperial crown by king of Prussia.—End of the movement for Germanic unity.—“The elections for the new Prussian Constituent Assembly . . . were to take place May 1. The Prussian National Assembly was to meet May 22. The Prussian people, under the new election law, if left to themselves, would have quietly chosen a body of competent representatives; but the revolutionary party thought nothing could be done without the ax and the musket. . . . The people of Berlin, from March to October, were . . . really in the hands of the mob. . . . The newly-elected Prussian National Assembly was opened by the king, May 21. . . . One of the first resolutions proceeded from Behrend of the Extreme Left. ‘The Assembly recognizes the revolution, and declares that the combatants who fought at the barricades, on March 18 and 19, merit the thanks of the country.’ . . . The motion was rejected. On issuing from the building into the street, after the sitting, the mem-

bers who had voted against it, were received by the mob with threats and insults. . . . In the evening of the same day, in consequence of the rejection of the Behrend resolution, the arsenal was attacked by a large body of laborers. The burgher-guard were not prepared, and made a feeble defense. There was a great riot. The building was stormed and partially plundered. . . . The sketch of a constitution proposed by the king was now laid before the Assembly. It provided two Chambers—a House of Lords, and a House of Commons. The last to be elected by the democratic electoral law; the first to consist of all the princes of the royal house in their own right, and, in addition, 60 members from the wealthiest of the kingdom to be selected by the king, their office hereditary. This constitution was immediately rejected. On the rejection of the constitution the ministry Camphausen resigned. . . . The Assembly, elected exclusively to frame a constitution, instead of performing its duty . . . attempted to legislate, with despotic power, on subjects over which it had no jurisdiction. As the drama drew nearer its close, the Assembly became more open in its intention to overthrow the monarchy. On October 12 discussions began upon a resolution to strike from the king's title the words, 'By the grace of God,' and to abolish all titles of nobility and distinctions of rank. The Assembly building, during the sitting, was generally surrounded by threatening crowds. . . . Of course, during this period business was suspended, and want, beggary, and drunkenness, as well as lawless disorder, increased. . . . Berlin was now thoroughly tired of street tumults and the horn of the burgher-guard. . . . The Prussian troops which had been engaged in the Schleswig-Holstein war, were now placed under General Wrangel. . . . He proceeded without delay to encircle the city with the 25,000 troops. At the same time, a cabinet order of the king (September 21) named a new ministry. . . . At this moment, the revolution over all Europe was nearly exhausted. Cavaignac had put down the June insurrection. The Prussian flag waved above the flag of Germany. . . . On November 2, Count Brandenburg stated to the Assembly that the king had requested him to form a new ministry. . . . On the same day, Count Brandenburg, with his colleagues, appeared in the hall of the Prussian National Assembly, and announced his desire to read a message from his Majesty the King. . . . 'As the debates are no longer free in Berlin, the Assembly is hereby adjourned to November 27. It will then meet, and thereafter hold its meetings, not in Berlin, but in Brandenburg' (fifty miles from Berlin). After reading the message, Count Brandenburg, his colleagues, and all the members of the Right retired. . . . The Assembly . . . adjourned, and met again in the evening. . . . On November 10, the Assembly met again. Their debates were interrupted by General Wrangel, who had entered Berlin by the Brandenburg gate, at the head of 25,000 troops. . . . An officer from General Wrangel entered the hall and politely announced that he had received orders to disperse the Assembly. The members submitted, and left the hall. . . . An order was now issued dissolving the burgher-guard. On the 12th, Berlin was declared in a state of siege. . . . During the state of siege, the Assembly met again under the presidency of Mr. von Unruh. A body of troops entered the hall, and commanded the persons present to leave it. President von Unruh declared he could not consistently obey the order. There was, he said, no power higher than the Assembly. The soldiers did not fire on him, or cut him down with their sabers; but good-naturedly lifted his chair with him in it,

and gently deposited both in the street. . . . On November 27, Count Brandenburg went to Brandenburg to open the Assembly; but he could not find any. It had split into two parts. . . . There was no longer a quorum. Thus the Prussian National Assembly disappeared. On December 5, appeared a royal decree, dissolving the National Assembly. . . . Then appeared a provisional octroyirte electoral law, for the election of two Chambers. . . . The new Chambers met February 26, 1849. . . . Prussia had thus closed the revolution of 1848, as far as she was concerned. Bismarck was elected member of the Second Chamber." Meantime, in the Frankfort Parliament, "the great question, Austria's position with regard to the new Germany, came up in the early part of November, 1848. Among many propositions, we mention three: I. Austria should abandon her German provinces. . . . II. Austria should remain as a separate whole, with all her provinces. . . . III. The Austrian plan. All the German States, and all the Austrian provinces (German and non-German), should be united into one gigantic empire . . . with Austria at the head. . . . Meanwhile, the debates went on upon the questions: What shall be the form, and who shall be the chief of what may be called the Prussian-Germany? Among the various propositions (all rejected) were the following: I. A Directory consisting of Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Saxony. II. The King of Prussia and Emperor of Austria to alternate in succession every six years, as emperor. III. A chief magistracy, to which every German citizen might aspire. IV. Revival of the old Bundestag, with certain improvements. On January 23, 1849, the resolution that one of the reigning German princes should be elected, with the title of Emperor of Germany, was adopted (258 against 211). As it was plain the throne could be offered to no one but Prussia, this was a breach between the Parliament and Austria. . . . The first reading of the constitution was completed, February 3, 1849. The middle and smaller German States declared themselves ready to accept it, but the kingdoms remained silent. . . . The real question before the Parliament was, whether Prussia or Austria should be leader of Germany. . . . On March 27, the hereditary passed by a majority of four. On March 28, the constitution, with the democratic electoral law, universal suffrage, the ballot, and the suspensive veto, was voted and accepted. . . . President Simson then called the name of each member to vote upon the question of the Emperor."—T. S. Fay, *Three Germanys*, ch. 26.—"The Assembly chose King Frederick William of Prussia to be German Emperor, and a delegation of the foremost men of the Parliament went to Berlin and solemnly offered him the crown. The gift was utterly refused, and soon the world was informed that the King could not take it from the people, that it must come from their rulers. To the national parliament this was a killing blow."—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*, p. 398.—"Frederick William still dallied for a while with the national assembly, and summoned all the governments to send plenipotentiaries to Frankfort to discuss the matter—a summons which not one of them obeyed. Austria, meanwhile, had withdrawn her delegates; declaring that never would she bow to foreign legislation, never would her emperor subordinate himself to another prince. 'For us, the national assembly no longer exists,'—so wrote her ministers in an official note to Berlin. At this very time, the Prussian lower house voted to accept the constitution. Saxony and Würtemberg seemed wavering; while the national assembly sent out its demand for recognition almost in the form

of an ultimatum. Frederick William came forward now with a categorical refusal of the imperial dignity. . . . He summoned a conference to Berlin of such governments as might care, in view of the mistaken steps that the national assembly had taken, and seemed inclined still to take, to deliberate concerning the needs of the nation. 'The Prussian government,' so ran the circular note, 'cannot conceal the scantiness of the hope, that the national assembly will lend its hand to altering the constitution on which it has determined. . . . Not unnaturally, the political agitation spread to the constituents of the members of Parliament. . . . In Dresden, where the dissolution of the chambers and a ministerial crisis had brought excitement to the highest pitch, the government, on the third of May, forbade a projected parade in honor of the national constitution. . . . In the Palatinate, and in Baden also, the existing governments were displaced. . . . Prussia withdrew her delegates [from the Assembly], after a vote had been passed that her interference in Saxony had been an unwarrantable breach of the peace. The conduct of affairs came more and more into the hands of the radicals. The feeling gained ground, among the more moderate elements, that they had no longer any positive policy to defend. On the 20th of May, 1849, sixty-five members, including in their number almost all whose names had given brilliancy to the assembly, seceded in a body—declaring their unwillingness to sunder the last legal ties between the governments and peoples of Germany, and to foster civil war. Among them, was old Ernst Moritz Arndt, who, for nearly half a century, had sung of a united Germany which he was never to see. Bereft of its sanest members, the Parliament ran riot with its revolutionary ideas. The number necessary for a quorum was reduced from one hundred and fifty to a hundred. The place of meeting was moved from Frankfort to Stuttgart, for no other apparent purpose than to be nearer to the disaffected district. . . . It was given its quietus [by the government of Württemberg] by being forced to disperse by soldiers with drawn swords [June 18, 1849]. Thirteen months had the Parliament as a whole been in session, and its immediate results were absolutely nil; though it is safe to say that its deliberations, and even its mistakes, made it easier for the next generation to realize the dream of national unity.'—E. F. Henderson, *Short history of Germany*, v. 2, pp. 365-369.—By the Fall of 1850 the revolution had been everywhere beaten down.—See also AUSTRIA: 1848-1850.

ALSO IN: C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, ch. 2.—H. von Sybel, *Founding of the German empire*, v. 1-2, bk. 2-5.

1848-1862.—Opening of the Schleswig-Holstein question.—War with Denmark. See DENMARK: 1848-1862.

1848-1918.—Organization of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1848-1918.

1849-1917.—Electoral law.—Indirect election and public balloting under control of aristocracy.—Three class system.—Failure of attempts to liberalize Prussia. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1849-1917.

1850.—Triumph of absolutism.—Bismarck's earlier career.—His reactionary tendencies.—'Everywhere absolutism seemed triumphant. During this long, dreary period many of the noblest Germans yielded to discouragement and departed for other countries,—especially for America; and, among these, Francis Lieber, Carl Follen, and Carl Schurz,—all of them destined to render high service to the United States. In Germany there seemed no hope. In every part of the country men of

the purest character were in prison or in hiding; the old tyranny loomed up more threatening than ever; and it was at this time, at the very worst, when constitutional liberty and national unity seemed at the last gasp, that there appeared,—apparently to make a complete end of them,—a young apostle of reaction, absolutism, and disunion, Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen. His qualities came from far. The family name and history show that his ancestors were frontiersmen,—living in the lower Elbe region of Germany, perhaps on the 'mark,' or border, of the bishops trying to maintain their footing there, or, as sundry antiquarians insist, on the local border marked by the little river Biese:—hence the name, Bischoff's mark, or perhaps Biesemark, which became in popular speech Bismarck. . . . In his 'Reflections and Reminiscences,' dictated late in life, he declares that he became in his school days a pantheist and a republican; but a moderating influence upon him appears to have been now exerted by a small knot of New England students, the foremost of these being John Lothrop Motley. . . . Gradually there came a new evolution in his religious and political theories. Cynical and caustic as he frequently was, there can be no doubt that this was an honest change. The political change was entirely natural: it was the reaction which came over so many sound, strong minds as they reflected upon the follies, the crimes, the cruelties, the idiocy, and the nauseous cant of the Revolution in France and of the various attempts at mob rule in Germany. . . . Thereby all his original tendencies to reaction were strengthened; the history of Prussia, including especially the work of the Great Elector and of Frederick the Great, whom he had always revered, took on yet deeper meanings for him, and he became known among his friends as a desperate reactionary. To end this period came a series of events which opened to him a new career. . . . There had been created eight provincial Diets in Prussia, petty assemblies where local affairs might be discussed by the squirearchy, not in a legislative, but in an advisory way; and in 1847 Frederick William IV, yielding to the pressure for some sort of central deliberative assembly, had called a United Diet at Berlin, made up of representatives from these local assemblies. To this came Bismarck. Nothing could be more unpromising than this entrance of his into politics. He had not been elected to this legislature, but, the person chosen being ill, the young squire went as a substitute; nothing was expected of him: he tells us that at his first election speech he was pelted with stones, and the only recorded parliamentary speech of his at that period was a protest in a little provincial assembly 'against the excessive consumption of tallow in an almshouse.' Yet it should be noted that, although widely considered a mere noisy declaimer, he had already shown himself something better. He had seen the necessity of improving the procedure in certain courts and had drawn up a project of reforms which showed patriotic purpose and constructive power. But nothing of this better side of his activity was known beyond a very limited circle; and during the first part of the session he seemed to make no impression. Not until larger politics were discussed, did he begin making known his views to better purpose; then his fellow-members, and, indeed, the world outside, began listening to him. His oratory was wretched, but his perseverance was invincible. Never was there a more defiant reactionary. He held fast to the divine origin of kingly right; on constitutionalism he poured contempt; Prussia, in his view, had become powerful under men like

the Great Elector and Frederick the Great,—rulers with a rod of iron,—and it could only remain powerful under absolutism. . . . In the Prussian Diet, Bismarck, even while merely a substitute deputy, won speedy recognition as a leader. On the claims of the people to be represented, on the ballot box as a means of choosing legislators, on the decision of state questions by majorities, on establishing periodical sessions, he poured contempt constantly and loudly; Frederick the Great was still his ideal: not the Parliament, but the Army, was to uplift the country. It was not a case of bark worse than bite. Worse than his talk was his action. Never was intriguer more persistent. Night and day, when not stirring up resistance to constitutionalism in the Diet, he was rallying his friends on the lower Elbe, or at Potsdam, or at Berlin, against all efforts for constitutional liberty, whether rational or irrational. . . . In palaces and in barracks, he urged, with shrewd plans and bitter taunts, the most desperate measures, and, at last, seemed successful; for, with the king's permission, Marshal Wrangel, a tough swaggering old soldier, turned the Prussian Diet out of doors. Even this did not satisfy Bismarck; he showed disappointment that there had been no bloodshed; his wish was that a lesson should be written in blood which would last for a generation, and his favorite plan was to stir the mob to madness and then to crush it with the army. There was no need of bloodshed. The people at large were tired of talk and sick with uncertainty;—and, beside that, the king had won them over by again swallowing his feudal formulas, granting a fairly good constitution, and calling a new election. To the new Prussian Diet thus called His Majesty's loyal subjects gratefully sent a reactionary majority, and in the midst of it—at last as a full member—came Bismarck. . . . The old federation having evaporated into thin air during the Revolution of 1848 and the national parliament then established having, as we have seen, gone to pieces at Frankfort and Stuttgart, chaos came again."—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*, pp. 399, 404, 409, 411, 413-415.—See also AUSTRIA: 1849-1850.

1850-1851. — Three Kings' Alliance. — Breakdown of the Prussian union.—Gradual domination of Austria over Prussia.—Quarrel over the problem of Hesse-Cassel.—Humiliation of Olmütz.—Dresden conference.—Frederick William now aimed at creating a German confederation with Prussia taking the leadership. He was seconded in his efforts by Saxony and Hanover with whom he formed, on May 26, 1849, the Dreikönigsbundniss or "alliance of three kings." Many of the lesser states joined this union but the hostile attitude of Austria and the refusal of Bavaria and Würtemberg to become members finally caused its destruction. When the growing strength of Austria became apparent the kings withdrew from the Prussian union "The breakdown of the 'Three Kings' Alliance,' in default of which the 'Union' practically shrank to a league between Prussia and the petty States, encouraged Schwarzenberg [Prince Felix Schwarzenberg, Austrian foreign minister], whose hands were now comparatively free, to press his own notions of federal reconstruction. For, while treating the Germanic Confederation as still in existence, he proposed changes in its scheme not less drastic than those which Radowitz [Prussian statesman] had in view. [On February 27, 1850, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Saxony and Hanover also devised a scheme of confederation, the "Four Kings' Alliance."] . . . Austria's presidency over the new directory was not mentioned either in Schwarzenberg's proposals, or in the Four Kings'

Draft; but it was understood to be as much a matter of course as the inclusion of the whole Austrian monarchy in the reconstructed Confederation. . . . It may be noted that at the Customs Conference held at Cassel, July-November, 1850, Austria succeeded in preventing an understanding between Prussia and the south-western States, and that in the following year the first step in Bruck's great plan of commercial policy was taken by the establishment of a Customs Union, referred to above, between Austria and Hungary. . . . Notwithstanding . . . the renewed lukewarmness of King Frederick William IV towards the 'Union' scheme and the exceptions taken to it by some of the Prussian Conservatives, such as their parliamentary protagonist Stahl, and Bismarck—Radowitz persisted. On March 20, 1850, the Erfurt Parliament opened. . . . But now Frederick William IV made it clear that he lacked the courage, and lost the desire, to pit himself against Austria and the four royal Governments, with no support but that of the petty States. . . . Schwarzenberg, with heightened self-confidence, now quite openly pursued his plan of reestablishing the old Confederation and its Diet. . . . Though these manœuvres were resented by Frederick William IV, his desire to remain on friendly terms with the Emperor of Austria induced him to arrange a personal interview between them at Teplitz (September 8) and to receive acquiescently a letter from the Tsar urging him to adhere to the Austrian alliance. . . . Thus matters stood, when a constitutional quarrel arose in the very heart of Germany, which seemed precisely calculated to bring the political conflict between the two Great Powers to an issue: since on this occasion the territorial sovereign [Elector Frederick William of Hesse-Cassel] and his Minister [Hassenpflug], supported by Austria, stood opposed to the representatives of the people, to the civil and military servants of the State, and to the whole of the population, who were warm adherents of Prussia and her German policy. . . . The Elector's subjects regarded the appointment of this avowed reactionary [Hassenpflug] as an open defiance of their rights and aspirations. . . . The machinery of government in the electorate speedily came to a deadlock; the Elector quitted his capital, and none of the state officials would obey the hated Minister when he attempted to carry on the Government. . . . After a fruitless struggle to obtain supplies, Hassenpflug accordingly appealed to the so-called Exceptional Law passed by the Diet in 1832, but revoked by it in March, 1848, and, after proclaiming martial law in the electorate, and being in return indicted by the Committee of the Estates on a charge of high treason, appeared with the Elector at Frankfort to present his case. The Diet at once took preliminary measures towards a Federal execution, which led to the resignation of the large majority of the officers in the electoral army (September). On the other hand, the pride of the King of Prussia shrank from entering the old Confederation at such a moment in order to defeat the action of Austria at the Diet; and he had probably no desire to pose there as defender of the Hesse-Cassel Constitution. There accordingly remained only the alternative of meeting any action on the part of the Diet, which was still legally incompetent, by force. This was the course advocated by Radowitz, who was at this very time (September 29, 1850) appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs. If he could persuade his master to stand firm, the destinies of Prussia and Germany seemed to lie in his hands. But such was not to be the case, even though the eleventh



hour seemed to have passed; for on October 11 at Bregenz the sovereigns of Austria, Bavaria, and Würtemberg agreed on putting an army of 200,000 men into the field, and on both sides troops were moving towards the Hessian frontier. Meanwhile, King Frederick William IV was still hesitating; and on October 15 Count Brandenburg, still at the head of the Prussian Ministry, was sent to discuss the situation with the Tsar at Warsaw, whither he was speedily followed by Prince Schwarzenberg. From Brandenburg's reports it is clear that the Tsar, though mainly interested in settling the Danish Succession question, and generally desirous of promoting a good understanding between the German Great Powers, insisted on the continuance of the Germanic Confederation, which would of course be entitled to send troops into Hesse-Cassel on the requisition of the Elector. Brandenburg waived the proposal of a German popular representation, and agreed to the admission of the whole Austrian monarchy into the Confederation—in other words, to the abandonment of the policy of the Union. But, on his return to Berlin (October 31), he found the capital and the country aflame with indignation at the insolence of the Confederation, the arrogance of Austria, the impudence of Bavaria (of whose troops the army of execution in Hesse was mainly to consist), and the audacious obstinacy of the Elector and Hassenpflug. King Frederick William's pride was touched; he was determined not to allow the Federal Execution in Hesse, and on the arrival of news that 6000 Bavarian troops had occupied Hanau, Prussian troops were ordered to occupy both Fulda and Cassel."—A. W. Ward, *Revolution and reaction in Germany and Austria* (Cambridge modern history, v. 11, *Growth of nationalities*, pp. 222-224, 227-229).—"Meanwhile, popular opinion in Berlin and the country, wholly in the dark as to the ministerial discussions, awaited some vigorous action on the part of the Government. . . . On November 4 an Austrian despatch arrived demanding the withdrawal of the Prussian troops from the electorate, and an intimation from St. Petersburg that the Tsar would regard a refusal of this demand as a *casus belli*. On the evening of November 5, Manteuffel [Prussian foreign minister succeeding Radowitz], believing war to be now inevitable, whether the Prussian Government wished it or not, with some difficulty persuaded the King to issue, after all, orders for the mobilisation of the army, though accompanied by a declaration that the measure was defensive only. Much enthusiasm marked the carrying out of this measure, which was published on November 6, while diplomatic negotiations with Austria were still in progress. Still, every effort was made on the Prussian side to avoid an actual collision. . . . On November 9, . . . the King approved a despatch in which his Government gave way as to the Union (it was practically dissolved on November 15,) [1850], and with regard to the Federal occupation of Hesse-Cassel merely demanded a joint undertaking as to its object and duration on the part of Austria and her allies, and the acceptance of the occupation of the Prussian military routes in the electorate by Prussian troops. Even to this last concession, evidently designed to save Prussia's honour, Schwarzenberg demurred; and once more a crisis seemed at hand. . . . At the last moment, King Frederick William persuaded the Emperor Francis Joseph to approve a personal interview between Schwarzenberg and Manteuffel for the settlement of all questions at issue. . . . On the evening of November 28 Schwarzenberg and Manteuffel met at Olmütz, and on the following

day they agreed upon a 'punctuation,' of which the substance may be very briefly stated. As is remarked by Sybel, on whose masterly account of these transactions any attempt to put the substance of them into a small compass must base itself, Manteuffel, who had long opposed the Union and who detested the Hessian rebellion, besides being perfectly content to let the King of Denmark deal as he would with Holstein and the Succession, might have asked Schwarzenberg, 'what is there really in dispute between us?' Since it was certainly not Manteuffel's fault that Prussia had drifted into her present plight, and since his conviction that war at the present juncture would be disastrous to Prussia was soon shared even by spirits as fiery as Bismarck (although Bismarck like the Prince of Prussia objected to premature disarmament), the obloquy heaped on his head was unjust. It was Prussia, not her Minister, who was in a false position. She was proposing to negotiate on equal terms with Austria, though the attempt of Radowitz to make good, in at least some measure, his master's failure to accept for her the leadership of a reorganised Germany had broken down all along the line. . . . Schwarzenberg adhered to the conditions accepted by Prussia at Warsaw, including the continuance of the old Confederation; while he absolutely rejected the principle of a dual headship, shared by Austria and Prussia, in its Diet. The settlement in Holstein, to be made by an Austro-Prussian Commission, would present no difficulty. Finally, as to the burning Hessian question, it was settled at Olmütz that the Federal Execution should put an end to the opposition maintained against the Elector by his subjects, and then withdraw. . . . The final settlement of the constitutional trouble was to be left to an Austro-Prussian Commission, to be appointed by the above-mentioned free conferences [to be held at Dresden]. . . . In Prussia the feeling of humiliation was general. . . . Meanwhile the Dresden Conferences, which were to wind up the constitutional conflict, opened on December 23, 1850. . . . In the discussions of the Commissions appointed by the Conference it seemed as if the Austrian programme would be carried without substantial resistance; in which case, though the composition of the proposed Federal executive was modified by allowing a representation of the petty States, Austria would still have commanded a working majority in a body of 11. The admission of the entire Austrian monarchy into the Confederation had also been accepted, though the proposal of a Customs Union between all the federated States was deferred; and the principle of a popular representation was rejected by Austria and her friends. . . . Manteuffel announced that the admission of the whole Austrian monarchy into the Confederation (to which he cannot but have known that the Western Powers were strongly opposed) would be conditional upon the concession of parity in its presidency. If this were rejected, he proposed a return to the Confederation on its former lines. The latter alternative was accepted by Schwarzenberg; and, when after a long holiday the members of the Conference reassembled, it simply resolved that the Federal Diet should be reestablished at Frankfort in the form settled by the Acts of 1815 and 1820, and then separated. On the same day (May 16, 1851) a secret alliance was signed between Austria and Prussia, which bound each Power to assist the other in case of an attack upon any of its possessions, whether or not within the Germanic Confederation. The history of the Dresden Conference was thus by no means a mere repetition of the Olmütz surren-

der. But to Germany and Europe it seemed as if the overthrow of the policy of Prussia were completed by the restoration of the old Confederation, and in his exile Metternich rejoiced. Holstein submitted. The Elector of Hesse-Cassel returned to his capital before the year was out, and in March, 1852, the Diet declared the Hessian Constitution and Electoral Law invalid, so that in the following month Hassenpflug could recommence operations. But though the old Confederation and Austria's position in it had been propped up for another day, her relations with Prussia in German affairs had been fundamentally changed both by the political conflict between the two Powers and by its closing incident. As for Prussia, not without reluctance and not without ignominy, she had been brought to the conclusion that she must wait."—A. W. Ward, *Revolution and reaction in Germany and Austria* (Cambridge modern history, v. 11, ch. 7, pp. 230-233).

ALSO IN: J. W. Headlam, *Bismarck and the foundation of the German empire*.

1850-1860.—Administrative reforms. See ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Prussia.

1850-1870.—Growth of coöperative movement. See COÖPERATION: Germany.

1852.—Elberfeld system of poor relief. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1852-1921.

1853-1875.—Commercial treaties with Austria and France.—Progress towards free trade. See TARIFF: 1853-1870.

1861-1866.—Advent of King William I and Prince Bismarck in Prussia.—"Blood and Iron Speech."—Reopening of the Schleswig-Holstein question.—Conquest of the duchies by Prussia and Austria.—Convention of Gastein.—Consequent quarrel.—Dissolution of the German confederation.—Outbreak of war with Austria.—King Frederick William IV. of Prussia, never a man of strong head, had for years been growing weaker and more eccentric. In 1857, symptoms of softening of the brain began to show themselves. That disorder so developed itself that in October, 1857, he gave a delegation to the prince of Prussia, his brother, to act as regent; but the first commission was only for three months. The prince's commission was renewed from time to time; but it soon became apparent that Frederick William's case was hopeless, and his brother was formally installed as Regent in October, 1858. Ultimately the king died in January, 1861, and his brother succeeded to the throne as William I. In September, 1862, Otto von Bismarck became the new king's chief minister, with General Roon for minister of war, appointed to carry out a reorganization of the Prussian army which King William had determined to effect. "To his [Bismarck's] mind the goal of Prussian policy was to drive Austria out of Germany, and then to bring about a subordination of the other German states to Prussia. . . . Nor did he make the least stress of his warlike attitude towards Austria." When an Austrian arch-duke, who was passing through, once asked him maliciously whether all the many decorations which he wore on his breast had been won by bravery in battle: 'All gained before the enemy, all gained here in Frankfurt,' was the ready answer. In the year 1850 came the complications between Austria and Italy, the latter being joined by France. This Italian war between Austria and France thoroughly roused the German nation. . . . Many wanted to protect Austria, others showed a disinclination to enter the lists for Austria's rule over Italy. . . . Bismarck's advice at this time was that Prussia should side against Austria, and should join Italy. In the

spring of 1850, however, he was transferred from Frankfurt on the Main to St. Petersburg: 'put on ice on the Neva,' as he said himself, 'like champagne for future use.' . . . In June, 1850 in view of the Italian war, it had been decreed in Prussia that the army should be mobilized and kept in readiness to fight. . . . When, later, in the summer of this year, the probability of war had gone by, the Landwehr was not dismissed but, on the contrary, a beginning was made with a new formation of regiments which had already been planned and talked over. . . . On February 10, 1860, the question of the military reorganization was laid before the diet, where doubts and objections were raised against it. . . . On the 4th of May, at the same time when the law about civil marriages was rejected, the land-tax, by which the cost of the army-reorganization was to have been covered, was refused by the Upper House. The liberals were disappointed and angered. The ministry was soon in a bad dilemma: should it give way to the liberal opposition and dissolve the newly formed regiments? The expedient that was thought of seemed clever enough but it led in reality to a blind alley and was productive of the most baneful consequences. The ministry moved a single grant of 9,000,000 thalers for the purpose of completing the army and maintaining its efficiency on the former footing. The motion was carried on May 15, 1860, by a vote of 315 against 2. . . . The new elections for the house of deputies in December, 1861, produced a diet of an entirely different stamp from that of 1858. . . . The moderate majority was now to atone for the sin of not having come to any real arrangement with the ministry on the army question; for the new majority came to Berlin with the full intention of crushing the army-reform. . . . The chief task of the newly formed ministry of 1862 was to solve the military question, for the longer it had remained in abeyance the more complicated had the matter become. The newly-elected diet had been in session since the 10th of May. . . . The battle cry of the majority of the diet was that all further demands of the government for the military reform were to be refused. . . . By September, 1862, the belligerent and uncompromising attitude of the liberal majority had induced King William to lay aside his earlier distrust of Bismarck. He allowed him to be summoned and placed him at the head of the ministry. Most stirring was the first audience which Bismarck had with his king in the Park of Babelsberg on September 23. The king first of all laid before Bismarck the declaration of his abdication. Very much startled, Bismarck said: 'To that it should never be allowed to come!' The king replied that he had tried everything and knew no other alternative. His convictions, contrary to which he could not act, contrary to which he could not reign, forbade him to relinquish the army-reorganization. Thereupon Bismarck explained to the king his own different view of the matter and closed with the request that his Majesty might abandon all thoughts of abdication. The king then asked the minister if he would undertake to carry on the government without a majority and without a budget. Bismarck answered both questions in the affirmative and with the utmost decision. . . . The alliance between the king and his minister was closed and cemented on that 23rd of September in Babelsberg to endure for all time."—W. Maurenbrecher, *Gründung des deutschen Reichs* (tr. from the German), p. 13.—A week later, Bismarck made his famous "Blood and Iron" speech in the Prussian Diet, when he said: "It is a fact,

the great self-assertion of individuality among us makes constitutional government very hard in Prussia. . . . We are perhaps too 'cultured' to tolerate a constitution; we are too critical; the ability to pass judgment on measures of the government or acts of the legislature is too universal; there is a large number of 'Cutilinarian Characters' [existences in the original] in the land whose chief interest is in revolutions. All this may sound paradoxical; yet it proves how hard constitutional life is in Prussia. The people are too sensitive about the faults of the government; as if the whole did not suffer when this or that individual minister blunders. Public opinion is changeable, the press is not public opinion; every one knows how the press originates; the representatives have the higher task of directing opinion, of being above it. To return once more to our people: our blood is too hot, we are fond of bearing an armor too large for our small body; now let us utilize it. Germany does not look at Prussia's liberalism but at its power. Let Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden indulge in liberalism, yet no one will assign to them the rôle of Prussia; Prussia must consolidate its might and hold it together for the favorable moment, which has been allowed to pass unheeded several times. Prussia's boundaries, as determined by the Congress of Vienna, are not conducive to its wholesome existence as a sovereign state. Not by speeches and resolutions of majorities the mighty problems of the age are solved—that was the mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by Blood and Iron."—*Die Politischen Reden des Fürsten Bismarck* (tr. from the German) v. 2. pp. 20, 28-30.—"Toward the end of 1863, the death of the Danish King, Frederick VII, brought on, in acute form, a danger which had long been brooded over in cabinets, fought over on battlefields, and wrangled over among the German people at large—what was known as the Schleswig-Holstein question. Of the myriad subjects which had tormented German statesmen and diplomatists during the middle years of the nineteenth century, this had been the most vexatious. . . . There were rights to sovereignty under Danish Law and estoppels under Salic Law; rights under German Law and extinguishments by treaty or purchase; claims to the Schleswig duchy as adjoining Denmark and containing a considerable admixture of Danish blood; claims to the Holstein duchy as adjoining Germany and thoroughly of German blood; rights of each duchy, which implied their separation; rights of both duchies, which implied their union. There had been a settlement under the Treaty of Vienna, in 1815. There had been another under the Treaty of London, in 1852. There had been interferences from Prussia, from Austria, from Russia, from Sweden, and from Great Britain, and bloody battles between Germans and Danes, sometimes one being uppermost, sometimes the other. Throughout Denmark it was held fanatically that the control of the duchies should be Danish; throughout Germany it was no less passionately asserted that it should be German. . . . The King of Denmark, asserting his claims, was confronted by the German Prince of Augustenburg, asserting his claims no less stoutly."—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*, pp. 431-432.—"The main line of the ruling dynasty was dying out; and the succession to the Danish throne was certain to pass, sooner or later, to the Glücksburg branch of the family. But this branch derived title through the female line, and the succession in Schleswig-Holstein was governed by the Salic law. Schleswig-Holstein accordingly would pass,

not to the Glücksburg, but to the younger Augustenburg line. The London conference undertook to change all this. It decreed that Schleswig-Holstein should be permanently associated with Denmark, and that the succession, both in Denmark and in the duchies, should be vested in the Glücksburg heirs. This treaty or protocol of May 8, 1852, was signed by Prussia and Austria as European powers; but it was not ratified by the German confederation nor in any way accepted by the Schleswig-Holsteiners. And the Prussian and Austrian ambassadors signed the London protocol only after, and in consideration of, a previous treaty with Denmark, by which that kingdom bound itself to respect the autonomy of the Schleswig-Holsteiners and not to incorporate Schleswig. Such was the position of affairs when King Frederick VII of Denmark issued a decree (the patent of March 30, 1863) which separated Schleswig from Holstein and practically incorporated the former in the kingdom of Denmark. The German powers at once protested; and the Federal Diet, in October, ordered an 'execution' in Holstein, *i. e.* voted to send troops there."—M. Smith, *Bismarck and German unity*, pp. 26-27.—"Germany, acting through the Federal Council at Frankfort, sent Hanoverian and Saxon troops, which seemed to clear the way for 'The Augustenburger' as the rightful sovereign. But this only made anarchy more virulent; Holstein was still dissatisfied and Schleswig in more hopeless confusion than ever. The region concerned, including the two main divisions of Holstein and Schleswig and the little duchy of Lauenburg, was valuable: there was a territory of over seven thousand square miles, and a population exceeding a million—a population hardy, sturdy, brave, God-fearing; and the importance of people and territory was enormously increased by their great harbor of Kiel. The claims of this region to cast in its lot with its neighbors having the same traditions and language were now recognized by a statesman who could do something; now came one of Bismarck's masterpieces. Though Austria and Prussia had long been quarreling at Frankfort and were especially jealous of each other regarding this region, and though he had been a main agent in provoking these quarrels, he suddenly, as by witchcraft, induced Austria to join Prussia in putting an end to all this anarchy and folly. Most skillfully he played on the two dominant characteristics of Austrian statesmen at that period: first, on their fear that, if the two great powers did not intervene, Germany might rise in revolution and seize the duchies; next, on their dread that Prussia might lead alone in the contest and thus increase her territory and prestige. Thus it came, to the amazement of all Europe, that these two powers, which had so long seemed ready to fly at each other's throats, took the whole question into their joined hands, marched side by side into the Danish peninsula, conquered the Danes, and occupied the whole Schleswig-Holstein region. But not without a fearful struggle. The Danes fought with desperation, and military history shows few pages as heroic as those which record their resistance against vastly superior forces at Düppel and Alsen; but as a result came the Treaty of Vienna, in 1864, and by this Denmark gave up the territory so long disputed into the hands of Austria and Prussia. But what to do with it? Their booty was embarrassing; the sweet reasonableness which had led them into partnership now evaporated. Austria became suspicious and Bismarck surly. Whatever either suggested, the other

opposed. Austria proposed that the Prince of Augustenburg should be installed as Duke; a majority of the Schleswig-Holstein people longed for him; Germany was almost unanimously propitious to him; even Prussia was largely inclined to him as the legitimate sovereign—the royal family generally favoring him, the Crown Prince supporting him, and even King William thinking well of him. Outside of the two powers immediately concerned, the same sentiment prevailed: England, France, and Russia looking on the Augustenburger as the true prince. But against all these stood Bismarck. He had tried the Augustenburg pretender and found him incapable of recognizing the real issue,—wanting in fealty to a united Germany. One more princeling in the Bund, nominally independent but really a puppet of Austria, he would not have. As to the Augustenburger's 'rights,' Bismarck trumped up others, apparently quite as good—notably sundry claims of Oldenburg—and at his behest court lawyers ground out various weighty opinions, the most cogent being that all the old rights and claims had been superseded by the recent victories. The majority of the German states, acting through the Federal Council at Frankfurt, tried to settle the matter; but Bismarck promptly reminded them that the German Confederation had no longer any right to meddle,—that Prussia and Austria now held the disputed territory by right of conquest. France and Great Britain also sought to interfere; but he informed them in diplomatic language, more or less civil, that the matter was none of theirs. . . . He was determined that the duchies should not form one more satrapy of Austria; that Austria, being at so great a distance, had virtually no interest in them; that Prussia, adjoining them, had a direct practical interest—in their territory as adjacent to her own, in the harbor of Kiel as necessary to her proper naval development, in the right to dig a canal connecting her dominions on the North Sea with those on the Baltic, and in the extension of her railway system northward; and he therefore proposed that Austria give up to Prussia virtually all rights in the newly acquired territory. This proposal Austria, after first refusing and then shuffling, expressed a willingness to consider, but insisted on compensation: there must be restored to her a portion of those Silesian territories torn away from her a hundred years before by Frederick the Great. To this Bismarck would not listen; he refused to yield an inch of German territory and the Great Frederick's conquest he held to be especially sacred. War between the two great German powers seemed likely to come at any moment."—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*, pp. 432-435.—"It was postponed, not so much by Bismarck's will as by the king's, and a temporary adjustment was reached in the convention of Gastein. By this treaty Prussia bought out Austria's rights in Lauenburg, and the administration of government in the two other duchies was divided, Prussia assuming control of Schleswig and Austria of Holstein. But the truce was a short one. Prussia accused Austria of encouraging the Augustenburg agitation, and when, on June 1, 1866, Austria submitted the Schleswig-Holstein question to the Federal Diet, Prussia declared the treaty of Gastein broken and the joint administration of the duchies reestablished. Prussian troops were accordingly sent into Holstein. Austria pronounced this a breach of the peace; and on June 11 the Austrian representative in the Federal Diet proposed the mobilization against Prussia of the contingents of all the other German states. This motion was carried, June 14, by a three-fifths vote. The Prussian representative de-

clared, in the name of his government, that this attempt to levy federal war upon a member of the confederation was a breach of the fundamental pact of union, and that the confederation was thereby dissolved. He added that it was the purpose of his government to find for the unity of the German people a form better suited to the conditions of the age. For nearly three months, in accordance with a plan foreshadowed in his earlier letters Bismarck had been pushing the German question to the front. He had been agitating, by circulars to all the German governments, the question of federal reform, and on April 9 he had caused a proposal to be introduced in the Federal Diet for the establishment of a German parliament on the basis of manhood suffrage. Immediately after the vote of June 14, Prussia called upon the governments of Saxony, Hanover and Hesse-Cassel to join in the establishment of a new federal union. Upon their refusal Prussian troops invaded these territories, and the war for the control of Germany began on June 16, 1866. Neither Austria nor Prussia stood alone. Austria was supported by all the South German states, viz. Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, and by the more important states of North Germany, viz. Hanover, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel and Nassau. Prussia had secured the alliance of Italy by a secret treaty (April 8). In case of victory Italy was to receive Venice."—M. Smith, *Bismarck and German unity*, pp. 34-37.—See also DENMARK: 1848-1862; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: a, 1.

ALSO IN: H. von Sybel, *Founding of the German empire*, v. 3-4, bk. 9-16.—C. Lowe, *Prince Bismarck*, v. 1, ch. 5-7.—J. G. L. Hesekeil, *Life of Bismarck*, bk. 5, ch. 3.—Count von Beust, *Memoirs*, v. 1, ch. 22-28.

1863.—First Socialist party. See SOCIALISM: 1862-1864.

1864.—Prussian military convention signed to aid Russia against Poland. See POLAND: 1863-1869.

1864-1914.—Red Cross and relief work. See RED CROSS: 1864-1917.

1866.—Seven Weeks' War: Defeat of Austria.—Victory and supremacy of Prussia.—Her absorption of Hanover, Hesse, Nassau, Frankfurt and Schleswig-Holstein.—Formation of North German Confederation.—Exclusion of Austria from Germanic organization.—"In four or five days Prussia had disarmed all North Germany, and broken all resistance from the North Sea to the Main. On the 18th of June the Prussian general Bayer entered Cassel; the Elector was surprised at Wilhelmshöhe. As he still refused all terms he was arrested by the direct order of the king of Prussia and sent as a prisoner to Stettin. On the 17th, General Vogel von Falkenstein entered Hanover. King George with his army of 18,000 men sought to escape to South Germany. After a gallant struggle at Langensalza on the 27th, his brave troops were surrounded. The king capitulated on the 29th. His army was disbanded, he himself allowed to go to Vienna. On the 18th the Prussians were in Dresden; on the 19th in Leipzig; by the 20th, all Saxony except the fortress of Königstein was in their hands. The king and army of Saxony, on the approach of the Prussians, had left the country by the railroads to Bohemia to form a junction with the Austrians. The Saxon army consisted of 23,000 men and 60 cannon. Every one had expected Austria to occupy a county of such strategic value as Saxony before the Prussians could touch it. The Austrian army consisted of seven corps, 180,000 infantry,

24,000 cavalry, 762 guns. The popular opinion had forced the emperor to make Benedek the commander-in-chief in Bohemia. Everything there was new to him. The Prussians were divided into three armies: the army of the Elbe, 40,000 men, under Herwarth von Bittenfeld; the first army, 100,000 men, under Prince Frederick Charles; the second or Silesian army under the Crown Prince, 110,000 strong. The reserve consisted of 24,000 Landwehr. The whole force in this quarter numbered 280,000 men and 800 guns. . . . The Prussians knew what they were fighting for. To the Austrians the idea of this war was something strange. At Vienna, Benedek had spoken against war; after the first Prussian successes, he had in confidence advised the emperor to make peace as soon as possible. As he was unable from want of means to attack, he concentrated his army between Josephstadt and the country of Glatz. He thought only of defence. . . . On the 23rd of June the great Prussian army commenced contemporaneously its march to Bohemia from the Riesengebirge, from Lusatia, from Dresden. It advanced from four points to Josephstadt-Königgrätz, where the junction was to take place. Bismarck had ordered, from financial as well as political reasons, that the war must be short. The Prussian armies had at all points debouched from the passes and entered Bohemia before a single Austrian corps had come near these passes. . . . In a couple of days, Benedek lost in a series of fights against the three Prussian advancing armies nearly 35,000 men; five of his seven corps had been beaten. He concentrated these seven corps at Königgrätz in the ground before this fortress; he determined to accept battle between the Elbe and the Bistritz. He had, however, previously reported to the emperor that his army after its losses was not in a condition for a pitched battle. He wished to retire to Moravia and avoid a battle till he had received reinforcements. This telegram of Benedek arrived in the middle of the exultation which filled the court of Vienna after hearing of the victory over the Italians at Custoza [see ITALY: 1862-1866]. The emperor replied by ordering him briefly to give battle immediately. Benedek, on the 1st of July, again sent word to the emperor, 'Your majesty must conclude peace.' Yet on these repeated warnings came the order to fight at once. Benedek had provided for such an answer by his arrangements for July 2nd. He had placed his 500 guns in the most favorable positions, and occupied the country between the Elbe and the little river Bistritz for the extent of a league. As soon as the Prussians heard of this movement they resolved to attack the Austrians on the 3d. On the 2d the king, accompanied by Count Bismarck, Von Roon and Von Moltke, had joined the army. He assumed command of the three armies. The Crown Prince and Herwarth were ordered to advance against Königgrätz. Part of the Crown Prince's army were still five German miles from the intended battle ground. Prince Frederick Charles and Herwarth had alone sustained the whole force of Austria in the struggle around Sadowa, which began at 8 o'clock in the morning. Frederick Charles attacked in the centre over against Sadowa; Herwarth on the right at Nechanitz; the Crown Prince was to advance on the left from Königinhof. The Crown Prince received orders at four o'clock in the morning; he could not in all probability reach the field before one or two o'clock after noon. All depended on his arrival in good time. Prince Frederick Charles forced the passage of the Bistritz and took Sadowa and other places, but could not take the heights. His troops

suffered terribly from the awful fire of the Austrian batteries. The King himself and his staff came under fire, from which the earnest entreaties of Bismarck induced him to retire. About one o'clock the danger in the Prussian center was great. After five hours of fighting they could not advance, and began to talk of retreat. On the right, things were better. Herwarth had defeated the Saxons, and threatened the Austrian left. Yet, if the army of the Crown Prince did not arrive, the battle was lost, for the Prussian center was broken. But the Crown Prince brought the expected succor. About two o'clock came the news that a part of the Crown Prince's army had been engaged since one o'clock. The Austrians, attacked on their right flank and rear, had to give way in front. Under loud shouts of 'Forward,' Prince Frederick Charles took the Wood of Sadowa at three, and the heights of Lipa at four o'clock. At this very time, four o'clock, Benedek had already given orders to retreat. . . . From the . . . first the Prussians were superior to the Austrians in ammunition, provisions and supplies. They had a better organization, better preparation, and the needle-gun, which proved very destructive to the Austrians. The Austrian troops fought with thorough gallantry. . . . Respecting this campaign, an Austrian writes: 'Given in Vienna a powerful coterie which reserves to itself all the high commands and regards the army as its private estate for its own private benefit, and defeat is inevitable.' [See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 20]. The Austrians lost at Sadowa, according to the official accounts at Vienna, 174 cannon, 18,000 prisoners, 11 colors, 4,190 killed, 11,900 wounded, 21,400 missing, including the prisoners. The Prussians acknowledged a loss of only 10,000 men. The result of the battle was heavier for Austria than the loss in the action and the retreat. The armistice which Benedek asked for on the 4th of July was refused by the Prussians: a second request on the 10th was also rejected. On the 5th of July the emperor of Austria sought the mediation of France to restore peace. . . . All further movements were put a stop to by the five days' armistice, which began on the 22d of July at noon, and was followed by an armistice for four weeks. . . . Hostilities were at an end on Austrian territory when the war began on the Main against the allies of Austria. The Bavarian army, under the aged Prince Charles, distinguished itself by being driven by the less numerous forces of Prussia under General Falkenstein across the Saale and the Main. . . . The eighth federal army corps of 50,000 men, composed of contingents from Baden, Würtemberg, Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau, and 12,000 Austrians under Prince Alexander of Hesse, was so mismanaged that the Würtemberg contingent believed itself sold and betrayed. . . . On the 16th of July, in the evening, Falkenstein entered Frankfurt, and in the name of the king of Prussia took possession of this Free City, of Upper Hesse and Nassau. Frankfurt, on account of its Austrian sympathies, had to pay a contribution of six millions of gulden to Falkenstein, and on the 19th of July a further sum of nineteen millions to Manteuffel, the successor of Falkenstein. The latter sum was remitted when the hitherto Free City became a Prussian city. Manteuffel, in several actions from the 23d to the 26th of July, drove the federal army back to Würzburg; Göben defeated the army of Baden at Werbach, and that of Würtemberg at Tauberbischofsheim; before this the eighth federal army corps joined the Bavarian army, and on the 25th and 26th of July the united forces were defeated at Gerschheim and Ross-

brunn, and on the 27th, the citadel of Würzburg was invested. The court of Vienna had abandoned its South German allies when it concluded the armistice; it had not included its allies either in the armistice or the truce. . . . On the 29th of July, the Baden troops marched off homewards in the night, the Austrians marched to Bohemia, the Bavarians purchased an armistice by surrendering Würzburg to the Prussians. Thus of the eighth army corps, the Würtembergers and Hessians alone kept the field. On the 2d of August these remains of the eighth army corps were included in the armistice of Nicholsburg."—W. Zimmermann, *Popular history*, v. 4, bk. 6, ch. 3.—"After Sadowa, Prussia was in a position to dictate the terms of peace. . . . Preliminaries of peace were signed at Nicolsburg, July 26, and the final treaty at Prague, August 23. Italy received Venice; Austria conveyed to Prussia its interests in Schleswig-Holstein and recognized the dissolution of the old German confederation and the creation of a new North German confederation, to be composed of the states north of the Main. North of the Main, also, Prussia was to annex such territories

B. Malleon, *Refounding of the German empire*, ch. 6-10.

1866-1867.—Foreshadowings of the new empire.—"We may make the statement that in the autumn of 1866 the German Empire was founded. . . . The Southern States were not yet members of the Confederation, but were already, to use an old expression, relatives of the Confederation (Bundesverwandte) in virtue of the offensive and defensive alliances with Prussia and of the new organization of the Tariff-Union. . . . The natural and inevitable course of events must here irresistibly break its way, unless some circumstance not to be foreseen should throw down the barriers beforehand. How soon such a crisis might take place no one could at that time estimate. But in regard to the certainty of the final result there was in Germany no longer any doubt. . . . Three-fourths of the territory of this Empire was dominated by a Government that was in the first place efficient in military organization, guided by the firm hand of King William, counselled by the representatives of the North German Sovereigns, and recognized by all the Powers of Europe. The



Bismarck



Emperor William I



Von Moltke

## FOUNDERS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

as it saw fit, promising to spare Saxony. The South German states were to be permitted to form an independent confederation of their own. Austria was for ever excluded from Germany. . . . Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau and the free city of Frankfurt, adding four and a half millions to its population and increasing its territory by a fourth. The annexation of Hanover was especially advantageous; it rounded out what Motley had described as 'Prussia's wasp-waist.' . . . In the light of these splendid achievements, the public judgment of Bismarck underwent an immediate and complete reversal. . . . The revulsion of feeling which followed the Austrian war, and the sudden popularity of its author, were not due solely, nor even chiefly, to the vulgar admiration of success. Bismarck had realized the deepest desire of the German people. He had made Germany a nation, with a legislature resting on the broadest and most popular basis. He also made peace with the Prussian Chamber of Deputies."—M. Smith, *Bismarck and German unity*, pp. 38-39, 40-42.—See also AUSTRIA: 1862-1866; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: a. 1.

ALSO IN: H. von Sybel, *Founding of the German empire*, v. 5, bk. 17-20.—C. Adams, *Great campaigns in Europe from 1796 to 1870*, ch. 10.—Count von Beust, *Memoirs*, v. 1, ch. 29-34.—G.

opening of that Parliament was near at hand, that should in common with this Government determine the limitations to be placed upon the powers of the Confederation in its relation to the individual states and also the functions of the new Reichstag in the legislation and in the control of the finances of the Confederation. . . . It was, in the first place, certain that the functions of the future supreme Confederate authority would be in general the same as those specified in the Imperial Constitution of 1849. . . . The most radical difference between 1849 and 1866 consisted in the form of the Confederate Government. The former period aimed at the appointment of a Constitutional and hereditary emperor, with responsible ministers, to the utter exclusion of the German sovereigns; whereas now the plan included all of these sovereigns in a Confederate Council (Bundesrath) organized after the fashion of the old Confederate Diet, with committees for the various branches of the administration, and under the presidency of the King of Prussia, who should occupy a superior position in virtue of the conduct, placed in his hands once for all, of the foreign policy, the army and the navy, but who otherwise in the Confederate Council, in spite of the increase of his votes, could be outvoted like every other prince by a de-

cree of the majority. . . . Before the time of the peace-conferences, when all definite arrangements of Germany's future seemed suspended in the balance and undecided, the Crown Prince Frederick William, who in general had in mind for the supreme head of the Confederation a higher rank and position of power than did the King, maintained that his father should bear the title of King of Germany. Bismarck reminded him that there were other Kings in Germany: the Kings of Hanover, of Saxony, etc. 'These,' was the reply, 'will then take the title of Dukes.' 'But they will not agree to that.' 'They will have to!' cried His Royal Highness. After the further course of events, the Crown Prince indeed gave up his project; but in the early part of 1867 he asserted that the King should assume the title of German Emperor, arguing that the people would connect no tangible idea with the title of President of the Confederation, whereas the renewal of the imperial dignity would represent to them the actual incorporation of the unity finally attained, and the remembrance of the old glory and power of the Empire would kindle all hearts. This idea, as we have experienced and continue to experience its realization, was in itself perfectly correct. But it was evidently at that time premature: a North German empire would have aroused no enthusiasm in the north, and would have seriously hindered the accomplishment of the national aim in the south. King William rejected this proposition very decidedly: in his own simple way he wished to be nothing more than Confederate Commander-in-chief and the first among his peers."—H. von Sybel, *Founding of the German empire by William I*, v. 5, bk. 20, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: J. E. Barker, *Foundation of the German empire*.—J. W. Headlam, *Bismarck and the foundation of the German empire*.—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*.

1866-1870.—Territorial concessions demanded by France.—Rapid progress of German unification.—Zollparlament.—Luxemburg question.—French determination for war.—"The conditions of peace . . . left it open to the Southern States to choose what relationship they would form with the Northern Confederation. This was a compromise between Bismarck and Napoleon, the latter fearing a United Germany, the former preferring to restrict himself to what was attainable at the time, and taking care not to humiliate or seriously to injure Austria, whose friendship he foresaw that Germany would need. Meanwhile Napoleon's interference continued. Scarcely had Benedetti, who had followed Bismarck to the battlefields, returned to Berlin, when he received orders from his Government to demand not less than the left bank of the Rhine as a compensation for Prussia's increase of territory. For this purpose he submitted the draft of a treaty by which Prussia was even to bind herself to end an active support to the cession of the Bavarian and Hessian possessions west of the Rhine! . . . Bismarck would listen to no mention of ceding German territory. 'Si vous refusez,' said the conceited Corsican, 'c'est la guerre.'—'Eh bien, la guerre,' replied Bismarck calmly. Just as little success had Benedetti with King William. 'Not a clod of German soil; not a chimney of a German village,' was William's kingly reply. Napoleon was not disposed at the time to carry out his threat. He disavowed Benedetti's action, declaring that the instructions had been obtained from him during his illness and that he wished to live in peace and friendship with Prussia. Napoleon's covetousness had at least one good effect: it furthered the work of German

union. Bavaria and Würtemberg, who during the war had sided with Austria, had at first appealed to Napoleon to mediate between them and Prussia. But when the Ministers of the four South German States appeared at Berlin to negotiate with Bismarck, and Benedetti's draft-treaty was communicated to them, there was a complete change of disposition. They then wished to go much further than the Prussian Statesman was prepared to go: they asked, in order to be protected from French encroachments, to be admitted into the North German Confederation. But Bismarck would not depart from the stipulations of the Treaty of Nikolsburg. The most important result of the negotiations was that secret treaties were concluded by which the Southern States bound themselves to an alliance with the Northern Confederation for the defence of Germany, and engaged to place their troops under the supreme command of the Prussian King in the event of any attack by a foreign Power. In a military sense Klein-Deutschland was now one, though not yet politically. . . . That Prussia was the truly representative German State had been obvious to the thoughtful long before: the fact now stood out in clear light to all who would open their eyes to see. Progress had meanwhile been made with the construction of the North German Confederation, which embraced all the States to the north of the river Main. Its affairs were to be regulated by a Reichstag elected by universal suffrage and by a Federal Council formed of the representatives of the North German Governments. In a military sense it was a Single State, politically a Confederate State, with the King of Prussia as President. This arrangement was not of course regarded as final; and in his speech from the throne to the North German Reichstag, King William emphasized the declaration that Germany, so long torn, so long powerless, so long the theater of war for foreign nations, would henceforth strive to recover the greatness of her past. . . . A first step towards 'bridging over the Main,' i.e., causing South and North to join hands again, was taken by the creation of a Zollparlament, or Customs Parliament, which was elected by the whole of Klein-Deutschland, and met at Berlin, henceforth the capital of Germany. It was also a step in advance that Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt signed conventions, by which their military system was put on the same footing as that of the North German Confederation. Baden indeed would willingly have entered into political union with the North, had the same disposition prevailed at the time in the other South German States. The National Liberals however had to contend with strong opposition from the Democrats in Würtemberg, and from the Ultramontanes in Bavaria. The latter were hostile to Prussia on account of her Protestantism, the former on account of the stern principles and severe discipline that pervaded her administration. . . . In the work of German unification the Bonapartes have an important share. . . . By outraging the principle of nationality, Napoleon I. had re-awakened the feeling of nationality among Germans: Napoleon III., by attempting to prevent the unification of Germany, actually hastened it on. . . . When King William had replied that he would not yield up an inch of German soil, 'patriotic pang' at Prussian successes and the thirst for 'compensation' continued to disturb the sleep of the French Emperor, and as he was unwilling to appear baffled in his purpose, he returned to the charge. On the 16th of August, 1866, through his Ambassador Benedetti, he demanded the cession of Landau, Saarbrücken, Saarlouis, and Luxemburg, together with Prussia's con-

sent to the annexation of Belgium by France. If that could not be obtained, he would be satisfied with Luxemburg and Belgium; he would even exclude Antwerp from the territory claimed that it might be created a free town. Thus he hoped to spare the susceptibilities of England. As a gracious return he offered the alliance of France. After his first interview Benedetti gave up his demand for the three German towns, and submitted a new scheme, according to which Germany should induce the King of the Netherlands to a cession of Luxemburg, and should support France in the conquest of Belgium; whilst, on his part, Napoleon would permit the formation of a federal union between the Northern Confederation and the South German States, and would enter into a defensive and offensive alliance with Germany. Count Bismarck treated these propositions, as he himself has stated, 'in a dilatory manner,' that is to say, he did not reject them, but he took good care not to make any definite promises. When the Prussian Prime Minister returned from his furlough to Berlin, towards the end of 1866, Benedetti resumed his negotiations, but now only with regard to Luxemburg, still garrisoned by Prussian troops as at the time of the old Germanic Confederation. Though the Grand-Duchy of Luxemburg did not belong to the new North German Confederation, Bismarck was not willing to allow it to be annexed by France. Moltke moreover declared that the fortress could only be evacuated by the Prussian troops if the fortifications were razed. But without its fortifications Napoleon would not have it. And when, with regard to the Emperor's intentions upon Belgium, Prussia offered no active support, but only promised observance of neutrality, France renounced the idea of an alliance with Prussia, and entered into direct negotiations with the King of Holland, as Grand Duke of Luxemburg. Great excitement was thereby caused in Germany, and, as a timely warning to France, Bismarck surprised the world with the publication of the secret treaties between Prussia and the South German States. But when it became known that the King of Holland was actually consenting to the sale of his rights in Luxemburg to Napoleon, there was so loud a cry of indignation in all parts of Germany, there was so powerful a protest in the North German Parliament against any sale of German territory by the King of Holland, that Count Bismarck, himself surprised at the vigor of the patriotic outburst, declared to the Government of the Hague that the cession of Luxemburg would be considered a *casus belli*. This peremptory declaration had the desired effect: the cession did not take place. This was the first success in European politics of a united Germany, united not yet politically, but in spirit. That was satisfactory. A Conference of the Great Powers then met in London [May, 1867]: by its decision, Luxemburg was separated from Germany, and,—to give some kind of satisfaction to the Emperor of the French,—was formed into a neutral State. From a national point of view, that was unsatisfactory. . . . The danger of an outbreak of war between France and Germany had only been warded off for a time by the international settlement of the Luxemburg question. . . . In the early part of July, 1870, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, at the request of the Spanish government, became a candidate for the Spanish throne."—G. Krause, *Growth of German unity*, ch. 13-14.

ALSO IN: E. Simon, *Emperor William and his reign*, v. 1, ch. 9-10.—C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, ch. 5-6.

1867-1917.—Bismarck's introduction of uni-

versal manhood suffrage in Reichstag.—Nullification of democratic suffrage in imperial elections. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1867-1917.

1868.—Commercial treaty with Austria-Hungary. See TARIFF: 1853-1870.

1869.—Industrial code. See DEMOCRACY: Tendencies of the 19th century.

1870.—Nationality Act. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: g.

1870.—Establishment of the Deutsche Bank. See DEUTSCHE BANK.

1870 (June-July).—"Hohenzollern incident."—Ems dispatch.—French declaration of war. See FRANCE: 1870 (June-July).

1870 (September-December).—Germanic confederation completed.—Federative treaties with the states of South Germany.—Suggestion of the empire.—"Having decided on taking Strasburg and Metz from France" Prussia "could only justify that conquest by considerations of the safety of South Germany, and she could only defend these interests by effecting the union of North and South. She found it necessary to realize this union at any price, even by some concessions in favor of the autonomy of those States, and especially of Bavaria. Such was the spirit in which negotiations were opened, in the middle of September, 1870, between Bavaria and Prussia, with the participation of Baden, Würtemberg and Hesse-Darmstadt. . . . Prussia asked at first for entire and unreserved adherence to the Northern Confederation, a solution acceptable to Baden, Würtemberg and Hesse-Darmstadt, but not to Bavaria, who demanded for herself the preservation of certain rights, and for her King a privileged position in the future Confederation next to the King of Prussia. The negotiations with Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt came to a conclusion on the 15th of November, and on the 25th, Würtemberg accepted the same arrangement. These three States agreed to the constitution, slightly modified, of the Northern Confederation; the new treaties were completed by military conventions, establishing the fusion of the respective Corps d'Armée with the Federal Army of the North, under the command of the King of Prussia. The Treaty with Bavaria was signed at Versailles on the 23rd of November. The concessions obtained by the Cabinet of Munich were reduced to mere trifles. . . . The King of Bavaria was allowed the command of his army in time of peace. He was granted the administration of the Post-Office and partial autonomy of indirect contributions. A committee was conceded, in the Federal Council, for Foreign Affairs, under the Presidency of Bavaria. The right of the King of Prussia, as President of this Council, to declare war, was made conditional on its consent. Such were the Treaties submitted on the 24th of November to the sanction of the Parliament of the North, assembled in an Extraordinary Session. They met with intense opposition from the National Liberal and from the Progressive Party," but "the Parliament sanctioned the treaties on the 10th of December. According to the Treaties, the new association received the title of Germanic Confederation, and the King of Prussia that of its President. These titles were soon to undergo an important alteration. The King of Bavaria, satisfied with the concessions, more apparent than real, made by the Prussian Cabinet to his rights of sovereignty, consented to defer to the wishes of King William. On the 4th of December, King Louis addressed him [King William] a letter informing him that he had invited the Confederate sovereigns to revive the German Empire and confer the title of Emperor on the President of the





KING WILLIAM I OF PRUSSIA PROCLAIMED FIRST GERMAN EMPEROR  
In the Hall of Mirrors, Palace of Versailles, January 18, 1871  
(After painting by Von Werner)



Confederation. . . . The sovereigns immediately gave their consent, so that the Imperial titles could be introduced into the new Constitution before the final vote of the Parliament of the North. . . . To tell the truth, King William attached slight importance to the votes of the various chambers. He was not desirous of receiving his new dignity from the hands of a Parliament; the assent of the sovereigns was in his eyes far more essential."—E. Simon, *Emperor William and his reign*, v. 2, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: G. Freytag, *Crown prince and the imperial crown*.

1870-1871.—Victorious war with France.—Siege of Paris.—Occupation of the city.—Enormous indemnity exacted.—Acquisition of Alsace and part of Lorraine.—Death rate in war. See FRANCE: 1870 (July-August), to 1871 (January-May); STATISTICS: Vital; ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1871; EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the great powers (1848-1878).

1871.—Complete emancipation and toleration of Jews. See JEWS: Germany: 11th-16th centuries.

1871.—Government control of telegraph systems. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1867-1875.

1871 (January).—Assumption of the imperial dignity by William at Versailles.—“Early in December the proposition came from King Ludwig of Bavaria to King William, that the possession of the presidential rights of the Confederacy vested in the Prussian monarch should be coupled with the imperial title. The King of Saxony spoke to the same purport; and in one day a measure providing for the amendment of the Constitution by the substitution of the words ‘Emperor’ and ‘Empire’ for ‘President’ and ‘Confederation’ was passed through the North German Parliament, which voted also an address to his Majesty, from which the following is an extract: ‘The North German Parliament, in unison with the Princes of Germany, approaches with the prayer that your Majesty will deign to consecrate the work of unification by accepting the Imperial Crown of Germany. The Teutonic Crown on the head of your Majesty will inaugurate, for the re-established Empire of the German nation, an era of power, of peace, of well-being, and of liberty secured under the protection of the laws.’ The address of the German Parliament was presented to the King at Versailles on Sunday, the 18th of December, by its speaker, Herr Simson, who, as speaker of the Frankfort Parliament in 1848, had made the identical proffer to William’s brother and predecessor [see above: 1848-1850]. . . . The formal ratification of assent to the Prussian King’s assumption of the imperial dignity had yet to be received from the minor German States; but this was a foregone conclusion, and the unification of Germany really dates from that 18th of December, and from the solemn ceremonial in the prefecture of Versailles.”—A. Forbes, *William of Germany*, ch. 12.—King William’s formal assumption of the Imperial dignity took place on the 18th of January, 1871. “The Crown Prince was entrusted with all the preparations for the ceremony. Every regiment in the army of investment was instructed to send its colors in charge of an officer and two non-commissioned officers to Versailles, and all the higher officers who could be spared from duty were ordered to attend, for the army was to represent the German nation at this memorable scene. The Crown Prince escorted his father from the Prefecture to the palace of Versailles, where all the German Princes or their representatives were as-

sembled in the Galerie des Glaces. A special service was read by the military chaplains, and then the Emperor, mounting on the dais, announced his assumption of Imperial authority, and instructed his Chancellor to read the Proclamation issued to the whole German nation. Then the Crown Prince as the first subject of the Empire, came forward and performed the solemn act of homage, kneeling down before his Imperial Father. The Emperor raised him and clasped to his arms the son who had toiled and fought and borne so great a share in achieving what many generations had desired in vain.”—R. Rodd, *Frederick, Crown prince and emperor*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: C. Lowe, *Prince Bismarck*, v. 1, ch. 9.

1871 (April).—Constitution of the new empire.—By a proclamation dated April 16, 1871, the German Emperor ordered, “in the name of the German Empire, by and with the consent of the Council of the Confederation and of the Imperial Diet,” that “in the place of the Constitution of the German Confederation,” as agreed to in November 1870, there be substituted a Constitution for the German Empire,—the text of which appeared as an appendix to this imperial decree. See GERMANY, CONSTITUTION OF THE EMPIRE.

ALSO IN: E. Hertset, *Map of Europe by treaty*, v. 3, no. 442.

1871-1873.—Gold standard. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1867-1893.

1871-1879.—Organization of government of Alsace-Lorraine as an imperial province.—“How to garner the territorial harvest of the war—Alsace-Lorraine—was a question which greatly vexed the parliamentary mind. Several possible solutions had presented themselves. The conquered provinces might be made neutral territory; which, with Belgium on one side, and Switzerland on the other, would thus interpose a continuous barrier against French aggression from the mouth of the Rhine to its source. But one fatal objection, among several others, to the adoption of this course was the utter lack, in the Alsace-Lorrainers, of the primary condition of the existence of all neutral States—a determination on the part of the neutralized people themselves to be and remain neutral. And none knew better than Bismarck that it would take years of the most careful nursing to reconcile the kidnapped children of France to their adoptive parent. For him, the only serious question was whether Alsace-Lorraine should be annexed to Prussia, or be made an immediate Reichsland (Imperial Province). ‘From the very first,’ he said, ‘I was most decidedly for the latter alternative, first—because there is no reason why dynastic questions should be mixed up with political ones; and, secondly—because I think it will be easier for the Alsations to take to the name of “German” than to that of “Prussian,” the latter being detested in France in comparison with the other.’ In its first session, accordingly, the Diet was asked to pass a law incorporating Alsace-Lorraine with the Empire, and placing the annexed provinces under a provisional dictatorship till the 1st of January, 1874, when they would enter into the enjoyment of constitutional rights in common with the rest of the nation. But the latter clause provoked much controversy. . . . A compromise was ultimately effected by which the duration of the dictatorship, or period within which the Imperial Government alone was to have the right of making laws for Alsace-Lorraine, was shortened till 1st January, 1873; while the Diet, on the other hand, was only to have the supervision of such loans or guarantees as affected the Empire. In the following year, however, the Diet came to the

conclusion that, after all, the original term fixed for the dictatorship was the more advisable of the two, and prolonged it accordingly. For the next three years, therefore, the Reichsland was governed from the Wilhelmstrasse, as India is ruled from Downing Street. . . . In the beginning of 1874 . . . fifteen deputies from Alsace-Lorraine—now thus far admitted within the pale of the Constitution—took their seats in the second German Parliament. Of these fifteen deputies, five were out-and-out French Protesters, and the rest Clericals—seven of the latter being clergymen, including the Bishops of Metz and Strasburg. They entered the Diet in a body, with much theatrical pomp, the clergy wearing their robes; and one of the French Protesters—bearing the unfortunate name of Teutsch—immediately tabled a motion that the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, having been annexed to Germany without being themselves consulted, should now be granted an opportunity of expressing their opinion on the subject by a plébiscite. . . . The motion of French M. Teutsch, who spoke fluent German, was of course rejected; whereupon he and several of his compatriots straightway returned home, and left the Diet to deal with the interests of their constituents as it liked. Those of his colleagues who remained behind only did so to complain of the 'intolerable tyranny' under which the provinces were groaning, and to move for the repeal of the law (of December, 1871) which invested the local Government with dictatorial powers. . . . Believing home-rule to be one of the best guarantees of federal cohesion, Bismarck determined to try the effect of this cementing agency on the newest part of the Imperial edifice; and, in the autumn of 1874, he advised the Emperor to grant the Alsace-Lorrainers (not by law, but by ordinance, which could easily be revoked) a previous voice on all bills to be submitted to the Reichstag on the domestic and fiscal affairs of the provinces. . . . In the following summer (June, 1875), therefore, there met at Strasburg the first Landesausschuss, or Provincial Committee, composed of delegates, thirty in number, from the administrative District Councils. . . . So well, indeed, on the whole, did this arrangement work, that within two years of its creation the Landesausschuss was invested with much broader powers. . . . Thus it came about that, while the Reichsland continued to be governed from Berlin, the making of its laws was more and more confined to Strasburg. . . . The party of the Irreconcilables had been gradually giving way to the Autonomists, or those who subordinated the question of nationality to that of home-rule. Rapidly gaining in strength, this latter party at last (in the spring of 1870) petitioned the Reichstag for an independent Government, with its seat in Strasburg, for the representation of the Reichsland in the Federal Council, and for an enlargement of the functions of the Provincial Committee. Nothing could have been more gratifying to Bismarck than this request, amounting, as it did, to a reluctant recognition of the Treaty of Frankfurt on the part of the Alsace-Lorrainers. He therefore replied that he was quite willing to confer on the provinces 'the highest degree of independence compatible with the military security of the Empire.' The Diet, without distinction of party, applauded his words; and not only that, but it hastened to pass a bill embodying ideas at which the Chancellor himself had hinted in the previous year. By this bill, the government of Alsace-Lorraine was to center in a Statthalter, or Imperial Viceroy, living at Strasburg, instead of, as heretofore, in the chancellor. . . . Without being a Sovereign, this Statthalter

was to exercise all but sovereign rights. . . . For this high office the Emperor selected the brilliant soldier-statesman, Marshal Manteuffel. . . . Certainly, His Majesty could not possibly have chosen a better man for the responsible office, which the Marshal assumed on the 1st October, 1879. Henceforth, the conquered provinces entered an entirely new phase of their existence."—C. Lowe, *Prince Bismarck*, v. 2, ch. 14.

1871-1881.—Development of government insurance policy.—Social insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1871-1881.

1872-1878.—Bismarck's foreign policy.—Dreikaiserbund. See WORLD WAR: CAUSES: Indirect: c.

1873-1887.—Kulturkampf.—"May Laws" and their repeal.—"The German Kulturkampf, or civilization-fight, as its illustrious chief promoter is said to have named it, may equally well be styled the religion combat, or education strife. [Prussia, which with Hesse-Darmstadt, was the center of this struggle, had, roughly speaking, a population of 27 millions, 9 millions of which were Catholics.] . . . It was on the 9th of January, 1873, that Dr. Falk, Minister of Public Worship, first introduced into the Prussian Diet the bills, which were afterwards to be known as the May Laws [so called because they were generally passed in the month of May, although in different years, but also called the Falk Laws, from the Minister who framed them]. These laws, which, for the future, were to regulate the relations of Church and State, purported to apply to the Evangelical or united Protestant State Church of Prussia . . . as well as to the Catholic Church. Their professed main objects were: first, to insure greater liberty to individual lay members of those churches; secondly, to secure a German and national, rather than an 'Ultramontane' and non-national, training for the clergy; and, thirdly, to protect the inferior clergy against the tyranny of their superiors—which simply meant, as proved in the sequel, the withdrawal of priests and people, in matters spiritual, from the jurisdiction of the bishops, and the separation of Catholic Prussia from the Centre of Unity; thus substituting a local or national Church, bound hand and foot, under State regulation, for a flourishing branch of the Universal Church. To promote these objects, it was provided that all Ecclesiastical seminaries should be placed under State control; and that all candidates for the priesthood should pass a State examination in the usual subjects of a liberal education; and it was further provided, that the State should have the right to confirm or to reject all appointments of clergy. These bills were readily passed: and all the religious orders and congregations were suppressed, with the provisional exception of those which devoted themselves to the care of the sick; and all Catholic seminaries were closed. . . . The Bishops refused to obey the new laws, which in conscience they could not accept; and they subscribed a collective declaration to this effect, on the 26th of May 1873. On the 7th of August following, Pope Pius IX addressed a strong letter of remonstrance to the Emperor William; but entirely without effect, as may be seen in the Imperial reply of the 5th of September. In punishment of their opposition, several of the Bishops and great numbers of their clergy were fined, imprisoned, exiled, and deprived of their salaries. Especially notable among the victims of persecution, were the venerable Archbishop of Cologne, Primate of Russia, the Bishop of Munster, the Prince Bishop of Breslau, the Bishop of Paderborn, and Cardinal Ledochowski, Archbishop of Gnesen and Posen, on whom, then in

# ROYAL HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN.

**FREDERICK III.,**  
*Electoꝛ of Brandenburg*

(1657-1713).  
Created Prussia a  
kingdom and ruled as

**FREDERICK I.,**  
(1713-1740),  
married Sophie Charlotte,  
(1701-1713),  
(sister of George I.  
of England).

**FREDERICK WILLIAM I.,**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1713-1740),  
married Sophia Dorothea  
of Hanover.

**FREDERICK II. ("The Great"),**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1740-1786).

Augustus William  
(d. 1757),  
married Louise  
of Brunswick.

Continued below

**FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.,**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1840-1861).

**WILLIAM I.,**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1861-1871).  
*First German Emperor*  
married Augusta  
of Saxe-Weimar.

**FREDERICK WILLIAM II.,**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1797-1840),  
married Frederika  
of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

**FREDERICK WILLIAM III.,**  
*King of Prussia*  
(1797-1840),  
married Louise  
of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

Continued from above

**FREDERICK III.,**  
*German Emperor,*  
(b. 1831),  
reigned three months, 1888,  
married Victoria  
(daughter of Queen Victoria  
of England).

Louise,  
(b. 1838),  
married to  
*Grand Duke of Baden.*

**Frederick William**  
(b. 1882),  
married 1905, Princess Cecilie  
of Mecklenburg-  
Schwerin.

**Eitel-Frederick**  
(b. 1883),  
married 1906, Sophie  
of Oldenburg.

**Adalbert** (b. 1884),  
married 1914, Adalhold  
of Saxe-Meiningen.

**August** (b. 1887),  
married 1908, Alexandra  
of Schleswig-Holstein.  
**Oscar**  
(b. 1888),  
married 1914, Countess  
Ina Bassowitz.

**Joachim** (1890-1920),  
married 1916, Marie  
of Anhalt.

**Victoria Louise**  
(b. 1892),  
married 1913, to  
*Duke of Brunswick*

**WILLIAM II.,**  
(b. 1859),  
*German Emperor*

married 1881, Augusta Victoria  
of Schleswig-Holstein-  
Sonderburg-Augustenburg.

**Charlotte,**  
(b. 1860),  
married 1878, to  
*Duke of Saxe-Meiningen.*

**Henry,**  
(b. 1862),  
married 1888, Princess Irene  
of Hesse.

**Francis Frederick**  
*Sigismund,*  
(1864-1866).

**Victoria,**  
(b. 1866),  
married 1880, to Prince Adolpb  
of Schaumburg-Lippe.

**Waldemar**  
(1869-1879).

**Sophie**  
(b. 1870),  
married 1889, to Crown  
Prince Constantine,  
afterwards  
*King of Greece*

**Helene** (b. 1896),  
(1913-1917,  
1920-1922).

**Margaretha**  
(b. 1872),  
married 1893, to Prince  
Frederick Charles  
of Hesse.

**George** (b. 1890),  
*King of Greece*  
(1923- ).

**Alexander**  
(1893-1920),  
*King of Greece*  
(1917-1920).

**Irene** (b. 1904),  
Irene (b. 1904).

**Catherine** (b. 1913).

prison, a Cardinal's hat was conferred by the Pope, in March 1875, as a mark of sympathy, encouragement, and approval. . . . The fifteen Catholic dioceses of Prussia comprised, in January 1873, a Catholic aggregate of 8,711,535 souls. They were administered by 4,627 parish-priests, and 3,812 coadjutor-priests, or curates, being a total of 8,439 clergy. Eight years later, owing to the operation of the May Laws, there were exiled or dead, without being replaced, 1,770 of these clergy. . . . Besides these 1,770 secular priests, dead or exiled, and not replaced, there were the regular clergy (the members of religious orders), all of whom had been expelled."—J. N. Murphy, *Chair of Peter*, ch. 20.—"Why was the Kulturkampf undertaken? This is a question often asked, and answered in different ways. That Ultramontanism is a danger to the Empire is the usual explanation; but proof is not producible. . . . Ultramontanism, as it is understood in France and Belgium, has never taken root in Germany. It was represented by the Jesuits, and when they were got rid of, Catholicism remained as a religion, but not as a political factor. . . . The real purpose of the Kulturkampf has been, I conceive, centralisation. . . . A military government cannot tolerate any sort of double allegiance in its subjects. Education and religion, medicine and jurisprudence, telegraphs and post-office, must be under the jurisdiction of the State. . . . From the point of view of a military despotism, the May laws are reasonable and necessary."—S. Baring-Gould, *Germany, present and past*, v. 2, ch. 13.—"The Kulturkampf represented the duel between the Empire and the Curia. On the question of the scope and significance of the Kulturkampf there exists a great difference of opinion on the part of historians. Some of them depict Bismarck as having been surprised by the clerical aggression, which he had not foreseen, and which he did not wish to believe. Driven by his too exclusively realistic nature into imagining that he would make an end of the clerical opposition by having recourse to police measures, he gradually learnt to realise the futility of his brutal policy. He therefore beat a retreat, in spite of his vow that he would 'not go to Canossa,' . . . and allowed the May Laws one after another to fall into desuetude. And finally he found himself obliged to purchase, by means of concessions, the support of the Centre Party, which became the arbiter of the political destinies of Germany and the pivot of the Government majority. Others represent the religious policy of the great chancellor in a less primitive and more favourable light. They insist on the impossibility for Bismarck to come to any understanding by means of diplomatic negotiations, and through the instrumentality of a concordat with a Power which declared itself infallible and aspired to dominate every civil authority. They approve of Bismarck's policy of having, under the circumstances, preferred to regulate the relations between Church and State in an authoritative way, by means of legislation, so as subsequently to be in a position to negotiate secretly with the Head of the Church, and gradually to modify the law in such a manner as to make it acceptable to both sides alike. And they praise the chancellor for having carried out this delicate policy with marvellous skill, for having fought with a warlike spirit and a vigorous resolution the battle against clerical demagoguery, and for having afterwards, in his negotiations with the Curia and the diplomats of Rome, shown a very keen insight into political necessities and possibilities of the moment. And they give him credit for having in the end succeeded in organizing the relationship between Church and State in such

a way as to provide sufficient safeguard for the rights of the State, and at the same time with enough liberality to give satisfaction to the Church with the New Empire. In short, it is quite open to question who was the real victor in this conflict between the spiritual and temporal powers. It required time for both sides to realise that a system of mutual tolerance and even of profitable co-operation was possible. But an agreement was eventually reached between them. The State learnt that it could with advantage give up the hostile legislation and severe measures passed at the beginning of the conflict, and little by little it laid down its arms. In 1879 Falk, who had directed the war against clericalism resigned his ministry."—H. Lichtenberger, *Germany and its evolution in modern times*, pp. 243-244.—In 1880 and 1881 the 'May Laws' were suspended, and, after negotiation with Leo XIII., they were to a large extent repealed. By this change, completed in April, 1887, the obligations of civil marriage and the vesting of Catholic property in the hands of lay trustees were retained, but the legislative interference with the administration of the Church, including the education required for the priesthood, was wholly abandoned. The Prussian Government had entirely miscalculated its power with the Church."—S. Baring-Gould, *Church in Germany*, ch. 21.—See also PACACY: 1870-1874.

ALSO IN: C. Lowe, *Prince Bismarck*, ch. 12-13.—M. Busch, *Our chancellor*.—C. G. Robertson, *Bismarck*.

1875.—Beginnings of anti-Semitism. See JEWS: 18th-19th centuries.

1875.—Establishment of the Reichsbank.—Money and banking system. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1871-1914.

1876.—Interest in colonization in Africa. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890.

1878.—Congress of Berlin. See BERLIN, CONGRESS OF.

1878-1893.—Socialist parties.—Socialistic measures. See SOCIALISM: 1869-1912; 1883-1889.

1879.—Austro-German alliance. See DUAL ALLIANCE; TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Austro-German alliance of 1879.

1879.—Protective tariff legislation of Bismarck. See TARIFF: 1870-1900.

1879-1894.—Government of Alsace-Lorraine. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1870-1894.

1880.—Recognition of Rumania. See RUMANIA: 1881-1907.

1881.—International conference on bimetallic standard.—Attitude. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1867-1893.

1881-1910.—Accident, sickness and old age insurance. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1881-1900; 1883-1910.

1881-1913.—"Universal policy."—Idea of the extent of the German empire.—Emigration tentacles.—Material interests.—Peaceful penetration.—Outside investment of capital.—Diffusion of German culture.—Universal suffrage and expansion.—"The ambition of Germany no longer aims entirely at asserting her power, in the midst of Europe in arms, by the superiority of her military organisation and the solidity of her alliances. She has no longer an exclusively European policy—she has also a universal one. The idea of German imperialism underwent, during the last stage of the national evolution, a fresh extension, which we must now describe in all its bearings. In the first place, the present [1913] German Empire does not consist of Germany. It is—and German historians are quite willing to acknowledge it—an incomplete and doubtless provisional solution of the German

question. 'Germany' extends to every region in which the German language is supreme and German culture flourishes. On every side she overflows the boundaries of the Empire. Cis-Leithanian Austria contained in 1900 a sum-total of 9,171,000 Germans—that is to say, 36 per cent. of the whole population—who energetically preserve their nationality, their language, their culture, and their dominating influence, and are engaged in a bitter struggle for territory—especially in Bohemia—with the Slav majority among whom they live, and endeavour by every possible means to establish their superiority. Trans-Leithanian Austria, in spite of the desperate struggle of the Magyars against the Teutonic element, still contains 2,135,000 Germans—that is to say, 33.3 per cent. of the whole population—who keep their footing with tenacity, or even gain ground, as in Croatia and Slavonia, where the German population has more than quadrupled during the last fifty years. To the east 'Greater Germany' claims the 250,000 Germans who constitute the rich cultured minority in the Baltic provinces of Russia. To the south she embraces German Switzerland, though here apparently the Teutonic element has undergone a slight decrease in comparison with the *Welsche* population. On the west she includes Holland and Flemish Belgium, with their large German colonies (32,000 in Holland, 68,000 in Belgium and Luxemburg). In these two countries of Teutonic extraction, whose commercial relations with Germany grow more active every day, an independent culture has sprung up in opposition to the French culture, which must necessarily renew the traditional bonds which once bound them to Teutonic civilisation. Then, in addition to the countries in which the Teutonic element has flourished for a long time, and in more or less compact masses ideal Germany also contains all Germans who have left their native land either with or without the intention of returning; soldiers who offered their services to foreign masters, Catholic and Protestant missionaries, Asiatic and African explorers, and above all emigrants who, driven out by poverty or by a spirit of adventure, go to seek their fortunes across the seas. All these Germans, whom destiny has planted in every corner of the globe, form a very appreciable element in the power of Germany. The increase in emigration, especially since 1830, is well known. It is estimated that at least 5 million Germans left the mother country during the nineteenth century, and that chiefly during the ten years from 1881 to 1890 (1.3 millions). Thus large numbers of German colonies have come into existence, the most important of which is that in the United States. According to statistics, there are 25 million Americans of German extraction, and 10 to 12 million whose German origin is more clearly marked, either by the fact that they have German parents or that they have preserved, in their customs and their culture, some tie with the mother country. And this imposing colony—there are almost as many Germans in the United States as in Austria—would be an asset of the highest importance for Teutonic power were it not that the German element allows itself to be assimilated with such facility, and loses its racial characteristics in the second and third and sometimes even in the first generation. In South America the emigrants, who are far less numerous than in the United States—their numbers have not quite reached half a million—have on the contrary preserved their national character better. Important establishments are to be found in Chili, in Bolivia, in Buenos Ayres, and above all in Brazil, where, in the state of Rio Grande do Sul especially, a flourishing colony of almost 200,000 people has sprung up—that is to

say, about half the entire German population of Brazil. In Australia the German colonies seem destined, as in the United States, to become rapidly absorbed by the Anglo-Saxon element. On the other hand, the German colonies which have emigrated eastwards in the direction of Turkish and Russian possessions, or which have penetrated as far as the Caucasus, Turkestan, and Siberia on the one side, and Palestine on the other, seem to have preserved their racial characteristics better and are likely to develop and prosper. The same may be said of the other German centres in Asia (especially in the Dutch colonies, and in Africa, where—above all in the Cape—the German element is exceedingly strong, and may one day be called upon to play a very important part in spite of the recent defeat of the Boers. Lastly, in order to complete this enumeration of the forces of Teutonism, we must include the crowds of Germans scattered throughout the countries of Europe, especially in France (87,000), in England (53,000), in Italy (11,000), in Denmark (35,000), in Scandinavia, Servia, Bulgaria, Roumania, Turkey, etc. At the end of the nineteenth century the sum-total of Germans resident in Europe was estimated at 76½ millions, to which must be added 12 million Germans settled in other parts of the world—that is to say, over 10 million in the United States, 400,000 in North America, 18,000 in Central America, a few less than 500,000 in South America, 623,000 in Africa, 110,000 in Australasia, and 88,000 in Asia. . . . Germany does not confine herself to sending forth her people all over the world; her capital also seeks for good investments abroad. In proportion as she has become an exporting country and has increased her industry and developed her maritime trade, her material interests abroad have grown to considerable proportions. In Central Europe Italy is the chief country to see her industry being developed, thanks to German capital. In the East the influence of Germany makes itself felt principally in Turkey. The relations between these two countries, which have been very cordial ever since the Russo-Turkish War, were still more firmly cemented in 1882 when the military mission under Von der Goltz and Rüstow-Pacha undertook the reform of the Ottoman army. Soon Turkey became a regular happy hunting-ground for German merchants, bankers, and engineers. German finance gradually became mistress of the chief railways of the Ottoman Empire. And by a bold policy a peaceful penetration, based upon the construction of great railways, German finance is endeavoring to open up Asia Minor and then Mesopotamia, and thus by a great trans-continental railway connect Constantinople with the Persian Gulf. The commercial relations of Germany with the Far East have also become exceedingly active since the *Nord-deutscher Lloyd* organised in 1886 a regular service between the German ports and the principal ports of Asia and Australia, and above all from the moment when Germany obtained in 1896 the concession of Tientsin and Han-kow, and in the following year occupied Kiao-chou. . . . In 1890 statistics gave 7,000 or 7,500 millions of marks as the sum-total of German capital invested in concerns abroad, and 12,500 to 13,000 millions of marks as the aggregate of German capital invested in foreign securities. The growth of German industry and the necessity of protecting her interests abroad was inevitably destined to lead the Empire to the gradual formation of a colonial territory. . . . For a long time her [Germany's] policy had been above all national. Taking as her basis the German State, she had had as her aim the power and prosperity of this state. She had therefore been above all a

European nation, chiefly if not exclusively concerned with the European interests of Germany and her position in that continent. Then gradually her policy began to grow *universal* and *imperialistic*. She founded it no longer solely upon the real and concrete German Empire, but on Germans and German interests throughout the world. And she tended to favour German expansion in every shape and form in the four quarters of the globe. Imperialistic 'Germany' is not confined within the limits of the Empire—she embraces the whole domain of Teutonic interests; she can be extended to the same limits as those interests, and she is capable of a peaceful development in proportion as the rays of German activity spread not only in German territory, but also abroad. In her conception states are no longer territories with rigidly barricaded frontiers, but rather spheres of influence with ever-varying limits, which become every day more inextricably involved in each other, which penetrate each other mutually, and are constantly being modified according to the development of the activity and industry of a certain race. In other words, the struggle for power no longer takes place only between organised states, and is not only embodied in wars and the conquest of fresh territory. It is incessantly going on between German, American, English, and French 'enterprises.' It is a never ending war—no longer a military contest, but an industrial, commercial, and scientific one, whose seat is the whole world, and every spot in which rival interests find themselves face to face. German imperialism, therefore, does not stop at claiming a dominant position among the Powers of Europe. It aims at developing German might everywhere and in every shape. It works hard to tighten the bonds of solidarity between the Germans of the Empire and their brethren abroad, and to develop all the German communities and all the emigrant colonies in foreign lands. It encourages the outside investment of German capital and takes an interest in the diffusion of German culture in the world by means of schools, science, and books. Imperialism is, in short, the programme of the system of enterprise applied to politics. . . . The imperial policy has been the object of violent attacks both by the Agrarian Party and by the representatives of industry, as well as the Liberals. The latter have recently shown themselves exceedingly discontented. Without disputing the economic development of modern Germany, without even denying that the year 1906 was particularly prosperous, and that the national industry was continuing to increase in the most brilliant manner, they yet refuse to admit that the Government has had anything to do with this progress. It was to be laid entirely at the door of the felicitous initiative on the part of capitalists and business men. The Government, according to them, has done nothing to facilitate their task. On the contrary, it has handicapped them by a commercial policy which sacrifices the interests of German labour to those of the agricultural party, and by a too personal foreign policy, which through its ambitious designs and its capricious and blustering behaviour has sown unrest and suspicion everywhere, and has ended by isolating Germany in Europe. But if the parties of the Left have clearly but little sympathy for a Government which 'combines a universal and imperialistic policy with that of the Prussian country squire,' their discontent is apparently not shared by the mass of the people. Universal suffrage [see SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1867-1917] has just given its verdict in favour of the policy of national expansion favoured by the Government, and has thus

proved the Emperor right, in distinction to the 'pessimists' (*Schwartzseher*), who decry the 'new system.' Under these circumstances one is tempted to admit that the imperial will has hitherto succeeded fairly well in unravelling the multifarious tendencies which have come to light in the country, and that the imperialism of contemporary Germany has its roots not only in the ambitious dreams of a single monarch, but in the soaring will to power of the nation itself.—H. Lichtenberger, *Germany and its evolution in modern times*, pp. 149-154, 158-159, 164-165.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Conflicting currents before World War.

1882.—Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties; Predicament of Italy: 1870-1882; Success of the alliance; ITALY: 1870-1901; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: a; c.

1883.—Secret treaty with Rumania. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c.

1883-1900.—Practical operation of state system of workmen's insurance.—Enlargement of its provisions.—By a series of laws enacted in 1883, 1884 and 1889, a system of compulsory state insurance of workmen was established in Germany, applying in the first instance to sickness, then to accidents, and finally becoming a pensioning insurance for old age and permanent invalidity. These laws establish a compulsion to be insured, but leave freedom of choice as to the associations in which the insurance shall be maintained, all such associations being under the surveillance of the state. In a report from U. S. consul J. C. Monaghan, Chemnitz, made July, 1898, the practical working of the system to that time is thus described:

"The object of the system is to alleviate the sufferings of workmen and their families: (1) in cases of sickness (sick insurance); (2) in cases of accidents incurred at work (accident insurance); (3) in cases of feebleness, wasting diseases, decreased capacity to work, and old age (invalid and old-age insurance). In cases coming under No. 1 there is given free medical treatment; sick money—that is, money during period of sickness with which to obtain medicine, nourishment, etc.—or, if desired, free treatment in a hospital and support for the family; and money, in case of death, is supplied the family. The fund is furnished by employers and employed—the former paying one-third, the latter two-thirds. In cases of accident insurance the parties receive support during convalescence, from the fourteenth week after the accident happens. Money is given the wounded person from the fifth week. Rents are paid from the first day of the fourteenth week after the accident. The rents amount to two-thirds, and in some cases to three-fifths, of the workman's yearly salary. The fund for burial expenses is furnished by the employers. In cases coming under invalid and old-age insurance, the parties receive rents from the time they are unable to work, without regard to age; old-age rents, from the seventieth year, even if they can work and do not draw invalid rent; and assistance against disease so as to prevent incapacity. In case of his death or marriage, the full sum paid by the party is returned.

Besides this system, there are others by which workmen are aided. There are State and private insurance and pension systems. Whether a system which makes so much for paternalism is one to commend, I can not say. Its effects here have been anything but bad. Poverty, in spite of poor wages, is practically unknown.—*United States consular reports*, Sept., 1898, p. 51.—A revision of the accident insurance law in 1900



extended the compulsory insurance to laborers in breweries and in the shops of blacksmiths, locksmiths and butchers, and to window cleaners. It raised the amount of assistance provided for the injured in many cases, making it in some instances of permanent disability equal to the wages previously earned. It also fixed more sharply the responsibility for carelessness on the part of an employer.

1884-1894.—Colonization in Africa.—Agreements with European powers concerning territorial seizures.—Berlin conference. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century; 1884-1899; BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890; BERLIN ACT; CAMEROONS: Occupation by Germany; NIGERIA: 1882-1899; SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1884; TOGOLAND; TANGANYIKA TERRITORY: German colonization.

1884-1914.—Colonization in the Pacific. See NEW GUINEA; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914; SAMOA: 1879-1889.

1885.—Trouble with Spain over Caroline islands. See SPAIN: 1874-1885.

1885.—Organization of German empire.—“The idea of the unity of the empire in its purest and most unadulterated form is most clearly typified by the German diet [Reichstag]. This assembly, resulting from general elections of the whole people, shows all the clefts and schisms which partisanship and the spirit of faction have simultaneously brought about among the different classes of the people and among their representatives. But there . . . never has been a single case where in taking a vote north Germans have come forward in a body against south Germans or vice versa, or where small and medium states have been pitted against the one large state. . . . How indispensable a parliamentary organ which actually represents the unity of the people is to every state in a confederation is best shown by the energy with which the Prussian government again and again demanded a German parliament at the very time when it fairly despaired about coming to an understanding with its own body of representatives. In the middle between the head of the empire and such a diet as we have described is the place occupied by the Federal Council (Bundesrath): not until we have made this clear to ourselves can we fully understand the nature of this latter institution. Each of its members is the plenipotentiary of his sovereign just as were the old Regensburg and Frankfurt envoys. It is a duty for instance, for Bavaria's representative to investigate each measure proposed and to see whether it is advantageous or not for the land of Bavaria. The federal Council is and is meant to be the speaking-tube by which the voice of the separate interests shall reach the ear of the legislator. But all the same, held together as it is by the firm stability of the seventeen votes which it holds itself and by the balancing power of the emperor and of the diet, it is the place where daily habit educates the representatives of the individual states to see that by furthering the welfare of the common fatherland they take the best means of furthering their own local interests. Taken each by himself the plenipotentiaries represent their own individual states; taken as a whole the assembly represents a conglomeration of all the German states. It is the upholder of the sovereignty of the empire. If, then, the federal council already represents the whole empire, still more is this true of the general body of officials, constituted through appointment by the emperor, although with a considerable amount of co-operation on the part of the federal council. The imperial chancellor is

the responsible minister of the emperor for the whole of the empire. At his side is the imperial chancery, a body of officials who, in turn, have to do in each department with the affairs of the whole empire. The imperial court, too, in spite of all its limitations, is none the less a court for the whole empire. Not less clearly is the territorial unity expressed in the unity of legislation. In the circumstances in which we left the old empire there could scarcely be any question any longer of real imperial legislation. Under the confederation beginnings were made, nor were they unsuccessful; but once again it was primarily the struggle against the strivings for unity that chiefly impelled the princes to united action. The ‘Carlsbad Decrees’ placed limits to separate territorial legislation to an extent that even the imperial legislation of to-day would not venture upon in many ways. The empire of the year 1848 at once took up the idea of imperial legislation; a ‘Reichsgesetzblatt’ [imperial legislative gazette] was issued. In this the imperial ministry, after first passing them in the form of a decree, published among other things a set of rules regulating exchange. The plan was broached of drawing up a code of commercial law for all Germany for the benefit of that class of the population to which a uniform regulation of its legal relationships was an actual question of life and death. So firmly rooted was such legislations in the national needs that even the reaction of the fifties did not venture to undo what had been done. Indeed, the idea of a universal code of commercial law was carried on by most of the governments with the best will in the world. A number of conferences were called, and by the end of the decade a plan had been drawn up, thoroughly worked out and adopted. It has remained up to this very day the legal basis for commercial intercourse. It is true it was not the general decrees of these conferences that gave legal authority to this code, but rather its subsequent acceptance by the governments of the individual states. But the practical result nevertheless was that, in one important branch of law, the same code was in use in all German states. Never before, so long as Germany had had a history, had a codification of private law been introduced by means of legislation into the German states in common; for the first time princes and subjects learned by its fruits the blessing of united legislation. But a few years later they were ready enough to give over to the newly established empire an actual power of legislation: only, indeed, for such matters as were adapted for common regulation, but, so far as these were concerned, so fully and freely that no local territorial law can in any way interfere. What the lawgiver of the German empire announces as his will must be accepted from the foot of the Alps to the waves of the German Ocean. Thus after long national striving the view had made a way for itself that, without threatening the existence of the individual states, the soil of the empire nevertheless formed a united territorial whole. But not only the soil, its inhabitants also had to be welded together into one organization. The old empire had lost all touch with its subjects—a very much graver evil than the disintegration of its territory. So formidable an array of intermediate powers had thrust itself in between the emperor and his subjects that at last the citizen and the peasant never by any chance any more heard the voice of their imperial master. . . . In three ways the German emperor now found the way to his subjects. Already as king of Prussia the emperor of the future had been obeyed by 19 millions of the whole

German population as his immediate subjects. By the entrance of a further 8 millions into the same relationship on the resignation of their own territorial lords by far the majority of all Germans became immediate subjects of the emperor. The German empire, secondly, in those branches of the administration which it created anew or at least reorganized, made it a rule to preserve from the very beginning the most immediate contact with its subjects: so in the army, so in the department of foreign affairs. The empire, finally, even where it left the administration to the individual states, exercised the wholesome pressure of a supreme national authoritative organization by setting up certain general rules to be observed. The empire, for instance, will not allow any distinctions to be made among its subjects which would interfere with national unity. If the Swabian comes to Hesse, the Hessian to Bavaria, the Bavarian to Oldenburg, his inborn right of citizenship gives him a claim to all the privileges of one born within those limits. For all Germany there is a common right of citizenship; and this common bond receives its true significance through numerous actual migrations from one state to another, the right of choosing a domicile being guaranteed. . . . It belongs in the nature of a federative state that it should not claim for itself all state-duties but should content itself with exercising only such functions as demand a centralized organization. In consequence we see the individual states unfolding great activity in the field of internal administration, in the furtherance of education, art and science, in the care of the poor: matters with which the empire as a whole has practically nothing to do. All those affairs of the states, on the other hand, which by their nature demand a centralized administration have been taken in hand by the empire, and the unity of public interests to which the activity of the empire gives utterance is shown in the most different ways. There are certain affairs administered by the empire which it has brought as much under a central organization as ever the Prussian state did the affairs of the amalgamated territories within its limits. With regard to others the empire has preserved for itself nothing more than the chief superintendence; with regard to others still it is content to set up principles which are to be generally followed and to exercise a right of supervision. It would be wrong, however, to imagine that the two last-mentioned prerogatives are only of secondary importance. The superintendence which the German emperor exercises over the affairs of the army, the chief part of which, indeed, is under his direction as king of Prussia, is sufficient in its workings to make the land-army, in time of war, as much of a unit as is the consolidated navy. . . . Customs matters form a third category, with regard to which the empire possesses only the beginnings of an administrative apparatus; all the same we have seen in the last years how the right of general supervision was sufficient in this field to bring about a change in the direction of centralization, the importance of which is recognizable from the loud expressions of approval of its supporters and also in equal measure from the loud opposition of its antagonists. . . . In the field of finance the empire has advanced with caution and consideration and at the same time with vigor. In general the separate states have retained their systems of direct and indirect taxation. Only that amount of consolidation without which the unity of the empire as a whole would have been illusory was firmly decreed: 'Germany forms one customs and commercial unit bounded by common customs limits.' The internal

inter-state customs were abolished. The finances that remained continued to belong to the individual states—the direct taxes in their entirety, the indirect to a great extent. The administration of the customs on the borders even remained in the hands of the local customs-officials, only that when collected they were placed to the general account. But the unconditional right of the empire to lay down the principles of customs legislation gave it more and more of an opportunity to create finances of its own and to become more and more independent of the scheduled contributions from the separate states. . . . Judicial matters are the affair of the individual state. With his complaints and with his accusations the citizen whose rights have been infringed turns to the court established by his territorial lord. But already it has been found possible to organize a common mode of procedure for this court throughout the whole empire; the rules of court, the forms for criminal as well as civil suits are everywhere the same. . . . The general German commercial code and the exchange regulations, which almost all the states had proclaimed law on the ground of the conferences under the confederation, were proclaimed again in the name of the empire and were supplemented in certain particulars. As to criminal law a general German criminal code has unified the more important matters, and with regard to those of less importance, has legally fixed the limits to be observed by the individual states. Work is constantly going on at a civil code which is to be drawn up much on the same lines. The German nation is busily engaged in creating a German legal system according to which the Prussian as well as the Bavarian, Saxon or Swabian judge is to render his decisions. Furthermore, a century-long development in our civilized states has brought it about that a supervision, itself in the form of legal decisions, should be exercised over the legality of judicial sentences. Here again it was in commercial matters that the jurisdiction of a supreme court first showed itself to be an unavoidable necessity. Then it was, however, that after a slumber of seventy years the old imperial court rose again from the dead, not entirely without limitations, but absolutely without the power to make exceptions. The imperial court at Leipzig is a court for the whole empire and for one and all of its subjects. If we turn to the internal administration it is chiefly matters concerning traffic and intercommunication which call by their very nature for regulation under one system. Although the management of local and to some extent also of provincial postal affairs is left as far as possible to the individual states themselves, the German post is nevertheless imperial, all the higher officials are appointed by the emperor, the imperial post office passes its rules and regulations and sees that they are carried out with reference to the whole empire. . . . What is true of the post is true also of the telegraph, which has come again to be one with it. . . . The railroads stand under the direction or supervisory administration of the individual states, but unity with regard to time-tables, connections, fares, and forwarding has been in so far preserved that differences which might interrupt traffic are avoided as far as possible. The governments of the confederated states are under obligations 'to allow the German railroads, in the interests of general communication, to be administered as one unbroken network.' A separate Imperial railroad bureau watches over the fulfillment of this agreement. Nothing, however, has given clearer expression to a unified system of intercommunication in Germany than the equalization of the coinage. . . . Still worse than with regard to coined money

. . . did the want of unity show itself in the matter of paper money. Not only did the various states have different principles on which they issued it, and a different system of securities in funding it, but one and the same state would continue to use its old paper money even when issuing new on another principle. . . . Founded thus on a system of firm finances, on the uniform administration of justice in all lands, on an internal administration which, however varied, nevertheless fulfills the necessary demands of unity, the German empire shows a measure of consolidation, the best outward expression to which is given by its army. Among the two million men of Teutonic blood on land and on sea who are ready to protect the fatherland's boundaries there is not one who has not sworn fidelity to his imperial master."—I. Jastrow, *Geschichte des deutschen Einheitstraumes und seiner Erfüllung* (tr. from the German), pp. 285-303.

ALSO IN: R. H. Fife, *German empire between two wars*.—W. H. Dawson, *Evolution of modern Germany*.—H. Lichtenberger, *Germany and its evolution in modern times*.

1887.—Final secret treaty between Germany and Russia, commonly known as the "Re-insurance Treaty."—Until 1919, the text of this treaty was known only to the signatories. "Bismarck's disclosure of the existence of this treaty was made in the *Hamburger Nachrichten* of October 24, 1896, and further articles bearing on the subject appeared in issues of that Journal for October 31st and November 12th. The substance of the revelations was published in *The Times* of October 26th, and supplementary statements from Berlin, Vienna and other Continental capitals appeared in many succeeding issues of that Journal."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, p. 504.—The text of this secret treaty taken from A. F. Pribram's *Secret treaties of Austria-Hungary* is as follows:

#### The "Reinsurance Treaty" of 1887

(a)

*Treaty between Germany and Russia, Berlin, June 18, 1887.*

The Imperial Courts of Germany and of Russia, animated by an equal desire to strengthen the general peace by an understanding destined to assure the defensive position of their respective States, have resolved to confirm the agreement established between them by a special arrangement, in view of the expiration on June 15-27, 1887, of the validity of the secret Treaty and Protocol, signed in 1881 and renewed in 1884 by the three Courts of Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary.

To this end the two Courts have named as Plenipotentiaries:

His Majesty the Emperor of Germany, King of Prussia, the Sieur Herbert Count of Bismarck-Schoenhausen, His Secretary of State in the Department of Foreign Affairs;

His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, the Sieur Paul Count Schouvaloff, His Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to his Majesty the Emperor of Germany, King of Prussia, who, being furnished with full powers, which have been found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

#### Article I

In case one of the High Contracting Parties should find itself at war with a third great Power, the other would maintain a benevolent neutrality towards it, and would devote its efforts to the

localization of the conflict. This provision would not apply to a war against Austria or France in case this war should result from an attack directed against one of these two latter Powers by one of the High Contracting Parties.

#### Article II

Germany recognizes the rights historically acquired by Russia in the Balkan Peninsula, and particularly the legitimacy of her preponderant and decisive influence in Bulgaria and in Eastern Rumania. The two Courts engage to admit no modification of the territorial status quo of the said peninsula without a previous agreement between them, and to oppose, as occasion arises, every attempt to disturb this status quo or to modify it without their consent.

#### Article III

The two Courts recognize the European and mutually obligatory character of the principle of the closing of the Straits of the Bosphorus and of the Dardanelles, founded on international law, confirmed by treaties, and summed up in the declaration of the second Plenipotentiary of Russia at the session of July 12 of the Congress of Berlin (Protocol 19).

They will take care in common that Turkey shall make no exception to this rule in favor of the interests of any Government whatsoever, by lending to warlike operations of a belligerent power the portion of its Empire constituted by the Straits. In case of infringement, or to prevent it if such infringement should be in prospect, the two Courts will inform Turkey that they would regard her, in that event, as putting herself in a state of war towards the injured Party, and as depriving herself thenceforth of the benefits of the security assured to her territorial status quo by the Treaty of Berlin.

#### Article IV

The present Treaty shall remain in force for the space of three years, dating from the day of the exchange of ratifications.

#### Article V

The High Contracting Parties mutually promise secrecy as to the contents and the existence of the present Treaty and of the Protocol annexed thereto.

#### Article VI

The present Treaty shall be ratified and ratifications shall be exchanged at Berlin within a period of a fortnight, or sooner if may be.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at Berlin, the eighteenth day of the month of June, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven.

(L.S.)

COUNT BISMARCK.

(L.S.)

COUNT PAUL SCHOUVALOFF.

(b)

*Additional Protocol. Berlin, June 18, 1887.*

Additional and very secret Protocol.

In order to complete the stipulations of Articles II and III of the secret Treaty concluded on this same date, the two Courts have come to an agreement upon the following points:

## 1

Germany, as in the past, will lend her assistance to Russia in order to reestablish a regular and legal government in Bulgaria. She promises in no case to give her consent to the restoration to the Prince [Alexander] of Battenberg.

## 2

In case His Majesty the Emperor of Russia should find himself under the necessity of assuming the task of defending the entrance of the Black Sea in order to safeguard the interests of Russia, Germany engages to accord her benevolent neutrality and her moral and diplomatic support to the measures which His Majesty may deem it necessary to take to guard the key of His Empire.

## 3

The present Protocol forms an integral part of the secret Treaty signed on this day at Berlin, and shall have the same force and validity.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at Berlin, the eighteenth day of the month of June, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-seven.

COUNT BISMARCK.  
COUNT PAUL SCHOUVALOFF.

See also below: 1890-1891.

1887.—Triple Alliance with Italy and Austria-Hungary renewed.—Opposition to France. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1887-1893.—Principal political parties of the empire.—Peculiarities of German party government.—Socialist party and its election fluctuations.—Government's attitude toward labor.—Expiration of Socialist law.—Party gain.—“How difficult it is to rule in our country [Germany] is made clear by the facts that one cannot rule in Prussia for any length of time without the support of the Conservatives, nor in the Empire without that of the Liberals. . . . If Conservatism is rooted in the administrative talent of the old Prussians, Liberalism is rooted in the intellectual peculiarities of the German nation. . . . It was the Liberals who first expressed the idea of German Unity, and spread it through the people. They carried out the indispensable preliminary work. . . . Liberalism, in spite of its change of attitude in national questions, has to this day not recovered from the catastrophic defeat which Prince Bismarck inflicted nearly half a century ago [1881] on the party of progress which still clung to the ideas and principles of 1848. . . . The connection between industrial life and political life often causes the representatives of like interests to hold like political opinions. . . . It may also be admitted that the two concrete, historical views of State and Society—the Conservative and the Liberals—and the two abstract, dogmatic views—the Ultramontane and the Social-Democratic—embrace a large number of the facts of political life. The respective party programmes can therefore go into detail accordingly. But here, too, there is a limit. A large number of events in public life cannot be included even in these comparatively comprehensive programmes. . . . On the whole, there is a preponderance of such legislative problems as deal with questions of pure utility, which must be solved by political common sense, and cannot be weighed in the scales of general party views. But such disregard of party programmes is rarely conceded. . . . If party differences really went so deep,

and permeated so completely every detail of political life as is represented in party quarrels, then, considering the number of our parties, none of which has hitherto obtained an absolute majority, it would be impossible to accomplish any legislative work. But, as a matter of fact, much valuable work of different kinds has been done in almost every department of home politics during the last decades. One after the other, the parties have placed themselves at each other's disposal, and have often, with astounding suddenness, overcome the differences they emphasized so strongly before. . . . Bismarck is usually cited as having taken his majorities where he could get them. But in this, as in most references to the time of Bismarck, the point is missing—Bismarck himself at the head of the Government. He held the reins of Government with such an iron grip that he never ran any risk of letting the least scrap of power slip into the hands of Parliament through the influence he conceded to a majority, when he happened to find one at his disposal. . . . Considering the peculiarities of our Government, the parliamentary system would not be a suitable form of Constitution for us. Where this system proves of value, and that is by no means everywhere . . . there . . . parties formed the Constitution in the course of their own foundation and development as in England, as also in a certain sense in Republican France. In Germany the monarchical Governments are the supporters and creators of the Constitution. . . . In States not governed by Parliament the parties feel that their primary vocation is to criticise. They feel no obligation worth mentioning, to moderate their demands, or any great responsibility for the conduct of public affairs. . . . The Center [Ultramontane party] is the strong bastion built by the Roman Catholic section of the people to protect itself from interference on the part of the Protestant majority. The previous history of the Center may be traced back to the times when in the old Empire [Holy Roman] the *Corpus Evangelicorum* was opposed by the *Corpus Catholicorum*. But where as in the old Empire Catholicism and Protestantism were more or less evenly balanced, in the new Empire the Catholics are in the minority; the old Catholic empire has been succeeded by the new Protestant one. It must, however, be admitted that the Catholic minority has a great advantage over the Protestant majority in its unity and solidarity.”—B. von Bülow, *Imperial Germany*, pp. 170, 148, 154-157, 174-175, 140-151, 183-184.—The decade preceding 1887 was marked by growing foreign complications which Bismarck used with consummate skill not only to entrench himself into a dominant position abroad but also to control the various parties in parliament. Boulangist agitation in France (see FRANCE: 1875-1889) was causing considerable anxiety in Germany, and in the fall of 1886 the Reichstag was asked to increase the peace strength of the army. Bismarck objected to the compromise offered by the Reichstag to this request, and in the exciting elections that followed he managed to effect a coalition (cartel) between the Conservatives and National Liberals which carried the day. “In 1887 the Socialist party had suffered a temporary reverse at the polls, for a war scare had seized hold upon the nation, with the result that the Conservative and National Liberal parties gained heavily at the expense of the parties of the Left. The Socialist deputies were reduced from twenty-four to eleven, in spite of a large increase in votes. Before the next elections took place, in February, 1890, the decisions to abandon the Socialist Law [in 1878 an attack on the life of the emperor gave Bismarck an excuse to frame

a law against the Socialists, forbidding meetings and the dissemination of their ideas through the press] and to convene the Labour Conference had been taken, and the complete change in the Government's attitude towards labour thus indicated was represented by the Socialists as a vindication of their position and an endorsement of their claims. In these elections the party won its first great victory. Not only did it return to the Diet thirty-five strong, but the votes recorded for its candidates increased from three-quarters of a million to nearly a million and a half. The Socialist Law expired on September 30, 1890, amid the jubilation of the working classes, who celebrated the restoration of unfettered thought and speech by demonstrations in every part of the country. With the disappearance of coercion a flood of pent-up political energy was let loose and a powerful impetus given to agitation. The first congress of the party after its recovered freedom was held at Halle in October under the influence of this new elation, and there a triumphant story of progress could be told. At the Erfurt Congress of the following year the programme of the party was revised, its organization further strengthened, and its machinery of propagandism perfected. The result was that at the appeal to the country in June, 1893, the party again won a signal triumph. Having gained in three years over a third of a million votes, it was now a party of one and three-quarter millions, and its forty-four seats made it the fourth strongest group in the Diet."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 268-269.

ALSO IN: W. H. Dawson, *Bismarck and state socialism*.

1888.—Death of Emperor William I.—Accession and death of Frederick III.—Accession of William II.—“In 1888 the throne of Imperial Germany was held by three occupants, of whom two passed away within the short space of a hundred days. The first Emperor had reached the ripe age of ninety-one years, thus exceeding by twenty-five and twenty-one years the age at which his immediate predecessors on the throne of Prussia, his brother and father, had died. . . . His tranquil end on March 9th was a fitting close to a life which, in its private aspects, had been one of singular harmony and placidity. . . . With him the last genuine representative of absolutism in Germany and thus in Western Europe may be said to have passed away. For if his first public interest was the army, his strongest instincts were centred on the preservation of every right retained by the Prussian Crown after the grant of the constitution of 1850. Sir Robert Morier regarded it as a weakness of the first Emperor that in politics he had no firm grasp of first principles. In regard to constitutional questions, the truth rather is that he grasped the wrong principles and grasped them too firmly. . . . For him the constitutional arrangements accepted by the nation under duress in the middle of the century were final, and he resolutely resisted all attempts at the further liberalizing of either the Prussian or the imperial system of government. Hence it was that he left the constitutional life both of the monarchy and the Empire just where he found it, for it had neither gone forward nor backward. . . . Because the first Emperor was overshadowed as a statesman by his great Chancellor, the idea is commonly held that he was a man of small intellectual power, of little sagacity, and even only moderately intelligent. No estimate of his character could be wider of the truth. His comprehension of domestic politics may have been limited, because warped by political ideas and prejudices which made it impossible for

him to enter into the mind and spirit of the modern world. His judgment of foreign affairs and relations, on the other hand, showed a clear comprehension of fundamental issues, an unerring instinct for the line of honour, and a sure perception of the true conditions of confidence between Sovereigns, Governments, and States. . . . Never did he give his signature or assent to a document of State without first weighing it anxiously from all sides, and his correspondence with his chief Minister tells again and again of ‘sleepless nights’ passed because of the too-ready endorsement of draft despatches which on further reflection he deemed to be indiscreetly worded and wished to recall. Such a man may have been lacking in resolution, but he certainly had a mind of his own and more than once on large issues—as in the case of the wars of 1864 and 1866—he resisted to the twelfth hour the importunate pressure of his overbearing Minister. The Hohenzollern throne has been filled by greater and stronger men than William I, but by none more conscientious, more honourable, or more devoted to the welfare of his State and people, as he understood it. . . . A double sorrow rested on the land in those days. Germany had lost the old Sovereign, and knew that she must soon lose the new one. For almost a year the Crown Prince [Emperor Frederick III] . . . had been suffering from a throat malady, the malignant nature of which had been suspected but not definitely determined. . . . He was still wintering in the Riviera with his wife when the deathbed summons came to him from Berlin. . . . Seldom have a new ruler and a new reign given rise to more speculation, to wilder hopes on the one hand or wilder apprehensions on the other. He was now fifty-seven years old, yet owing to Bismarck's jealousy of any influence with the Emperor save his own, he had been excluded from participation in public affairs except when acting as regent during his father's incapacity. . . . Not only the German people but the old Emperor himself had been anxious as to the direction which events might take under the new reign. Bismarck, however, was never in doubt that though there might be changes the force of tradition and of his surroundings would prevent the Crown Prince from venturing upon any radical departure. . . . To the surprise of most people and the chagrin of many matters went on just as before. The Emperor made a few changes in the Ministry and the administrative service, but the wholesale displacement of his father's counsellors which had been predicted did not take place. Above all, Bismarck continued at his post as if nothing bad happened. . . . The Emperor's illness threw a shadow upon the new reign and gloom upon the nation, . . . and before three months had passed (June 15th) the hopeless struggle with death came to an end. During this short period affairs were more than ever in Bismarck's hands. He was at once Imperial Chancellor, President of the Federal Council, Foreign Minister, and Prussian Minister President, while his son Count Herbert worked in the Foreign Office under him as officer next in command. Happily few events of moment occurred either at home or abroad to trouble the stricken Sovereign. When the Imperial Diet and Federal Council adopted a bill prolonging the legislative period from three to five years he wished at first to withhold assent on the ground that it was a retrograde step. Bismarck had to remind him that in Imperial legislation the Emperor had neither veto nor voice, and the law was promptly promulgated. The same change was introduced simultaneously in relation to the Prussian Diet. The most notable domestic event of the short reign was the rigorous

suppression of the system of election—manœuvring. . . . The Crown Prince Frederick had long watched with disapproval this trifling with the constitutional rights of Germans to exercise free choice in the election of their deputies, and though helpless to alter it he had condemned it unsparingly in letters to Bismarck. In assenting to quinquennial parliaments for Prussia he told the Minister of the Interior, Herr von Puttkamer, that the odious system of pressure of which he was the impersonation must cease, and that in general public opinion must henceforth be allowed freer expression. Puttkamer, however, was acting under the instructions of another master, and refused to take the warning. . . . In foreign relations no change occurred. Bismarck was as insistent as ever upon the necessity for a good understanding with Russia. . . . If there was no mystery about Emperor Frederick's political opinions and inclinations, his son and successor William II was as a book sealed with seven seals. Born on January 27, 1859, he had had the all-round education of a Prussian Prince. From his seventh to his fourteenth year he was set on the pathway to knowledge by one of the discreetest of tutors, Dr. Hinzpeter. Then he passed several years at the gymnasium of Cassel, and for several terms he studied at Bonn. In February, 1881, he married Princess Augusta Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg, a union which was one of policy as well as of sympathy, for it closed forever the personal feud between the Hohenzollerns and the claimants to the Elbe Duchies. . . . All that was known about his political opinions down to June, 1888, was that he oftener disagreed than agreed with his parents, that a sort of atavism had showed itself in his character, in which were already detected traces of the Great Elector and Frederick the Great, and that he was a devoted admirer of Bismarck. Ingenious attempts have been made to show that there never was any sympathy between Prince William and the Chancellor. . . . A fact not to be doubted is that when he came to the throne he was as devoted and apt a pupil of the Chancellor as any statesman jealous of his reputation and power could have desired. Toasting Bismarck on April 6th, just a month after the death of his grandfather, Prince William said, in an outburst of generous warmth: 'The Empire is like an army corps that has lost its commander-in-chief in the field, while the officer who stands next in rank lies severely wounded. The standard-bearer, however, is our illustrious Prince, our great Chancellor. Let him lead us; we will follow him!' For the rest, the only public interests which he seemed at that time to share were a socio-religious movement which had been started in Berlin several years before by Court Chaplain Stöcker, and above all the army. It was regarded as significant that his first proclamations on the day of his accession were not to the nation, but to the army and the navy: 'so we belong together, born for each other, and so we will ceaselessly hold together, come peace or storm.' The proclamation to 'my people' was issued only three days later. Nevertheless, even in the army he had revealed no such spirit of *camaraderie* as had made his father equally popular amongst officers and men. The son's reign, like the father's began well, for the tragedy of the situation for a time imposed upon parties an unaccustomed restraint, and, on all hands a desire was shown to speed the young ruler auspiciously on his way. In his proclamation to the nation he had promised 'to be a just and clement Prince, to cultivate piety and the fear of God, to advance the welfare of the country, and to be to

the army and navy a helper and a faithful guardian of justice.' In opening the Imperial Diet on June 25th he endorsed the Social Reform Message of his grandfather, and promised to take into his care 'the weak and crushed in the struggle for existence.' 'In foreign policy,' he said, 'I am determined to live in peace with every man so far as in me lies. My love to the army and my position towards it will never lead me into the temptation to deprive the country of the blessings of peace unless war becomes a necessity owing to the Empire or its allies being attacked.' This was all in the spirit of Bismarck, and a reassuring intimation to the nation that the old statesman was to remain. Bismarck, convinced that he was needed, moved by the pathos of the situation, had thrown himself enthusiastically into the service of a third Emperor, and William II for his part seems to have fulfilled for a time the Chancellor's highest expectations. Discussing him with members of the Prussian House of Lords in June, he is reported to have 'spoken with great enthusiasm and with tears in his eyes' of the young Emperor's earnestness and devotion to his new duties."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 215-225.

ALSO IN: R. Rodd, *Frederick, crown prince and emperor*.—G. Freitag, *Crown prince*.

1888.—End of the Free Cities.—"The last two cities to uphold the name and traditions of the Hanseatic League, Hamburg and Bremen, have been incorporated into the German Zoll Verein, thus finally surrendering their old historical privileges as free ports. Lübeck took this step some twenty-two years ago [1866], Hamburg and Bremen not till October, 1888—so long had they resisted Prince Bismarck's more or less gentle suasions to enter his Protecton League. . . . They, and Hamburg in particular, held out nobly, jealous, and rightly jealous, of the curtailment of those privileges which distinguished them from the other cities of the German Empire. It was after the foundation of this empire that the claim of the two cities to remain free ports was conceded and ratified in the Imperial Constitution of April, 1871, though the privilege, in the case of Hamburg, was restricted to the city and port, and withdrawn from the rest of the State, which extends to the mouth of the Elbe and embraces about 160 square miles, while the free-port territory was reduced to 28 square miles. This was the first serious interference with the city's liberty, and others followed, perhaps rather of a petty, annoying, than of a seriously aggressive, character, but enough to show the direction in which the wind was blowing. It was in 1880 that the proposal to include Hamburg in the Customs Union was first politically discussed. . . . In May, 1881, . . . was drafted a proposal to the effect that the whole of the city and port of Hamburg should be included in the Zoll Verein." After long and earnest discussion the proposition was adopted by the Senate and the House of Burgesses. "The details for carrying into effect this conclusion have occupied seven years, and the event was finally celebrated with great pomp, the Emperor William II coming in person to enhance the solemnity of the sacrifice brought by the burghers of the erst free city for the common weal of the German Fatherland. . . . The last and only privilege the three once powerful Hanseatic cities retain is that of being entitled, like the greatest States in the empire, to send their own representatives to the Bundesrath and to the Reichstag."—H. Zimmern, *Hansa towns, period 3, ch. 8, note*.

1889.—Law for coöperation. See COÖPERATION; Germany.

1889.—Treaty with England and the United States over Samoa. See SAMOA: 1879-1889.

1889.—Visit of William II to Turkey. See below: 1800-1914: Alteration of foreign policy; TURKEY: 1914.

1889-1890.—Rupture between Emperor William II and Chancellor Bismarck.—Comments on it by German statesmen.—“The accession of the Emperor William II. on June 16, 1888—the year of the Three Emperors—opened up a wholly new situation. The new sovereign was in his twenty-ninth year, and teeming with energy, ideas, and masterfulness. . . . Germany was instructed to believe that the new sovereign would be in all things as obedient to Bismarck’s advice and ripe experience as had been William I. Bismarck himself believed it. A year later, in the autumn of 1889, when the Tsar was in Berlin and Bismarck emphasised his earnest desire that German policy should maintain a close co-operation with Russia, the Tsar pointedly asked, ‘Are you sure of remaining in office?’ ‘Certainly, your Majesty,’ Bismarck replied, ‘I am absolutely sure of remaining in office all my life.’ That was on October 11. Five months later he had ceased to be Chancellor, and if any date must be selected for the commencement of the serious collision between Chancellor and Emperor it would be October 13, two days after Bismarck’s confident utterance, when a serious difference on foreign policy revealed itself. . . . Bismarck was, indeed, as sane as was Napoleon I. in his later years, but with both men uncontrolled power and overweening confidence in their genius brought out all the latent despotism that from the very first was embedded in their political principles and their interpretation of life; and with both resentment concentrated in a personal hatred of the individual who symbolised the opposition. . . . The plain truth was that after June 1888 the conditions which had made the Bismarckian system workable and possible were suddenly reversed. Bismarck and Germany had grown accustomed to the rule of an emperor never fitted by his gifts to be a great master either of administration or of policy, who in 1871 was in his seventy-fourth year, and with every year was obliged to surrender more and more of power and control to the adviser whose genius, amazing capacity for work, and complete accord with his sovereign in the general principles of government inspired a deep confidence. Bismarck had thus syndicated in himself both the formidable powers of the Imperial Chancellorship and the still more formidable powers of the Emperor and Prussian King. The new Emperor was young, versatile, and fired by a devouring activity. Had he been a constitutional sovereign he would not have been prepared to step on to the shelf during the best years of his life. But he was not a constitutional sovereign. William II. had been born and bred in the militarist atmosphere of the Hohenzollern Court, and he had been trained in the theory, sedulously enforced since 1847 by no one more than by Bismarck himself, that the Prussian monarch personally governed, and that the Prussian Crown was not the idle ornament of a constitutional building, but the living and operative force in the mechanism of the State. . . . There were, in fact, practically no limits to what the Emperor, with the help of the Prussian Crown, could do, if he chose to exercise to its full all the latent power in the prerogative, prestige, and influence of the Imperial and Prussian Monarchy. William II. took some months to discover what an unexplored and inexhaustible heritage had fallen to him—a heritage enriched by Bismarck’s efforts for a quarter of a century. Therein lay the irony of the

situation. Had Bismarck been the Parliament-made minister of a constitutional sovereign, whose ministerial position rested on a national mandate expressed through a representative assembly to which he was responsible, it would have been William II. not Bismarck who must have given way. Bismarck had indeed the confidence of the nation. A plebiscite in 1890 would have retained him in office till death came. But the nation could not save him in 1890, nor could it bring him back. Once he had lost the support of the Crown he was powerless. He could not appeal to the Reichstag nor to the Federal Council, still less to the nation by a general election. He must either resign or be dismissed. He could not even advise his Imperial Majesty whom the Crown should invite to be its chief adviser in his place. And it is in the record that the man who all his life had fought against the conception of an electro-plated royalism, and against a kingship emasculated by English Liberalism, should later denounce this subservience to a personal monarchy as ‘Byzantinism and Cæsar worship.’ . . . A new epoch had arrived in Germany which knew and revered Bismarck, but Bismarck neither knew nor revered it. William II. was a child of the new epoch. Bismarck had taught Germany to be strong and how to be strong. He had placed the Empire on the pinnacle of Continental power, and new worlds had swum into its ken. The young Imperial Germany of 1888 desired to prove that it was as strong, as great, as ambitious, and as saturated with the realism of life as the Germany that had overthrown Vienna and the Babylon of France. It was grateful for Bismarck’s achievements; Bismarck summed up for it all that was mighty in Germanism; the ends that Bismarck defined must pass with Bismarck himself; but Bismarckian methods and the Bismarckian gospel were imperishable and could not be superseded. The profoundest homage that could be paid to the master was to apply the principles and methods of Bismarckian statecraft to the problems of the future. The Bismarckian Empire that was the State, incarnating Continental Power, must be transformed into the World-Empire that incarnated World-Power. Nothing must happen in the world within or without Europe in which Germany had not the deciding voice. Bismarckianism not Bismarck was the model. . . . Thus by the autumn of 1889 the whole Bismarckian system was being challenged—and by the Emperor.”—C. G. Robertson, *Bismarck*, pp. 459, 461-464.—The immediate cause of his resignation was an order from the new sovereign which repealed an arrangement established by the latter’s grandfather, in 1852, whereby a responsible ministry was created in Prussia, through the giving of responsible authority to a prime minister at its head. Bismarck had asked William that, in virtue of this cabinet arrangement, his colleagues should be compelled to submit beforehand to him any proposals of political importance before bringing them to the attention of the emperor. Directly after this, Bismarck had a conversation with Windthorst the nature of which he refused to disclose to William on the grounds that he could not allow his intercourse with his deputies to be controlled. “Nearly every writer has a different theory of the motive of young William in forcing him [Bismarck] to retire. The Grand Duke of Baden says: ‘The breach occurred over the question of power. All other differences of opinion, on social legislation and other matters were secondary. The chief cause was the Cabinet order of 1852. Even the conversation with Windthorst would not have led to a breach. One might add the Emperor’s distrust of the prince’s foreign policy. The Emperor sus-

pected that Bismarck conducted his policy according to plans concealed from himself (the Emperor), and had an idea of abandoning Austria and the Triple Alliance and coming to an understanding with Russia, whereas the Emperor will not have this, and adheres to the Alliance.' General von Heuduck says: 'The Emperor informed the Generals in command why Bismarck had gone. The question of the Cabinet order and the intemperate way in which he opposed the Emperor made it impossible for him to work any longer with the prince. Russia wanted a military occupation of Bulgaria and the neutrality of Germany. Bismarck wished to abandon Austria. The Emperor was determined to adhere to Austria, even at the risk of war with Russia and France.' Caprivi said: 'Bismarck had concluded a treaty with Russia by which we guaranteed Russia a free hand in Bulgaria and Constantinople, and Russia bound itself to neutrality in case of war with France. I have not renewed this treaty [see above 1887: Secret treaty between Germany and Russia], because if it had become known it would have ruined the Triple Alliance.' Herr von Holstein says: 'Bismarck's plan of abandoning Austria would have brought on us such contempt that we would have been isolated and dependent on Russia.' The Emperor says: 'Bismarck wanted to submit again to the Reichstag the Socialist law, with a threat of dissolving it if the law were not passed, and then, if there were riots, to proceed vigorously. I opposed him. If my grandfather had been compelled, after a long and illustrious reign, to proceed against insurgents, no one would have taken it amiss. But I should have been accused of opening my reign with shooting my subjects. The bitterness was increased by the Cabinet order of 1852. The visit of Windthorst to the prince also gave rise to unpleasant talk, but was not decisive. It was a quarrelsome time, and the real question was whether the Bismarck dynasty or the Hohenzollern dynasty should rule. In foreign politics Bismarck went his own way, and concealed from me a good deal of what he did. I recently asked Herrfurth, who was present at every sitting of the Cabinet, whether during the whole time I did anything that might hurt Bismarck and give him cause to go against me. He replied that, on the contrary, all the ministers were surprised at the patience with which I tolerated the rudeness of Bismarck.'—M. Harden, *Monarchs and men*, pp. 128-129.—" 'The Emperor,' . . . [Bismarck] told more than one confidant, 'now wishes to reign alone—to be his own Chancellor and Minister-President.' It was impossible that Bismarck could accept after twenty-seven years of power a position that was a personal humiliation, a reversal of his policy, and a reduction to impotence. 'I cannot serve,' he said, 'on my knees' (*Ich kann nicht mit Proskynesis dienen*). . . . Repeatedly pressed, Bismarck at last submitted his resignation. On March 20 the official Gazette announced that the Emperor had been graciously pleased to accept with profound regret the Chancellor's request to be relieved of his offices, and in return for his 'imperishable services' conferred upon him the title of Duke of Lauenburg [which Bismarck refused] and Colonel-General, with the rank of Field-Marshal in the army. *Punch*, in one of the most famous of its famous cartoons which, curiously enough, delighted both Bismarck and William II., summed up the event with unerring felicity. 'The Pilot' who had steered the ship through so many storms and so many shoals, 'was dropped.' The Emperor henceforward intended to be Captain and Pilot

in one."—C. G. Robertson, *Bismarck*, pp. 473-474.

—See also WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: j.

ALSO IN: Bismarck-Schoenhausen, *Kaiser vs. Bismarck*.—M. Busch, *Our chancellor*.—E. Marcks, *Bismarck, eine Biographie*.—A. D. White, *Seven great statesmen*.

1889-1892.—William II and the social movement.—The Catholic international labor conference.—"Rerum Novarum" of Pope Leo XIII. —Enactment of the Old Age and Invalidity law.—Amendments for the industrial code.—Creation of a labor department.—"Seldom has a Prussian ruler thrown himself so completely upon the confidence of his people as William II appeared to do while still on the threshold of his reign. In his endeavours to improve social conditions he appealed for 'the intelligent and joyous co-operation of all classes of the population, and especially of the working classes, whose interests are concerned, and of the employers who are prepared to make the necessary sacrifices.' He tried to lift the social movement out of the atmosphere of party controversy: 'all are heartily welcome,' he said, 'whoever they may be.' In order to encourage his people in well-doing he established a new Order, called after his grandfather, in recognition of conspicuous social service. Under these manifold impulses a new spirit seemed to come over the nation in relation to the many-sided problem of the condition of the people, and the social reform movement now took root in a way it had never done during the first reign. German writers on this subject often speak of contemporary Germany as distinctively the Social Empire. The foundation of the social legislation by which this title must be justified, if justified at all, had been laid before William II came to the throne, but it is certainly the merit of that ruler that for a time he gave greater definiteness and a clearer purpose to the vague humanitarian sentiment which had already become active and carried social policy forward on intelligent and sympathetic lines. From the first he found a valuable ally in the Clerical party, which, joining hands with the patriarchal Conservatives, now began to take a decided stand on social questions, so reviving a dormant tradition established many years before by earnest reformers of their faith like Bishop Ketteler, Canon Moufang and Father Kolping. In convening the Labour Conference, the Emperor had invited the Pope to allow Prince Bishop Kopp, of Breslau, to take part, and the Roman Catholic Church had not been slow to reciprocate the compliment thus paid to it. Henceforth both the religious and the political leaders of Catholicism closely identified themselves with social reform, and all later measures for the amelioration of the people owed at least as much to Catholic as to Protestant support. In September, 1890, the Roman Catholics held an international labour conference of their own at Louvain, and in May of the following year Leo XIII published his memorable Encyclical on the labour question, *Rerum Novarum*, which for Roman Catholics everywhere became a rule of public conduct and policy. The missing link in the system of social insurance had been added in 1889 by the enactment of the Old Age and Invalidity Insurance Law providing for the pensioning of the veterans and wreckages of the industrial army. Now the Labour Conference began to bear fruit. Laws for the amendment of the Industrial Code in the spirit of the resolutions adopted by the Conference and for the creation of Industrial Courts for the settlement of monetary disputes arising between workpeople and their employers were passed in 1890. Before this time the



only imperial legislation relating to the hours of labour were provisions forbidding the employment of juveniles (i.e., youths under sixteen years) on Sundays and legal holidays and forbidding the employment on these days of workers generally against their will. In the absence of an express prohibition something had been done to encourage Sunday observance by police and administrative orders, but such measures were sporadic and partial, and in practice work on this day was still common in most parts of Germany. . . . In 1892 a labour department was formed in the Imperial Statistical Office as a means of bringing the whole province of labour under more complete survey, and this example was soon followed in Great Britain and other countries. A weak attempt was made simultaneously to make severer the penalties for any abuse of the right of coalition, but the Diet, in its new enthusiasm for social reform, was unwilling to dilute conciliation by coercion in the old ungracious way, and it rejected this reactionary proposal, leaving the amendment of the Industrial Code a straightforward and sympathetic attempt to give to labour greater protection. All these measures marked an important advance in social legislation, yet to a large extent Germany was only bringing up to date arrears of work which had long been allowed to accumulate, and assimilating her laws to those of countries with an older industrial and a more advanced political system."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, pp. 264-266.

1889-1900.—Progress in printing. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1889-1900.

1890.—State control of telegraph and telephone service. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1880-1890.

1890-1891.—Caprivi made chancellor.—Renewal of Reinsurance Treaty rejected.—Cession of Witu and acquisition of Heligoland.—Caprivi's attitude on colonial expansion.—Milder treatment of Polish provinces and the result.—Prince Hohenzollern and Alsace-Lorraine.—Self-confidence of William II.—The appointment of Count Georg Leo von Caprivi, distinguished soldier in the Franco-Prussian War, former chief of admiralty, as the chancellor of the empire and minister-president of Prussia was as much in the nature of a surprise as "dismissing the pilot," Bismarck. He was not connected with any political party, and soon had many enemies, notably Bismarck himself. "The treaty which Bismarck wanted to conclude with Russia in 1890 has never been published; any man who told its provisions would incur a suspicion of endangering the interests of the Empire. . . . [This treaty was published after the fall of the empire, 1919 (see above: 1887).] Until March 20, 1890, only four persons at the Foreign Office were acquainted with the outline of it; the Prince and Herbert, the Under-Secretary of State, Count Berchem, and the envoy von Schweinitz. Even Herr von Holstein was not admitted to the deliberations, as he was regarded as prejudiced in Russian affairs; but, as the chief worker and best official in the political department, he knew what was agreed upon and must have read the secret documents. The statements of Chlodwig, which are based on the remarks of William, Frederick, Caprivi, and Holstein, betray a complete misunderstanding of Bismarck's policy, its deepest motives and ultimate aims. . . . On the first day of his Chancellorship, Caprivi called for the draft of the secret treaty, which the Russians were prepared to sign, took it to the palace, and returned with the verdict: It is rejected. Schuvalov called him *un trop honnête homme*; in plain German he

could not be characterised so politely. . . . The treaty which Caprivi found so complicated was really simple enough. It said plainly to the Russians: We shall have to help the Austrians if you attack them, but not if they attack you, and for that we expect you to be neutral in case we are attacked by France. It might say to the Austrians: You have known for a long time that we are not willing to sacrifice German blood for your ambitions in the Balkans; attack the Russians, therefore, if you are strong enough single-handed, or if you expect help from any other quarter; if they attack you we shall be on the spot; for you also the *casus fœderis* is also set up if we are attacked, not if we attack; our accounts agree therefore. Both treaties were intended and calculated to protect each of the three Empires from the nearest, and therefore most dangerous coalition: Russia from the German-Austrian, Austria from the Russo-German, Germany from the Russo-Austrian and (especially) the Franco-Russian. And the author of these assurances might, in view of his experience and his knowledge of monarchs and statesmen, say to himself: Russia will not attack Austria, nor Austria Russia; our fears are phantoms, and the contingencies which seem worst for us exist only on paper (as has happened); and therefore we secure a notable profit with very little outlay. Many a nation would have raised an altar or a throne to the man who devised this and allayed the distrust of Alexander. In Germany he was dismissed and reviled. Why? Because some one whispered in the ears of the German Emperor: 'The real aim of this treaty is to secure power for life to the Chancellor, even in opposition to your exalted will. For no one but he can work with this awkward tool; he alone can, with that inalienable confidence of which he boasts so much, play the last card at St. Peterburg or Vienna, as need may be. If he is troublesome to you, or too old, you may, in virtue of your royal prerogative, dismiss him, but he will then find some means to betray the secret of the treaty and, between the anger of Austria and the blame of Russia, we shall find ourselves in such a position that the nation will unanimously and irresistibly call upon him to save us. That is his clever plan. Wilt thou help him to realise it, or wilt thou be Emperor, King, and Master?' . . . In 1890 he thought that such conduct was possible to the man whom, in 1888, he had been ready to follow as standard-bearer. To that pitch they had brought him. Not a single man stood up and said: 'Consider the life of this man and the work he has done for thy house.' Not a single one. Chlodwig, who had three times—the last time being December 15, 1880—written at Bismarck's dictation: 'If the frame of the Austrian monarchy is imperilled, we are bound to take action,' now wears his smart frock-coat, closes his lips, and industriously notes: 'He wanted to abandon Austria.' The aged General Pope alone gave vent to his fine soldierly feeling and exclaimed: 'The people who are about Your Majesty are sheer traitors.'"—M. Harden, *Monarchs and men*, pp. 142, 149-152.—"The position of the Minister who followed Prince Bismarck would have been difficult in the most favourable circumstances; the accidents of the first Chancellor's retirement made it also in a special degree unenviable. . . . General von Caprivi had not wished for a distinction which, though a proud, was a painful one, and when in accepting it he asserted that he did so from a feeling of 'imperious patriotic duty,' his words were not those of empty convention. He succeeded at once in disarming his critics, however, when at his first official appearance in the Prussian

Diet he confessed with creditable candour that he had hitherto been 'strange to political affairs,' yet promised that he would do his best. He had a high reputation as a capable administrator both in the army and the navy, for though a soldier he had once been head of the Admiralty, and all who knew him praised him as a man of perfect honour. Such qualities, added to soldierly simplicity and straightforwardness, more than counterbalanced for absence of brilliancy, and promised him success in the task of tiding over a critical transition. Nevertheless, one of his first measures brought down upon him much shortsighted and undeserved censure. This was the conclusion in July, 1890, of the African convention whereby Germany ceded to Great Britain her rights in Witu and agreed to recognize a British protectorate over the dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, while she received in return the island of Heligoland and certain advantageous frontier rectifications in East Africa (giving access to the lakes), West Africa, and South-west Africa [see also AFRICA: Modern European occu-



VON CAPRIVI

pation: 1884-1899]. The acquisition of the Elbe island realized a long-cherished German dream, but all political parties, and the colonial party in particular, contended that the price paid for it was excessive, since the renunciation of all claims in respect to Zanzibar and Witu made a great Central African empire impossible. For Great Britain the agreement had the advantage that there was henceforth no danger of British East Africa being hemmed in by German territory. On the other hand the cession of Heligoland was severely criticized, though the fact that it was made by a Conservative Ministry kept the military imperialists under restraint. To Germans in general the possession of Heligoland appealed at that time only on the ground of sentiment. The naval authorities, looking further, already recognized its importance for the completion of their plans and were prepared to buy it on any terms. Nothing was said in the agreement about the harbour of refuge for the benefit of British shipping which Bismarck had dangled before Lord Granville's eyes when at Caprivi's suggestion he first proposed the cession of

Heligoland six years before, and it was understood that the only shipping which the island, when duly fortified, would protect would be the imperial navy. By this transaction Caprivi at once forfeited the confidence of the colonial party. He had never been a colonial enthusiast, however, and he plainly said so, maintaining that Germany had as many colonies as were good for her and that it was now her interest to consolidate rather than expand her oversea dominion. 'The worst thing that could happen to us,' he said a little later (November 27, 1891), 'would be for some one to give us the whole of Africa, for we have quite enough as it is.' He saw in the colonies a potential source of friction with other countries, and he refused to multiply the existing risks. The early years of Caprivi's Chancellorship were for Germany a time of relaxation and liberation in many directions. Great as was the work which Bismarck had done for the Empire, and incalculable as was the nation's indebtedness to him, his disappearance from the chief seat of political influence unquestionably removed from official life an oppressive incubus, of which the full weight was only understood when the pressure was relaxed. The relief was felt particularly in the circles of the higher bureaucracy, but most of all in the Ministries. For the first time the colleagues of the Chancellor breathed freely, knowing that they had no longer to do with an arbitrary chief as of old, and the new consciousness of independence was naturally strongest just where the iron hand of restraint and discipline had rested most heavily. . . . Each department of State began to develop a self-consciousness of its own, and in the hierarchy of the Empire Secretaries of State, though constitutionally subordinate to the Chancellor, deported themselves like members of the Prussian Ministry, in which all were equal. Hitherto one man only had wielded authority in the State; now minor men took courage, and looking no more with awe upon the tree of power began to nibble freely at its long-forbidden fruit. Most free of all was the Sovereign himself, and more than any other he was in a position to appreciate the change. After sharing its authority with a despotic Minister for nearly thirty years the Prussian Crown was again independent; for the first time a German Emperor could claim to be his own master. Now the personality of the ruler began to make itself felt, to a degree unknown before, both in legislation and in the direction of public policy. In a speech made in April, 1890, immediately after Bismarck's resignation, the Emperor, in appealing for the nation's loyal co-operation, spoke suggestively of the 'new course' which Germany was to follow under his guidance. . . . Milder measures were tried at this time in the treatment of the alien races in the East and West. So long as Bismarck remained in office the policy of hardness continued in the Polish provinces. The appointment of Caprivi was the signal for one of those fitful attempts to reconcile the Poles which for over a century have alternated with prolonged periods of rigorous government. The policy of land purchase and settlement was for a time suspended, but as there was no idea of its definite abandonment that half-measure proved unfortunate from the financial standpoint, for prices were exceptionally low in the early 'nineties, and the opportunities of buying on favourable terms which existed then never returned. For a time the Emperor-King went out of his way to win the goodwill of his Polish subjects. Poles were admitted to positions of favour and eminence. . . . This apparent favouring of the Poles created a violent outburst of indignation amongst the Germans of the

Eastern Marks, and as Friedrichsruh then served as a Cave of Adullam to which the malcontents of all parties resorted a deputation promptly made pilgrimage to the ex-Chancellor and laid their grievances before him. As a result of this conference an organization, known as the Eastern Marches Association, was at once formed for the defence of Germanism in the Polish provinces. It was not long before this association changed its defensive for an aggressive character, and became a potent agency for fomenting ill-feeling between the two nationalities. . . . The Government's experience in Alsace-Lorraine was even more discouraging. There Prince Hohenlohe continued to be the Stadholder, and he had become wedded to the idea that only resolute government could avail. Hohenlohe appears to have allowed the Ministers in Berlin a wider latitude than was needful, in view of the large powers secured to him by the constitution of the provinces, and Berlin, being convinced that the resistance of the Alsations to German rule in the Prussian spirit was mere perversity, was but little disposed to pay further heed to the susceptibilities of the conquered population. Hohenlohe in March, 1891, relates a conversation with the Secretary of State Marschall [von Bieberstein] who had 'spoken very contemptuously of Alsace-Lorraine, and said it was a matter of total indifference in Berlin whether the inhabitants were satisfied or not, and that in the event of war Alsace-Lorraine would become the principal battlefield.' Even Caprivi seemed to regard the prospect of conciliation as hopeless. Convinced that the Alsations could not be Germanized, he said that the only alternative was to 'deepen the ditch' that divided them from France [see also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1879-1894]. . . . The Emperor's first great disappointment came when he discovered that in spite of his efforts for their good the working classes refused to turn their backs upon Socialism. Probably no modern sovereign was so confident of his own capacity in public affairs, or so ready to face responsibility with so little justification, as Emperor William II in the early years of his reign. No one could doubt his gifts or the earnestness of his desire to 'exercise his office for the welfare of the fatherland,' according to the promise of his first proclamation to the nation. Like many other men impatient for action, however, he failed to recognize that the art of statecraft has to be learned like other arts, and more laboriously than most, and exalting intuition in the place of experience, he committed many impatient and impetuous acts at which grave men shuddered. . . . Fulsome adulation was showered upon him by professional courtiers and self-seeking worldings without rebuke, and upon a man of his temperament its effect was fatal. All these incidents of his character and position conspired to encourage in him a disposition to judge events from a false perspective, and caused him to lose the right measure both for realities and abstractions.\* It was obvious that the full significance of these influences and tendencies would be seen only in later years, but already there was much anxious foreboding, and his impatience of either opposition or criticism strengthened the doubts even of those whose loyalty to his person was beyond question."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 261-263, 267-268, 271-272.

1890-1894.—Agrarian League.—"In the early nineties, when many thousands of Germans were deserting the farms for the cities in order to take part in the new industrial progress and prosperity, it was freely prophesied in Germany that the Empire would soon become wholly industrial; it was

said that agriculture must soon limit itself to cattle raising and to the cultivation of a few select varieties of grain. But German agrarians resolved to make agriculture more productive and profitable than ever. In the first place, therefore, they formed (1893) the Agrarian League and, through their Conservative and other representatives in the Reichstag, forced the imposition of high import duties on agricultural products."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 146-147.—"The year from which the first of the Caprivi commercial treaties dated (1892) witnessed the beginnings of a powerful organization of the agricultural interests of the country and of a new political movement destined to acquire a sinister influence and fame. The organization was the Farmers' League (*Bund der Landwirte*), and the movement for which it stood was agrarianism. Essentially representative of the large proprietors, and inspired and led by the corn-growers of Eastern Prussia, the Farmers' League captured the agricultural classes in all parts of the country, though in the North to a greater extent than in the South. It was Caprivi's declaration, in a speech in which he commented the commercial treaty policy to the Diet, that 'Germany is no longer an agricultural but an industrial country,' that for the first time opened the eyes of the agrarians to the economic revolution which had passed over the country. No sooner had the treaties been ratified than they began a vehement agitation against them in the rural constituencies. 'We must tear up the treaties with Austria and Italy,' said the time-honoured champion of law and order in the Press, the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, and later, when the treaty with Russia came into existence amid the Sovereign's felicitations, it asserted that 'the German farmer will now be inclined to regard the Emperor as his political enemy.' From that time the agrarians closed their ranks for the strenuous defence of their threatened privileges, and the course of later domestic politics has been greatly influenced by their action. From the first the Agrarian League, as the Farmer's League is usually called out of Germany, was a signal success as a propagandist organization. The German Peasants' League uniting with it, a membership of 200,000 was soon gained, and having at command abundant funds, it was able to engage a large staff of lecturers, who perambulated the country, organizing the agricultural classes, enlightening them upon their grievances, and helping them to apply to the Government effective and continuous pressure, so supporting the hands of the party which existed to protect their special interests in Parliament. From the beginning the organization was Conservative both in aims and in composition, and one immediate result was to create in the Conservative parliamentary party an unaccustomed spirit of independence. Hitherto the party had worked hand in hand with the Government in virtue of an alliance based on reciprocity of interest. So long as the reciprocity lasted, so long also did the alliance. When, however, both the Emperor and the Government showed a disposition to shrink from the agrarians' extreme demands, the traditional devotion of the Conservative party to throne, altar, and fatherland stood revealed in its true light as a very human yet very unamiable piece of egoism. Thereupon were developed a discrimination of judgment and a freedom of action which had never been seen before in the same quarter. For now the agrarians, too, chose to follow a new course, and by persevering in it they gained in the end all the preference lost in 1892, with much that they had never possessed or dared to hope for in the

past."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 277-278.

1890-1908.—Industrial courts established.—Their growth.—Their organization. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1890-1908.

1890-1914.—Alteration of foreign policy after the passing of Bismarck.—Change towards Russia and England.—Drang nach Osten.—Turkey as a vassal of Germany.—Construction of the Bagdad railway.—“With the passing of Bismarck began the second stage in the development of the new German nation. Between 1864 and 1888 the Empire had been created and made the greatest of the European states. From about 1890 on to 1914 it went forward to greater things; its leaders made it a mighty world power and strove at last to make it beyond all doubt the greatest power in the world. The outlook of German leaders became wilder, their ambition vaster and grander; they played for great stakes higher and more boldly, until in the end, as it seemed to one of them, they sought ‘World Dominion or Downfall.’ In what followed, at first, the young emperor took the lead. Some believed that he was rash and might easily plunge into a war, for he spoke with stern pride of the power of his army. But for more than a quarter of a century in his reign there was no great conflict in Europe, and often he boasted that he had striven to keep the peace. Doubtless he did. But always this desire for peace seems to have been on condition that Germany hold her superior position in Europe, and that her policy should not be thwarted. When there rose up against the alliance headed by Germany another great group of powers, and it was no longer so easy for Germany’s word to be law as it had been in Bismarck’s time, then German statesmen and the emperor strove so hard to maintain the German hegemony that one great crisis followed another in Europe for the space of ten years. At the end of that time the nations were plunged into the greatest of all their wars. When in 1890 William II took control of the government and its foreign policy there followed at once a great altering of political relations. Bismarck had always kept France nearly isolated and alone. In three years after this time she was closely joined in an understanding with Russia. He had tried by all means to retain Russia’s friendship, and he had succeeded nearly all of the time. But Russia was allowed to draw away now, and almost immediately she sought the friendship and became the ally of France. Bismarck had desired not to antagonize Great Britain, and during his time no dangerous misunderstanding had arisen; but in less than ten years Germany entered upon a policy which profoundly alarmed Great Britain, and shortly caused her to take her place together with Russia and France [see also WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: f]. The secret agreement between Russia and Germany in 1887 had been made for three years. Before it expired, in 1890, the tsar tried to have it renewed, but Germany would not consent. . . . It has been conjectured that one of the important causes of disagreement between Bismarck and William II was concerning relations with Russia; that Bismarck would have had other plans which ran counter to continuing this friendship. It has been thought also that this was the time when the government of Germany began to cherish ambitions in the Balkans and Turkey. If this were the case, then most probably it would soon be as impossible for Germany to remain in close friendship with Russia as for Austria-Hungary since 1876. ‘My foreign policy remains and will re-

main the same as it was in the time of my grandfather,’ was the message William sent to the tsar. But the Russian ambassador believed that Germany in the future would have greater regard for the alliance with Austria-Hungary. And so it was, for that alliance now became stronger with every year, until at last it was the closest in Europe. [See also AUSTRIA: 1893-1900.] It also seemed to the Russian ambassador, who wrote of these changes, that Germany now counted on getting the friendship of Great Britain to replace that of Russia, and even that Great Britain might be added to the Triple Alliance. It might, indeed, have seemed to him that there was some chance of bringing this about. Friendly relations with England were a tradition. The mother of the German emperor was a daughter of Queen Victoria, whose husband, Albert, had been a German. . . . Lord Salisbury, prime minister at this time, believed strongly in best possible relations with the German Empire. Good relations with Britain were, accordingly, easy to maintain and improve for the present, though she would most probably not have entered into any alliance, and it is not certainly known that Germany desired her to do so. The new German policy attracted less attention than might have seemed possible. The close relations between Germany and Russia had been largely a secret. The attention of men was still fastened mostly on the older issues, the feeling between France and Germany, and the rivalry between England and France, and England and Russia. But a very significant event occurred the year before Bismarck retired. In 1889 William II went to Constantinople and visited Abdul Hamid, the sultan of Turkey. As men afterward saw this event, it seemed the beginning of an epoch in the politics of Europe. In the Middle Ages the German people had fought against the Slavs to the east, subduing or pressing them back, and extending eastward their German dominion. In this manner had the old Prussia been acquired, in this way Austria’s empire built up. In the course of this movement to the east and the south some Germans had pushed beyond the mass of their fellows and made isolated settlements, which in the nineteenth century were still flourishing in Hungary, and in Poland, in the western and southern parts of Russia, and even far off in the Balkans. For a long while some Germans had dreamed of a day when these detached groups, and the aliens surrounding, might be incorporated in a greater German Empire. Heinrich Heine prophesied that Germans would some day possess lands as distant as the Ukraine. In the earlier half of the nineteenth century other Germans advised colonization in the valley of the Danube and beyond, saying that here was the best of fields for German expansion. After the Franco-German War, colonization of Asia Minor and Mesopotamia was suggested in the dominions of the sultan of Turkey. About 1880 a certain one urged his fellows not to emigrate to America, as they were doing: ‘We must create a central Europe by conquering for German colonization large spaces to the east of our frontiers.’ Now in the new generation which followed that of Bismarck such thoughts constantly gained greater importance, until gradually the idea of *Drang nach Osten*, or advance by Germans to the east, came to be the underlying motive in German foreign affairs, and at last principal among the causes leading to the great European War. William II sought the friendship of the sultan of Turkey. England had previously been friend and protector of the Turks, but events like the British occupation of Egypt had caused her influence to wane. In 1898, about the time when

England and France were embroiled in the Fashoda dispute concerning the upper Sudan, about the time when Germany began her great naval expansion, William went to Constantinople again, and, going on to Jerusalem and Damascus, proclaimed himself the protector of Turkey and announced that he was the friend of Mohammedans all over the world. Year after year German representatives established the influence of their country more strongly. Most people had no conception how far they were succeeding, but in 1914 it was suddenly found that Turkey was more closely bound to Germany and Austria than was Italy, a member of the Triple Alliance; that she was actually a vassal of Germany, at whose behest she could be pushed into a war where her very existence must be staked. In controlling Turkey and developing her resources the most important thing done by Germans was the construction of the Bagdad Railway."—E. R. Turner, *Europe since 1870*, pp. 190-194.—See also BAGDAD RAILWAY; BOSPORUS: 1878-1914; SLAVS: 1830-1914; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: f; Diplomatic background: 71, xvi.

1890-1914.—Growth of the army.—Army strength, 1914.—Annual expenditure.—Growth of the navy.—Naval strength, 1914.—Arguments for increased armaments.—"Four years before the expiration of the Septennate of 1887, that is, in 1890, the army was increased by nearly 20,000 men, to 486,983, including under-officers. Caprivi, the imperial chancellor at that time, was not satisfied, however, so in 1893 he proposed general compulsory service, excluding only the absolutely unfit; by this scheme the numbers in the army were to increase automatically with the growth of the population and not be set periodically by the Reichstag. To ensure the passage of this proposal, Caprivi offered to reduce the period of service from three to two years. Eventually, however, the number was fixed at 479,229, excluding under-officers, for five and a half years—the quinquennate principle thus replaced the septennate—and the two-year provision was granted. As before and after, the Reichstag set the numbers in the army. The German army has therefore never been based strictly on universal service; many able-bodied Germans have been excused because the allotted number could be made up of men of greater military fitness. In 1899, in view of the growth of population, the army was further enlarged to include 495,500. By a bill passed in 1905 the increase was so arranged that by 1910 the army should number 505,839. In 1911 it was agreed that by 1916 the army should number 515,321, but in the very next year it was decided that this number should be enrolled by October 1, 1913, was to include 661,478 privates; these together with the officers and under-officers were to form a standing army in time of peace of over 800,000 men. On August 1, 1914 Germany could muster about 7,000,000 men, of whom 3,000,000 were untrained and 4,000,000 were the most thoroughly drilled soldiers in the world. In 1912 the army cost the nation \$212,000,000. By the bill passed in 1913 the annual expenditure for the army was increased by \$45,000,000, and a 'contribution for national defense,' a tax to be levied only once on incomes and property, was to be collected, netting \$225,000,000 [see also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 27; 29]. Compared with the army and its origins, which may be traced back to the seventeenth century, the German navy is a growth of yesterday. The first important step toward its creation was taken in 1880 when the army office surrendered its control of naval affairs and an imperial admiralty was established.

Even then nine years elapsed before the first navy bill was passed (1898) by the Reichstag. This bill provided for a fleet of 19 battleships and 42 cruisers. Only two years later, however, this program seemed inadequate. It was therefore enlarged to 38 battleships, 14 first-class cruisers, 38 smaller cruisers, and 96 torpedo boats and destroyers. In 1908 a submarine flotilla was added, and the torpedo fleet was increased to 144. When war was declared in 1914, Germany was said to have 37 battleships, 48 cruisers, and a torpedo flotilla of 189 destroyers and torpedo boats and 27 submarines; this display of naval strength was second only to that of England. The Empire expended \$118,000,000 on the navy in 1912. The increase of German armaments has been facilitated by Prussian-German tradition, which favors a large armed force, and by reiteration in German books and public speeches that many events which German history cherishes would never have come to pass without military might. It is true that for a decade and more after 1871 many parties in the Reichstag favored a reduction in the numbers of the army; but in 1913 only the representatives of the Social-Democrats, the Poles, and Alsace-Lorraine voted against the hugest army bill ever known. A majority of the German people, as they are represented in the Reichstag, supports therefore the increase of armaments. Germany has justified its armaments chiefly by the argument that they are a defensive necessity, for it has felt its territorial integrity threatened constantly, on the west by France with its desire of retribution for 1870 and 1871, on the east by Russia. Germany has also believed its commercial progress to be menaced by the jealousy of France and especially of England. At least in part for these reasons the Empire has prepared, in case of war, to protect its borders and industries at home and its colonies and commerce in far-away lands and on the seas. It is not unreasonable, however, that Germany should have multiplied its armaments with offensive as well as defensive intent. It has been very sensitive to the restrictions of its limited area in Europe and to the imperfections of its colonies for purposes of settlement. A nation growing with extraordinary speed and vigor, it has desired naturally and most earnestly a larger area. It has been jealous of those nations, France and England particularly, which secured enormous colonial possessions in favorable climates before Germany had been unified and could claim a share of the new worlds opened by the explorations of the nineteenth century. Germany's desire for as much territory as other European powers possess has never been concealed. Its ambition to even up the difference has been declared in the last decade more and more frankly. Territorial as well as commercial equality is what Germany has meant when it has reiterated its desire and ambition to enjoy 'a place in the sun.' A great armament seemed to be the logical instrument whereby to ensure participation in any territorial profit-sharing which might arise from new international situations."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 151-154.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 20; 21; 27; 29.

1890-1914.—Expanding industrialism.—Progress of industrial and commercial life.—Value of the productions.—Foreign commerce.—Opposition to import duties.—"The history of Germany from 1800 to the outbreak of war in 1914 is the story of the evolution of a European nation into a world power. In 1800 Germany's interests were often not at all involved in questions arising outside of Europe; in the spring of 1914 a conference of 'the powers' without participation

of Germany was hardly imaginable. In other words, under William II and his imperial chancellors—Caprivi (1890-1894), Hohenlohe (1894-1900), Bülow (1900-1909), and Bethmann-Hollweg . . . [1909-1917]—the German Empire continued to fortify its national strength and unity; it expanded its industrial life, seeking and finding markets all over the world for the products of its industries; it acquired new colonial possessions. In virtue of this national growth and strength, Germany exercised profound influence in the decision of questions arising far beyond the borders of Europe. This evolution of Germany, or its progression from state and national strength to international power, marks the lines which may be followed fittingly in an account of the chief events in German history since 1890. . . . Germany's industrial and commercial progress from 1890 to 1914 forms the proudest chapter in recent German history. German sense of order and system produced enormous organizations of capital and employees; the Krupp steel-casting company had in 1913 a capital of \$60,000,000 and employed nearly fifty thousand men. [See also CAPITALISM:

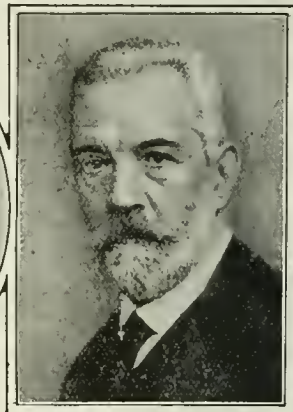
of other industries. Not long ago (1912) the gross value of Germany's industrial productions within a year was reckoned at \$2,900,000,000; in this respect Germany yielded precedence only to England (\$4,100,000,000) and to the United States (\$7,000,000,000). An interesting corollary of this activity is found in the records of banks. At the end of the seventies German savings banks listed deposit accounts amounting to \$500,000,000, in 1911 \$4,000,000,000. The annual increase of wealth of the nation was estimated in 1913 at between \$1,000,000,000 and \$1,500,000,000, the wealth itself at well over \$300,000,000,000. In order to transport at least a part of the vast cargoes which went to and fro, Germany trebled its commercial fleet between 1893 and 1913; in 1900 it constructed only about two-thirds as much tonnage in seagoing vessels as the United States, but in 1911 it constructed nearly twice as much. Germany's commercial fleet was then second only to England's. The same ranking obtained in the most significant, the most comprehensive item of all, in foreign commerce. Between 1890 and 1914 the annual value of Germany's foreign commerce, con-



Clodwig, Prince of Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst



Prince Von Bülow



Von Bethmann Hollweg

#### IMPERIAL CHANCELLORS

19th-20th centuries.] German adjustability to foreign conditions led to the production of articles carefully suited to the needs and tastes of buyers all over the world; in 1912 the German salesman found in Argentina, for example, a market for products valued at \$170,000,000, in Australia for \$90,000,000 worth. The Germans were also extraordinarily alert in utilizing new industrial opportunities; they exported in 1912 electrical machinery and appliances valued at nearly \$60,000,000, products that were unknown a generation ago. The progress of German industrial and commercial life was halted at two or three stages—notably in the winter of 1901-1902 and in that of 1907-1908—when chiefly overproduction brought on a stagnation of business and the failure of many firms; but with these exceptions the rise of industry and commerce was constant and amazing. To specify the progress of only a few of the most important industries: Germany produced in 1910 seven times as much coal as in 1870, nine times as much pig iron, twenty-four times as much steel; potash-salt mining, which did not become a conspicuous industry until the eighties, advanced within twenty years (1886-1906) from a yearly output of less than one million to over fifty million tons. Statistics such as these might be given

sisting chiefly of imports of raw materials and unfinished products and exports of finished manufactures, rose from \$1,900,000,000 to \$5,000,000,000, or 250 per cent; Germany exported more goods to England in 1912 (about \$400,000,000 worth). Between 1890 and 1914 Germany displaced both France and the United States in the comparative value of its foreign commerce and thus rose from fourth to second place among the nations. England still had a considerable advantage—its foreign commerce was valued in 1911 at \$6,250,000,000—but England's rate of increase, about 50 per cent for the decade from 1901 to 1911, was lower than that of Germany. [See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1800-1900.] The surpassing growth and success of German industrialism have raised up one of the leading problems of modern Germany, the conflict between agriculture and industrialism. Attracted by the larger opportunities and returns of industrial employment, the balance of population has shifted from the country to the city. In 1830 eighty per cent of the German people lived in towns of five thousand inhabitants or less; in 1907 only 32.7 per cent. But in spite of the great preponderance of urban over rural population, agriculture has been much more encouraged and favored by leg-

isolation than industrialism. This appears especially in the high import duties which have been imposed on foreign foodstuffs and which have enabled agriculturists to sell their products at a high figure. These duties have been secured and maintained by appeals to German patriotism; agriculture must be furthered, it has been said, so that Germany, in case of war, may be able to feed itself. Industrialists have opposed these duties bitterly, because foreign nations have retaliated with high import duties on German manufacturers, and because the majority of the people has been forced to pay higher prices for food in order to benefit a diminishing minority. Many economists inside and outside of Germany believe that the victory in this struggle lies with the industrialists, if for no other reason, on account of the limited area of Germany. Only 9.3 per cent of the soil is now unproductive—as compared with 14.3 per cent of French soil and 18.2 per cent of that in Great Britain and Ireland—and a large increase of the population must force the Empire into dependence on other countries for a sufficiency of food. In that case the high import duties on foodstuffs will naturally fall, and Germany will become industrial according to prophecy. German industrialism, besides transforming a rural people into residents of cities, has wrought other impressive changes in German life and character. It has increased very largely and generally the wealth and contentment of the Empire.”—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 146-150.—See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1800-1900.

1891.—Triple Alliance renewed. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1892.—Reactionary Education Bill.—Its chief provisions.—Agitation against clericalism.—Resignation of Baron Zedlitz.—Caprivi retires from the presidency of the Prussian ministry.—“Early in [1892] . . . the fears of the Liberals seemed to be justified by the introduction in the Prussian Diet of an Education Bill so reactionary in character that it threw the whole country into consternation. The blow was as bold as it was unexpected. Two years before, the Minister of Education, Dr. von Gossler, had produced a measure which, while retaining the old confessional principle, proposed to place the control over secular and religious instruction more definitely in the hands of the State. The bill was rejected, and its author in consequence resigned, his place being taken by Baron Zedlitz, a typical representative of the Conservative-feudalist party. To Baron Zedlitz and his friends the opportunity for a bold counter-stroke seemed too precious to be lost. The Conservatives and Clericals between them dominated the Diet, and a bargain between the two parties, which had so much in common in educational ideals, would make success certain. The Centre was, in fact, the predominant party in the Ministerial coalition. Through persecution and discredit it had at last come to triumph and repute, it had worn down the attack upon the Church and compelled Bismarck to own defeat; now it had secured a Government to its liking, and it exercised a decisive voice in parliamentary affairs. The bargain having been concluded, Baron Zedlitz introduced early in 1892 an amended bill which would have deliberately handed over the elementary schools to the Churches as the legitimate spoils of party warfare, to be divided amongst them at leisure by friendly arrangement. Not only was the confessional basis of the schools recognized as before, but obstacles were placed in the way of any future deviation from it; dogmatic

religious instruction was to be forced upon all children, regardless of parental scruples; clerical influence, both in the work of inspection and of general administration, was increased; the clergy were to be allowed to certify whether teachers were competent or not to give religious instruction, and virtually to withhold the right to teach from any one objectionable to them. In short, the Church, Catholic and Protestant, was to be given complete control over the only part of public education in which it took serious interest. The bill proved too much for the habitual complacency of the Prussian nation, which for once threw off its political apathy. The old leader of National Liberalism, Bennigsen, now emerged from retirement, raised again the flag of progress, and called upon all that had life and breath in the Liberalism of the monarchy to fight the measure to the death. The universities, so often silent in the past when violence had been done to intellectual interests of which they were the natural custodians, rained protests upon the Government. Lay Protestants everywhere, in public meeting and written petition, roundly condemned the bill as a complete capitulation to Clericalism and another and a more humiliating journey to Canossa. Even Bismarck accused his old party friends of having sold themselves into the service of their country's enemy. It was in vain that the Minister-President, Caprivi, who still knew less about politics than about the army, pleaded that the nation was engaged in a struggle between Christianity and atheism. The retort of the opponents of the bill, that if it was right now to place so much power in the hands of the Roman Church and clergy all the agitation against Clericalism in the last decade was either an imposture or a piece of intolerant persecution, was unanswerable. It was obvious that Caprivi had allowed the bill to slip through his fingers unguardedly, and that he now defended it only out of loyalty to an unpopular colleague and regard for the unity of the Cabinet. Other Ministers were not so scrupulous, and as soon as it became evident that the bill was detested they hastened to disown it. When the storm had raged until March the Emperor intervened and called upon his Ministers to surrender. Reproached by his Sovereign for having shown so little regard for national sentiment, Baron Zedlitz could only resign, whereupon the bill was withdrawn. Caprivi likewise felt seriously compromised, and chivalrously offered to accompany the unlucky Minister of Education into retirement, but the crisis demanded no such sacrifice. He retired from the presidency of the Prussian Ministry, however, and Count Botha zu Eulenburg took his place.”—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 272-274.—Count Caprivi retained the chancellorship, however, until 1894.

1892-1894.—Failure of revised tariff law as a weapon of offense.—Caprivi's commercial treaties of 1892-1894.—“When William II came to the throne [1888] the agricultural duties had just been increased, for the second time since 1870, by the customs tariff law of 1887. The revised tariff had been introduced by Bismarck in part by way of retaliation upon Austria and Russia for having increased their duties upon manufactured goods. As a weapon of offence it failed, for these countries now raised their tariffs still further. At that time some of the leading Continental States had adopted conventional tariffs on the principle of reciprocal concessions in every individual case. Germany had hitherto had a general tariff and had concluded commercial treaties only on the most-favoured-nation basis. These

treaties all expired in the year 1892. Faced now by hostile tendencies in other countries, Caprivi had to choose between the alternatives of a retaliatory increase of the German duties according to need, leading almost inevitably to a series of tariff wars, or the acceptance and possible extension of the conventional tariff system, which meant some mitigation of the existing duties. He chose the latter course, and in doing so carried the Emperor with him. . . . On the industrial side also the tariff had proved no less irksome and unsatisfactory. Foreign trade had greatly increased, yet the retaliatory duties adopted by other countries had done much injury. Russia and America had virtually barred their doors to the outside world. The growth of the Colonial Federation movement in England had also given rise in German minds to the apprehension that almost the only remaining free markets might soon be closed. The uncertainty of international trade, the perpetual unrest, and indefinite fears as to the future conspired to make the Government, conscious of encouragement from the commercial classes, willing to bargain with any country which was prepared to meet concession with concession. It was the merit of Caprivi that he was the earliest of leading German statesmen to recognize that Germany had ceased to be a purely agricultural State, and that her future prosperity and welfare were bound up with the development of her industrial resources. He was no political economist, but it was a true economic instinct that led him to the conclusion, 'With our increasing population we must export either goods or men.' Germany was, in fact, exporting men at that time to the extent of 100,000 a year. Yet Caprivi was not hostile to agriculture, but regarded its maintenance in an efficient and prosperous condition as a paramount national interest, and hence he favoured the continuance of moderate protection. One of his forecasts received such a remarkable confirmation many years later that it deserves to be recalled. 'It is my unshakable conviction,' he told the Diet in December, 1891, 'that in a future war the feeding of the army and the country may play an absolutely decisive part. I am convinced that we need to cultivate corn to such an extent that it will, in case of need, be sufficient to feed the increasing population, even if it be with restrictions, in the event of war.' Nevertheless, he held that the existing duties were a needless hindrance to industrial expansion, an oppressive burden on the working classes, and a menace to social harmony. The discovery that industry and labour had a right to consideration equally with agriculture was the origin of the commercial treaties of 1892-4. Germany had had commercial treaties for a generation, but the treaties of the Caprivi régime marked a novel departure from past custom. The old treaties were based on fixed, invariable, autonomous tariffs, and most of them included the most-favoured-nation clause; the new ones, while containing this clause, were based on 'conventional' tariffs, concluded as the result of special bargaining with the States concerned. He began negotiations with Austria, Italy, Switzerland, and Belgium. In regard to the first of these countries political consideration as well as economic influenced him, for Austria was an ally whose friendship it was desirable to strengthen. By the agreement concluded Germany was to reduce her agricultural duties and Austria her duties on industrial products. All these four treaties contained the most-favoured-nation clause, and by special tariffs fixed the duties on both sides until the end of 1903; that is, for a period of twelve years. . . .

The Treaty with Russia, which ended a tariff war between the two countries, was carried against the vehement opposition of the Conservatives and Anti-Semites, joined by most of the Imperialists, a minority of the Clericals, and a handful of National Liberals. It was an irony of Caprivi's position that though a Conservative by conviction and instincts, he was, in the episode of the commercial treaties, thrown almost entirely upon the support of his political antagonists."—W. H. Dawson, *German empire, 1867-1914*, v. 2, pp. 274-277.—Caprivi's commercial treaties were violently opposed by the agricultural interests of Germany.—See above 1890-1894; also **TARIEF**: 1870-1900.

1893.—**Tax reform.** See **TAXATION**: Prussia, France and Great Britain.

1894 (October).—**Dismissal of Caprivi.**—In 1894, the emperor suddenly dismissed Caprivi, who was succeeded by Prince Chlodwig von Hohenlobe-Schillingsfürst.

1894-1899.—**Emperor's claim to "Kingship by Divine Right."**—A great sensation was produced in Germany by a speech addressed on September 6, 1894, by the German Emperor to the chief dignitaries and nobles of East Prussia in the Royal Palace at Königsberg. The following are the principal passages of this speech: "Agriculture has been in a seriously depressed state during the last four years, and it appears to me as though, under this influence, doubts have arisen with regard to the fulfilment of my promises. Nay, it has even been brought home to me, to my profound regret, that my best intentions have been misunderstood and in part disputed by members of the nobility with whom I am in close personal relation. Even the word 'opposition' has reached my ears. Gentlemen, an Opposition of Prussian noblemen, directed against their king, is a monstrosity. Such an Opposition would be justifiable only when the king was known to be at its head. The history of our House teaches us that lesson. How often have my predecessors had to oppose misguided members of a single class on behalf of the whole community! The successor of him who became Sovereign Duke in Prussia in his own right will follow the same path as his great ancestor. The first King of Prussia once said, 'Ex me mea nata corona,' and his great son 'set up his authority as a rocher de bronze.' I, in my turn, like my imperial grandfather, hold my kingship as by the grace of God. . . . We witnessed an inspiring ceremony the day before yesterday. Before us stands the statue of the Emperor William, the imperial sword uplifted in his right hand, the symbol of law and order. It exhorts us all to other duties, to the serious combating of designs directed against the very basis of our political and social fabric. To you, gentlemen, I address my summons to the fight for religion, morality, and order against the parties of revolution. Even as the ivy winds round the gnarled oak, and, while adorning it with its leaves, protects it when storms are raging through its topmost branches, so does the nobility of Prussia close round my house. May it, and with it the whole nobility of the German nation, become a brilliant example to those sections of the people who still hesitate. Let us enter into this struggle together. Forward with God, and dishonor to him who deserts his king."

Speaking at Hamburg, October 10, 1899, on the necessity of strengthening the naval forces of the empire, in order to afford protection to trade over the sea, the German emperor said: "The feeling for these things is only slowly gaining ground in the German fatherland, which, unfortunately,



has spent its strength only too much in fruitless factional strife. Germans are only slowly beginning to understand the questions which are important to the whole world. The face of the world has changed greatly during the last few years. What formerly required centuries is now accomplished in a few months. The task of Kaiser and government has consequently grown beyond measure, and a solution will only be possible when the German people renounce party divisions. Standing in serried ranks behind the Kaiser, proud of their great fatherland, and conscious of their real worth, the Germans must watch the development of foreign states. They must make sacrifices for their position as a world power, and, abandoning party spirit, they must stand united behind their prince and emperor." Commenting on this utterance, a recent writer has said: "This ideal of a docile nation led by a triumphant emperor whose intelligence embraces everything throws considerable light on the relations of imperialism to party government and parliamentary institutions. . . . There are many other expressions of the emperor which indicate an almost medieval conception of his office, a revival of the theory of divine right. The emperor believes that his grandfather, had he lived in the Middle Ages, would have been canonized, and that his tomb would have become a cynosure of pilgrimages from all parts of the world. . . . In a speech delivered at Coblenz on August 31, 1897, he speaks of the 'kingship by the grace of God, with its grave duties, its tremendous responsibility to the Creator alone, from which no man, no minister, no parliament can release the monarch.'"

1895 (June).—Opening of the Kaiser Wilhelm ship canal.—The opening of the new ship canal (named the Kaiser Wilhelm canal) between the Baltic and the North sea was made the occasion of a great celebration, on the 21st of June, in which the navies of Great Britain, Russia, France, Austria and Italy took part, steaming in procession with the German squadron through the canal. It was also made the occasion for an exhibition of the newly-formed alliance between Russia and France, the Russian and French fleets entering the harbor of Kiel together. (See FRANCE: 1895.) The canal had been eight years in building, the first spadeful of earth in the excavation having been turned by Emperor William I at Holtenau, near Kiel, on June 3, 1887. The canal is thus described: It is "98.6 kilometers (61.27 miles) in length. It begins at Holtenau, on the Bay of Kiel, and terminates near Brunsbüttel, at the mouth of the River Elbe, thus running clear through the province of Schleswig-Holstein from northeast to southwest. Both openings are provided with huge locks. Near Rendsburg, there is a third lock connecting the canal with the old Eider Canal. The medium water level of the canal will be about equal to the medium water level of Kiel harbor. At the lowest tide the profile of the canal has, in a depth of 6.17 meters (20 feet 6 inches) below the surface of the water, a navigable width of 36 meters (118.11 feet), so as to allow the largest Baltic steamers to pass each other. For the navy, 22 meters (72.18 feet) of canal bottom are provided, at least 58 meters (190.29 feet) of water surface, and 8½ meters (27 feet 9 inches) depth of water. The greatest depth for merchant vessels was calculated at 6.5 meters (21 feet 3 inches). The estimated cost was \$37,128,000. Two-thirds of the cost is defrayed by Germany; the remaining one-third by Russia. The time saved by a steamship sailing from Kiel to Hamburg via the canal, instead of

through the Skaw (the strait between Jutland and Sweden), is estimated at 2½ days. The time of passage through the canal, including stoppages and delays, will be about thirteen hours. In time of peace, the canal is to be open to men-of-war, as well as merchant vessels of every nation, but in time of war, its use will be restricted to vessels of the Germany navy. Many vessels have been wrecked and many lives lost on the Danish and Swedish coasts, in waters which need not be navigated after the canal is opened to traffic. Its strategic importance to Germany will also be great, as it will place that country's two naval ports, Kiel on the Baltic, and Wilhelmshafen on the North Sea, within easy access of each other."—*United States consular report, no. 175, p. 603.*  
1895-1896.—Strained relations with Italy. See ITALY: 1895-1896.

1895-1898.—Agrarian protectionists and their demands.—"The depression of agriculture in Germany was the subject which most occupied German politicians throughout the year [1895]. The policy favoured by the Agrarian League was that advocated by Count Kanitz, of which the following were the chief points: (1) That the State should buy and sell the foreign grain, flour, and meal destined for consumption in Germany; (2) that the average selling price in Germany from 1850 to 1800 should be fixed as the selling price of grain, and that the price of flour and meal should be determined by the proportion they bear to the unground grain and the said selling price, provided that the buying price is covered thereby; while in the case of higher buying prices, the selling prices must be proportionately raised; (3) that the profit obtained be spent, so that a part at least equal to the amount of the present grain duty flows into the Imperial Treasury; (4) that steps should be taken for the accumulation of stocks to be used in extraordinary time of need, as, for instance, in the event of war; and (5) that a reserve should be formed when prices are higher at home and abroad, to secure the payment of the above-mentioned annual amount to the Treasury. The Emperor, however, repeatedly expressed his disapproval of this policy, and Prince Bismarck is said to have remarked that if he were a deputy he would vote for it, but as Chancellor he would reject it. . . . The Agrarians now started an agitation all over the country in favour of Count Kanitz's proposal, and even threatened to refuse the supplies required for the navy if the Government should not accept it. In March, the Emperor referred the question to the committee of the Federal State Council, which passed a resolution declaring the proposals of Count Kanitz for establishing a State monopoly in cereals to be incompatible with the correct interpretation of the present position of the State in regard to industry and international trade, and irreconcilable with Germany's commercial treaties."—*Annual Register, 1895, pp. 256-257.*

"The agrarian protectionists control the Conservative party in Parliament completely; they are strongly represented in the Center, or Catholic, party, and are not without a considerable following among the National Liberals. The Anti-semitic party, the Poles, and other small parties are all infected with the agrarian protectionist ideas. The only decided opponents, as well as the only decided free-traders, are to be found among the three Liberal sections and the social democrats. The agrarian protectionists not only wish to annul the commercial treaties, because these hinder them from raising the protective duties on agricultural imports (these duties are by no means low

—for instance, 35 marks per ton on rye or wheat), but the extreme members of the party advocate the abolition of the gold standard and the adoption of a so-called bimetallic—in reality a silver—standard. The most rabid among them oppose the cutting of canals, because foreign produce would thus enter Germany on cheaper terms. In short, the agrarian protectionists oppose the natural evolution of all economic progress. . . .

"The old Prussian feudal aristocracy (Junkerthum), forming the pith and marrow of the agrarian movement, has never been well off; but for the last twenty years they have suffered from the competition with the whole world, which is felt so keenly in all old countries, in the reduction of the rent of land. They have sunk deeper and deeper into debt, while the standard of material comfort has risen throughout all classes in Germany. The 'Junker' has long since given up the hope of making both ends meet by his own industry, and while endeavoring to raise the rent of land by various kinds of protective measures, he is really at the same time struggling for bread-and-butter and upholding a tradition of political supremacy.

"No government can really satisfy these claims, and hence each in turn is compelled, sooner or later, to oppose the agrarian movement. However, considering the strong influence the Prussian 'Junker' exerts in the army, in the ranks of government officials, and at court, practical statesmen deem it advisable to avoid any open rupture with the pack of famished wolves."—T. Barth, *Political Germany (American Review of Reviews, Apr., 1898)*.

1896.—Sugar bounty and sugar tax legislation. See SUGAR BOUNTIES.

1896 (January).—Emperor William's congratulations to the president of the South African republic on the defeat of the Jameson raid. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (January).

1896-1899.—Results of the emperor's telegram to Kruger.—Attitude towards Boer War.—"No act could have been more unfortunate from an international standpoint, unless Germany really meant to go to war in defense of the Boer states. In England the publication of the telegram was greeted with amazed resentment; in Germany it was the match which exploded the whole mine of bitter dislike, the pent-up sense of restraint before England's power, the hatred of the older commercial rival who claimed to play the rôle of dictator in every corner of the world overseas. And when in 1899 the inevitable war between England and the South African republics finally broke out, it found the Germans as one man on the side of the Boers. . . . The motives of a nation's actions are as mixed as those of an individual, and tribute must be paid to the noble feeling which inspired many Germans in their enthusiasm for the under dog. Nevertheless it cannot be doubted that well-informed German editors were under no illusion regarding the barbarity and selfishness of the Boers: the very immaturity of public expression in Germany betrayed the fact that the greater part of the nation cared nothing for Boer success but everything for the humiliation of England. 'They are fighting our battles down there on the kopjes of South Africa,' was heard again and again, and there is no doubt that many Germans, nursed on the legend of England's decadence, already saw the Union Jack fading before the black-white-red banner as the ruling standard of the colonial world. . . . The Germans saw their great rival, who had preceded them into the field of 'imperial' politics by four generations, enfeebled

almost to the point of exhaustion, and yet so weak was the German fleet that the empire was unable to take advantage of the favorable conjuncture in any way, or even, if need arose, to protect its own merchant marine from arbitrary search or seizure by British cruisers scouting for contraband. No object lesson could have been driven home upon any people with more telling force. If Germany were ever to play a more important rôle than that of an important and agitated spectator in overseas affairs, the mailed fist must also be able to make itself felt on blue water."—R. H. Fife, *German empire between two wars, pp. 57, 59-60.*

1897.—Industrial combinations.—Trusts. See CARTELS; TRUSTS: Germany.

1897 (July).—Defeat in Prussia of a bill to restrict the right of political association and meeting.—In July, the government in Prussia suffered a significant defeat in the Prussian Landtag on an attempt to give the police new powers for interference with political meetings and associations. The bill was especially aimed at the Social Democrats, enacting in its first clause that "agents of the police authorities have power to dissolve meetings in which anarchist or Social Democratic movements are manifest, having for their object the overthrow of the existing order of state or of society, and finding an expression in a manner which endangers public security, and in particular the security of the state." It passed the upper house overwhelmingly, but was rejected in the lower by 209 votes to 205.

1897 (September-December).—Demand for indemnity enforced against Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1897.

1897 (November-December).—Seizure and acquisition of Kiao-chau bay.—Naval expedition to China.—Speeches of the emperor and Prince Henry.—The murder of two German missionaries in Shantung province, China, gave the German government a pretext, in November, 1897, for the seizure of the port of Kiao-chau, on demands for indemnity which were not satisfied until the Chinese government had consented to lease that port, with adjacent territory, to Germany, for ninety-nine years, with extensive rights and privileges in the whole rich province of Shantung. (See CHINA: 1897 [November].) To support this opening of an "imperial policy" in the East, a German naval expedition was despatched to China, in December, under the command of the emperor's brother, Prince Henry, and its departure was made the occasion for speeches by the emperor and Prince Henry, at a royal banquet, at Kiel, which caused much remark, in Europe and America. Said the emperor, addressing his brother: "As a sign of imperial and of naval power, the squadron, strengthened by your division, will now have to act in close intercourse and good friendship with all the comrades of the foreign fleets. . . . May it be clear to every European out there, to the German merchant, and above all, to the foreigner whose soil we may be on, and with whom we shall have to deal, that the German Michael has planted his shield, adorned with the eagle of the empire, firmly on that soil, in order, once for all, to afford protection to those who apply to him for it. . . . Should, however, any one attempt to affront us, or to infringe our good rights, then strike out with mailed fist."

The prince replying said: "We have reached a great epoch, an important epoch for the nation—an important epoch for your Majesty and the Navy. . . . I can assure your Majesty of this—I am not allured by hopes of winning glory or laurels, I am only animated by one desire—to pro-

claim and preach abroad to all who will hear, as well as to those who will not, the gospel of your Majesty's anointed person; . . . to impress the person of the Emperor on their minds, and to let the cry resound far out into the world—our most Serene, Mighty, Beloved Emperor, King and Master, for ever and ever. Hurrah, hurrah, hurrah!"

1898.—William II proclaimed protector of Turkey. See above: 1890-1914: Alteration of foreign policy.

1898 (March-December).—In the Chinese "Battle of Concessions." See CHINA: 1898 (February-December).

1898 (April).—Withdrawal from the blockade of Crete and "Concert of Europe." See TURKEY: 1897-1899.

1898 (May-August).—Hostile attitude toward Americans in Manila. See U. S. A.: 1898 (May-August).

1898 (June).—Sugar conference at Brussels. See SUGAR BOUNTIES.

1898 (July).—Death of Bismarck.—Prince Otto von Bismarck, whose importance in German history is comparable only with that of Charlemagne, Luther, and Frederick the Great, died on July 31st, at the age of 83. Immediately upon his death in 1898 his confidential secretary, Dr. Moritz Busch, made public the full text of the letter of resignation which Bismarck addressed to the emperor, William II, when he withdrew—practically dismissed—from the public service, in 1890.

ALSO IN: J. H. M. Busch, *Bismarck: Some secret pages of his history*.—Bismarck, *Reflections and reminiscences*, v. 1-3.

1898-1910.—Tariff war with Canada.—Final agreement. See TARIFF: 1898-1910.

1898-1914.—New naval policy.—Establishment of the *Flottenverein* (Navy League).—Preamble of the law of 1900.—Naval program.—Refusal to limit armaments.—Benevolent neutrality proposal.—Anglo-German agreement.—"In the later years of his power Bismarck had seen increasing need of a strong navy to guard the Empire's growing commercial and colonial interests, but the great change came after he had been dismissed, with the rise of the new school of statesmen, who looked beyond Europe and would make Germany the greatest of the great. The German army was incomparably the strongest in the world, but they were conscious of a surplus of strength in their country, not needed for the army, and they began to cherish the plan of making Germany a great naval power and a seeker for colonies also. It was probably foreseen that this would inevitably bring very different relations with England. Hitherto Britain had been on her guard against France and Russia, both of them strong naval powers and active rivals in Africa and Asia. For some years it had been her purpose to maintain the 'two-power standard,' to keep her fleet stronger than the two next greatest navies combined. In 1889 Great Britain had undertaken a comprehensive scheme of naval increase, and by 1898, when a crisis developed with France, the French had yielded completely, so overwhelming was British strength on the sea. Britain had no large army, and so could not defend herself against the great standing armies of European states if ever they reached her shores. Her sole reliance was on command of the sea, and it was justly felt that if this were lost, then all would be gone and the British Empire destroyed beyond hope. The British people accordingly were resolved at all costs to maintain their superiority on the ocean, and would probably come to regard with much

dread any nation who challenged this position. Suddenly and in dramatic way the German Government did do this. Germans were building up a great commerce. . . . In this new era of great German ambitions the leaders felt that the German Empire was incomplete so long as it had no strong navy. The lead was taken by Admiral von Tirpitz and the emperor himself. There was opposition among the older school of thinkers in Germany, but after much effort a bill was passed by the *Reichstag* in 1898 providing for a great naval increase. The law provided for expending, during a course of years, 1,000,000,000 marks, and was considered to be the most ambitious naval programme undertaken by any state in the memory of man. That same year the *Flottenverein* (Navy League) was established, to interest the people in naval expansion. It had 600,000 members in two years, and shortly after, a million. A vast amount of educational work and propaganda was done by this organization, and it was most successful in arousing the people. Much greater development soon followed. In 1900 a vaster sum was appropriated, and plans made for a navy twice as powerful as that provided two years before. Such startling naval increase affected other powers at once and profoundly. . . . Moreover, the very preamble of the law of 1900 seemed directed against England. 'Germany must have a battle fleet so strong that even for an adversary with the greatest sea power a war against it would involve such dangers as to imperil his own position in the world.' 'The ocean is indispensable to the greatness of Germany,' said the emperor about the same time. 'As my grandfather reorganized the army, so I shall reorganize my navy.' And in 1901: 'Our future lies upon the water.' . . . Each year the leaders and statesmen of Britain saw greater peril across the North Sea. Everywhere they settled all their outstanding differences, not only with France and with Russia, but with Italy and the United States, and they had already made alliance with Japan. British naval forces, once scattered all over the world, were silently drawn in and concentrated in the waters about Britain and Ireland. But the uneasiness was felt rather for the future than the immediate present, since it was believed that England had such great superiority on the sea that it would be a long while before Germany's utmost efforts could really challenge the British navy. A great change presently occurred. It was in 1904-5, during the Russo-Japanese War, that modern warships were really tested for the first time; and many lessons were learned then. [See WARSHIPS: 1893-1914.] . . . In 1907 the British launched the *Dreadnaught*, a battleship which was the largest, the swiftest, and most heavily armored warship that had ever been put afloat. . . . Germany, with her new naval programme, was building the greatest number of new ships, and immediately she altered the plans and began making new vessels of the *Dreadnaught* type. She was building swiftly and with such secrecy that it was difficult to know how swift her progress was. It was evident to the thinking that all unexpectedly she had a chance to overcome England's naval preponderance and threaten her command of the seas. Even though it was evident that relations between the two countries were steadily growing worse, most of the English people could not quickly understand the large changes occurring, or the altered position of affairs. . . . Many people in both countries declared that there was no reason for conflict, and sincerely deplored the growing suspicion and ill will, but uneasiness and anger increased. In both countries

great newspapers and periodicals did not cease to point out how the foe threatened vital interests, and that preparations must be hastened so as to be ready for inevitable conflict. . . . Year by year the Germans were told more and more that England had joined their enemies in an *Einkreisung*, an effort to encircle and crush them. Year by year it came to be better understood that Englishmen must not make again the mistake of 1870, not again allow France to be crushed, for then afterward most probably they would have to fight alone against Germany with very small chance of success. It is evident that before 1914 the policy of Bismarck had been discarded, and that some of the things he had achieved had been completely lost. Some of Germany's old friends had drawn off from her, and joined France to make a great combination, the *Triplic Entente*. The alienation of Russia had been followed by increasing distrust on the part of Great Britain, and it was not improbable, in case of war, that Britain would be found with Germany's foes. Before the last evil days there was some effort to clear away the hostility and suspicion. . . . In 1907, at the Second Hague Conference, England had proposed limitation of armaments, but Germany had absolutely refused to consider it. Indeed, Germans boasted that they could keep up the race, in which England must soon fall behind. English leaders announced that their naval construction would be regulated by what Germany did. They were most anxious to come to some understanding by which both powers would cease the construction of so many warships, but a decisive supremacy over the German Empire they were firmly resolved to maintain. Germans were not willing to grant a 'naval holiday,' but in 1913, at a time when great changes in the Balkans caused them to desire increase of the army above all things, there appeared to be some slackening in their building of warships, and peaceful men in both countries hoped that better things would result. One particular effort was made to bring about better relations. In 1912 Lord Haldane, lord chancellor, went to Berlin on the emperor's invitation, to try to bring about an understanding. [See also ENGLAND: 1912-1913.] . . . The negotiations failed, . . . but it seemed to smooth the way for a settlement of the differences between the two. Indeed, in the earlier part of 1914 an Anglo-German agreement was drawn up, by which all the principal differences between England and Germany, with respect to the Bagdad Railway and Asiatic Turkey, were satisfactorily arranged, and it almost seemed that Sir Edward Grey had at last done with Germany what [Lord Lansdowne] . . . had accomplished with France in 1904. This treaty, it is said, was to have been signed in the autumn, but before that time the Great War had begun and Germany and the British Empire were locked in a mortal struggle."—E. R. Turner, *Europe since 1870*, pp. 199-201, 202-203, 204-207.—See also ENGLAND: 1912-1913.

1899 (February).—Chinese anti-missionary demonstrations in Shantung. See CHINA: 1899.

1899 (February).—Purchase of Caroline, Pelew and Marianne islands from Spain. See CAROLINE ISLANDS: 1899-1920.

1899 (May-July).—Representation in the Peace conference at The Hague. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899; Constitution.

1899 (May-August).—Advice to the South African republic. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (May-August).

1899 (June).—State of German colonies.—The following report on German colonies for the year ending June 30, 1899, was made to the British

Foreign Office by one of the secretaries of the Embassy at Berlin: "The number of Europeans resident in the German African Protectorates, viz., Togoland, Cameroons, South-West Africa, and East Africa, at the time of the issue of the latest colonial reports in the course of 1899 is given as 4,522 men, women, and children, of whom 3,228 were Germans. The expense to the home government of the African colonies, together with Kiaochao in the Far East, the Caroline and Samoa Islands in the South Sea, and German New Guinea and its dependencies, is estimated at close upon £1,500,000 for 1900, the Imperial Treasury being asked to grant in subsidies a sum nearly double that required last year. Kiaochao is included for the first time in the Colonial Estimates, and Samoa is a new item. The Imperial subsidy has been increased for each separate Protectorate, with the single exception of the Caroline Islands, which are to be granted £5,000 less than last year. East Africa receives about £33,000 more; the Cameroons, £10,000; South-West Africa, £14,000; Togoland, £800; New Guinea, £10,000; and the new items are: £480,000 for Kiaochao (formerly included in the Naval Estimates), and £2,500 for Samoa. A Supplementary Vote of £43,265 for the Protectorate troops in the Cameroons is also now before the Budget Committee. . . . Great efforts have been made to encourage German trade with the African colonies, and it is shown that considerable success has been attained in South-West Africa, where the total value of goods imported from Germany amounted to £244,187, as against £181,961 in the previous year, with an appreciable falling-off in the value of imports from other countries. In East Africa the greater part of the import trade still comes from India and Zanzibar—about £450,000 worth of goods out of the gross total of £592,630, having been imported thence. The export trade is also largely carried on through Zanzibar."—*Great Britain, parliamentary publications (Papers by command: Miscellaneous series, no. 528, 1900, pp. 3-5)*.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: West Africa.

1899 (October).—Agreement with British South Africa Company regarding construction of Cape-to-Cairo railway. See CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY.

1899 (November).—Railway concession in Asia Minor, to the Persian gulf. See BAGDAD RAILWAY: Plan; RAILROADS: 1899-1916.

1899 (November).—Re-arrangement of affairs in the Samoan islands.—Partition of the islands with the United States.—Withdrawal of England, with compensations in the Tonga and Solomon islands and in Africa. See SAMOA: 1889-1900; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

19th century.—Economic development. See ECONOMICS: 18th-19th centuries.

19th century.—Advancement in army organization.—Industrial development.—Commercial enterprise.—Forest conservation. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 28; COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1800-1000; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Germany: 1815-1914; INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: Germany.

20th century.—Feminist movement.—Municipal reforms. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1867-1905; MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: German municipal ownership; State control over cities.

20th century.—Education under the empire.—Under the republic.—Workers' education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century; General education: Germany: Under the empire; Under the republic; Workers' education: Germany.

1900.—Liquor consumption. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: England, etc.

1900.—Trust system. See CARTELS.

1900 (January-March).—Outbreak of the "Boxers" in northern China.—Adhesion to the arrangement of an "open door" commercial policy in China. See BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR"; CHINA: 1899-1900 (September-February); 1900.

1900 (May).—Lex Heinze.—The Socialists won a notable triumph in May, when they forced the Reichstag to adopt their views in the shaping of a measure known as the Lex Heinze. This bill, as introduced by the government, gave the police increased powers in dealing with immorality. The Clericals and the Conservatives sought to extend its scope by amendments which were denounced by the Radicals and Socialists as placing restrictions upon the "liberty of art and literature." After a prolonged struggle, in which the socialists resorted to the use of obstruction, the most obnoxious amendments were withdrawn.

1900 (June).—Opening of the Elbe and Trave canal.—"The new Elbe and Trave canal, which has been building five years and has been completed at a cost of 24,500,000 marks (\$5,831,000)—of which Prussia contributed 7,500,000 marks (\$1,785,000) and the old Hansa town of Lübeck, which is now reviving, 17,000,000 marks (\$4,046,000)—was formally opened by the German Emperor on the 16th [of June]. The length of the new canal—which is the second to join the North Sea and the Baltic, following the Kaiser Wilhelm Ship Canal, or Kiel Canal, which was finished five years ago at a cost of 156,000,000 marks (\$37,128,000)—is about 41 miles. The available breadth of the new canal is 72 feet; breadth of the lock gates, 46 feet; length of the locks, 87 yards; depth of the locks, 8 feet 2 inches. The canal is crossed by twenty-nine bridges, erected at a cost of \$1,000,000. The span of the bridges is in all cases not less than 30 yards and their height above water level about 15 feet. There are seven locks, five being between Lübeck and the Möllner See—the highest point of the canal—and two between Möllner See and Lauenburg-on-the-Elbe."—*United States consular reports, Sept. 1900, p. 8.*

A memorandum by the British chargé d'affaires in Berlin on the Elbe-Trave canal says that the opening of the Kaiser Wilhelm canal injuriously affected the trade of Lübeck. This was foreseen, and in 1894 a plan was sanctioned for the widening of the existing canal, which only allowed of the passage of vessels of about thirty tons. The direction of the old canal was followed only to some extent, as it had immense curves, while the new bed was fairly straight from Lübeck to Lauenburg, on the Elbe above Hamburg. The memorandum states that the undertaking is of great importance to the states along the Elbe, as well as to Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Russia. It will to some extent divert traffic from Hamburg, and possibly reduce somewhat the revenue of the Kaiser Wilhelm canal.

1900 (September).—Government loan placed in America.—Great excitement and indignation was caused in September by the action of the imperial government in placing a loan of 80,000,000 marks (about \$20,000,000) in the American money market. On the meeting of the Reichstag, the finance minister, von Miquel, replying to attacks upon this measure, explained that in September the state of the German market was such that if they had raised the 80,000,000 marks at home the bank discount rate would have risen above the rate of 5 per cent. before the end of the year. It

was urgently desirable to attract gold from abroad, and there was no country where money was so easy at the time as in the United States. This was due to the extraordinarily favorable balance of American trade and the remarkable increase in exports out of all proportion to the development of imports. Another reason was the American currency law, which enabled the national banks to issue as much as 100 per cent. of their capital in loans, whereas they formerly issued only 90 per cent.

1900 (Oct. 9).—Lèse-majesté in criticism of the emperor's speech to soldiers departing for China, enjoining no quarter and commending the Huns as a military example.—On October 9th, a newspaper correspondent wrote from Berlin: "The Berlin newspapers of yesterday and to-day chronicle no fewer than five trials for 'lèse-majesté.' The most important case was that of Herr



MAXIMILIAN HARDEN

Maximilian Harden, the editor of the weekly magazine *Zukunft*. Herr Harden, who enjoyed the confidence of the late Prince Bismarck, wields a very satirical pen, and has been designated 'The Junius of modern Germany.' In 1898 Herr Harden was convicted of lèse-majesté and was sentenced to six months' incarceration in a fortress. In the present instance he was accused of having committed lèse-majesté in an article, 'The Fight with the Dragon,' published in the *Zukunft* of August 11. The article dealt with the speech delivered by the Emperor at Bremerhaven on July 27, 'the telegraphic transmission of which, as was asserted at the time, had been forbidden by Count von Bülow.' The article noted as a fact that the Emperor had commanded the troops who were leaving for China to give no quarter and to make no prisoners, but, imitating the example of Attila and the Huns, to excite a terror in East Asia which would last for a thousand years. The Emperor had added, 'May the blessing of God attend your flags and may this war have the blessed result that Christianity shall make its way into

China.' Herr Harden in his comments on this speech had critically examined the deeds of the historic Attila and had contrasted him with the Attila of popular story in order to demonstrate that he was not a proper model to set up for the imitation of German soldiers. The article in the *Zukunft* had also maintained that it was not the mission of the German Empire to spread Christianity in China, and, finally, had described a war of revenge as a mistake." No publicity was allowed to be given to the proceedings of the trial. "Herr Harden was found guilty not only of having been wanting in the respect due to the Emperor but of having actually attacked his Majesty in a way that constituted *lèse-majesté*. The Court sentenced him to six months' incarceration in a fortress and at the same time directed that the incriminated number of the *Zukunft* should be destroyed.

1900 (October 18).—Change in the imperial chancellorship.—On October 18, the emperor acceded to the request of the imperial chancellor, Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst, to be relieved of his offices, and appointed Count von Bülow, minister of state and secretary of state to the foreign office, to be imperial chancellor and minister for foreign affairs. Count von Bülow was the third of the successors of Prince Bismarck in the high office of the imperial chancellor. Prince Hohenlohe had nearly reached the age of 82 when he asked leave to retire from public life.

1900-1909.—Von Bülow as chancellor.—Domination of the Centre.—The bloc.—Revision of the bourse law.—Forcible acquisition of Polish estates.—Defection of the Conservatives.—Resignation of von Bülow.—"Bülow, the next chancellor, continued the policy of his predecessor [Hohenlohe]; he further conciliated the Centre by a measure of 1904 repealing a clause of the anti-Jesuit law which forbade the settlement of individual Jesuits in Germany. The Centre responded by securing a reform of imperial finances, the adoption of new commercial treaties, and a further enlargement of the navy. But Bülow wearied of the Centre's domination and the concessions to the Catholics which it forced from him. In 1906, when the Centre blocked the passage of a bill involving increased colonial subsidies, the Reichstag was immediately dissolved with the hope that the power of the Centre might be destroyed. But the Centre emerged from the elections of January 1907 as strong as ever. . . . The chief result of the elections and the agitations which preceded them lay in the new allegiance which the Free-thinking parties now owed to the measures of the Government. Bülow could oppose the Centre and the Social-Democrats and secure the passage of measures by a combination of parties from the Right and Left, the so-called *bloc*."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 159-160.—"Although many members of the Bloc thought its enemies justified in predicting that it would speedily break down, the combination did hold together. . . . It passed at least two good laws. It revised the Bourse Law in a manner fairly satisfactory to the financial community, so that swindling speculators will henceforth find it less easy to get the sanction of the courts for repudiating debts incurred in stock operations. Another law regulates for the first time on a national basis the right of assembly and association, which had hitherto been in the hands of the individual states. It is interesting to note that this is another important step in the centralizing tendency in Germany."—W. C. Dreher, *Year in Germany (Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1909)*.—"It was in 1886 that the

Iron Chancellor started the fight against the Poles by the expulsion of more than 50,000 Polish labourers, natives of Austria and Russia. This measure not only hit the poor people who were driven away, it also and principally was directed against the Polish owners of large landed estates in the Eastern provinces, who thereafter experienced great difficulty in obtaining the necessary number of farm-hands. This artificial scarcity of labour, together with the great decrease in price of agricultural products which had just taken place, entirely ruined many owners of large estates, and there were therefore a great number who wanted to sell. Bismarck then appointed a Committee of Colonisation to buy Polish estates and parcel them out to German peasant farmers. The necessary funds were provided for by a sum of 100,000,000 marks (equal to £5,000,000) which was placed at the disposal of the committee.

"At the first moment the Poles were paralyzed. What were they to do to ward off such an attack aimed at the poorest among them? But they kept up a good heart and did the only reasonable thing: some wealthy Polish noblemen furnished a sum of 3,000,000 marks (equal to £150,000) whereby to fight the mighty Prussian Government, with its Committee of Colonization and well-nigh inexhaustible financial resources. With this capital of 3,000,000 marks a Polish land bank was started for the purpose of buying estates and reselling them in small holdings to Polish colonists. . . .

"It may be guessed from what is already stated that the Poles have not only been able to maintain their former hold on the land, but actually as peaceable conquerors are marching triumphantly westwards. This is also the case, but we need not restrict ourselves to a guess, the '*Statistisches Jahrbuch für den Preussischen Staat*' for 1903 containing ample corroboration of it. According to this official handbook there were parcelled out in the years 1806 to 1901, in the Provinces of Posen and West Prussia, 7,828 estates by German activity, containing 617,200 hectares, and 9,079 estates by Polish activity, containing 213,700 hectares. Although the Germans have parcelled out a very considerably larger area, the Poles have bought and parcelled out a far greater number of properties. The advantage thus obtained is put into an even stronger light when we learn that during the same period by this parcelling out there have been created only 15,041 German farms, with an area of 155,200 hectares, as against 22,289 Polish farms, with an area of 95,800 hectares, for these figures show that during these six years more than 6,000 Polish homes have been established over and above the number of German homes planted on old Polish soil. Moreover the advantage thus gained by the Poles has been increased during the last two years."—E. Givskov, *Germany and her subjected races (Contemporary Review, June, 1905)*.—See also POLAND: 1872-1910.—"The measure . . . for the forcible acquisition of Polish estates was duly laid before the Diet and passed Feb. 27, 1908]. The discussion of the bill brought out intense antagonisms, and the line of cleavage between the parties was not along Bloc lines. The Radicals joined with the 'Centrum' in opposing the dispossession of the Poles. As finally passed, the bill gives the Government the right to acquire, under the law of eminent domain, a maximum of 174,000 acres in the provinces of Posen and West Prussia, and to borrow \$65,000,000 for this purpose and for further prosecuting settlement work."—W. C. Dreher, *Year in Germany (Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1909)*.

In his advocacy of this measure Prince Bülow

proclaimed the reasons for it without reserve. "Can we," he asked, "do without the two Polish provinces, one of which begins within 75 miles of Berlin. That is the crucial point of the situation; there is no doubt about it. Our eastern provinces constitute the point of least resistance in the public body. We dare not wait until the grave disease, with its probable irreparable consequences, sets in." An English view of the measure is presented in the following:

"Prince Bülow is only developing the policy of Bismarck, who perceived, as Frederick the Great did before him, that the possession of Posen was vital to the Prussian State, and who held that the surest way to secure that province was to plant German settlers on Polish land. The strategical importance of Posen has been a cardinal article in the political and military creed of all Prussian statesmen and soldiers for generations. Posen is of far more importance to Prussia than is Ireland to Great Britain, and the true motives which have induced Prussian statesmen to make the agrarian proposals embodied in Prince Bülow's bill are to be found not in their comparatively trifling difficulties with liberals, radicals, and revolutionists at home, but in the foreign policy of the court. . . .

"That portion of Poland which was given to Prussia by the Congress of Vienna has been administered by that Power in accordance with the spirit of Frederick the Great. The object of Frederick was to develop the intellectual and material resources of his Polish possessions, making them an integral part of the Prussian monarchy, and gradually eliminating all recollections on the part of the Poles of their having once been an independent nation. This policy to be successful should be carried out by officials with intellects as clear, if not as powerful, as that possessed by Frederick himself. The Prussian officials, however, who have administered Posen since 1815, have not always risen to the height of their mission. Edward Henry v. Flottwell, who was charged with the government of the province from 1830 to 1840, alone understood the conditions of success. He knew that in politics it is as mischievous as it is futile to endeavour to reconcile the irreconcilable. The efforts made in that direction after 1815 strengthened the revolutionary spirit in Posen. On the retirement of Flottwell, Frederick William IV. tried again to propitiate Polish national feeling, with the result that the irreconcilable forces grew in strength, and in March, 1848, the Poles were the driving-power of the Revolutionary movement in Berlin. . . .

"As far as international life is concerned the true significance of the Polish question is in the relations it has created between the three great Northern powers. Those between Prussia and Russia have in consequence become extremely intimate. At the present moment that intimacy is as great, if not greater, than at any previous time. Besides the German ambassador at St. Petersburg [Petrograd] and the Russian Ambassador at Berlin, there is a German military officer at St. Petersburg, and a Russian military officer at Berlin, who are especially charged to convey intimate communications between the Czar and the Kaiser. In spite of the alliance between Russia and France, which was concluded by the former Power mainly for financial reasons, and which has never much disturbed the equanimity of Berlin, it is quite certain that in no conceivable circumstances will there be a real breach between Prussia and Russia. The Government of the Kaiser must and will make every possible conces-

sion to Russia rather than provoke a serious breach. This is the true inwardness of the policy as regards Poland. As long as Posen continues Polish Germany will be largely dependent on Russia."—R. Blennerhasset, *Significance of the Polish question (Fortnightly Review, Mar., 1908)*.

Dr. Dillon, who reviews European politics regularly for the *Contemporary Review*, says with positiveness that the Polish expropriation bill was passed "against the better judgment of press, bar, gentry, political parties and people." He cites it as an illustration of the absolute domination under which the Prussian legislature is held, and maintains that national feeling and opinion have, practically, no influence over Prussian policy and no weight in the conduct of Prussian affairs. Concerning motives behind the Polish expropriation, this well-informed writer reports it to be a prevalent belief in Austrian and other political circles that the bill was driven through as a military measure, in anticipation of some future hostile alliance between Russia and Great Britain. It seems to be the belief that the Kaiser, if not his ministers, is haunted with the expectation of a war to be fought with those powers in combination, and is determined that, if a British fleet in the Baltic is ever coöperating with a Russian army, there shall be a population of patriotic Germans instead of disaffected Prussian Poles between them and Berlin. "Through various and in numerous compromises the *bloc* remained intact until 1909, but in that year the Conservatives voted against an inheritance tax, and with the aid of the Centre they passed a financial reform bill which was very different from the one which Bülow had proposed. The *bloc*, was blasted by this defection of the Conservatives; the Centre again became powerful; and Bülow, rather than henceforth seek the support of the Centre for his majorities, resigned his chancellorship (July 1909)." —G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740, p. 160*.

1900-1912.—Imperial legislation.—Adoption of the new civil code.—Inadequate revenues and matricular contributions.—Tax on unearned increment.—National debt, 1912.—"The general tendency and effect of the most important legislation since 1890 has been toward further consolidation of the Empire. The completion and adoption of a new Civil Code, which went into effect January 1, 1900, added more strength to German national unity than any other measure adopted since 1871. This new code put an end to the bewildering diversity of laws in the different states and established a body of law which regulates nearly all legal matters; for example, indebtedness, movable property, and family and inheritance rights. Financial legislation has presented a much more difficult problem. Until the turn of the century the revenues of Bismarck's protective tariff more than covered the expenses of the Imperial Government. But in the meantime commercial treaties with other countries, entailing reductions in German import duties, had diminished imperial revenues, and the expansion of the army and the creation of the navy had caused huge outlays, for which provision had not been made. The Government was again financially dependent upon the matricular contributions from the states of the Empire just as it had been in the seventies. It was therefore agreed (1904 and 1906) that the states should pay fixed matricula, which, it was thought, would make up the deficits. But the matricula and other revenues were still insufficient, and meanwhile the national debt was increasing enormously; between 1900 and 1907 it rose from

\$600,000,000 to \$1,000,000,000. The financial legislation of 1900 was far more effective than that which preceded it. By the law of 1900 the matricula were doubled; a higher tax was laid on tobacco, liquor, coffee, and tea; and new taxes were put, chiefly, on checks, bills of exchange, dividends and interest, matches and means of illumination. The annual imperial revenues thus increased by \$125,000,000. The addition in 1911 of a tax on unearned increment enlarged the revenues still further. But the army bills passed in recent years have alone swallowed up a very large part of the increase. The national debt in 1912 was \$1,200,000,000, involving the payment of interest to the amount of \$45,000,000. The railways of the Empire were brought into closer cooperation in 1909, but the union of all the railways in an imperial system is still incomplete."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 155-156.—See also CODES: 1876-1911.

1900-1915.—Naval expenditures. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1900-1915.

1901 (January).—Promised increase of protective duties.—Prussian canal scheme enlarged.—In the Reichstag—the Parliament of the empire—on January 26, the agrarians brought in a resolution demanding that the Prussian government should use its influence to secure a "considerable increase" in the protective duties on agricultural produce at the approaching revision of German commercial policy, and should take steps to get the new Tariff bill laid before the Reichstag as promptly as possible. In response, the imperial chancellor, Count von Bülow, made the following declaration of the policy of the government, for which all parties had been anxiously waiting: "Fully recognizing the difficult situation in which agriculture is placed, and inspired by the desire effectively to improve that situation, the Prussian Government is resolved to exert its influence in order to obtain adequate protection for agricultural produce by means of the Customs duties, which must be raised to an extent calculated to attain that object." The canal scheme which suffered defeat in the Prussian diet in 1890 (see above), and the rejection of which roused the wrath of the emperor, was again brought forward, at the opening of the session of the Landtag, in January, 1901, with a great enlargement of its scope and cost, and with an emphatic expression of the expectation of his majesty that the bill providing for it should be passed. The bill covered no less than seven different projects, of which the total cost to the state was estimated at about 380,010,700 marks, or nearly \$100,000,000. These include the Rhine-Elbe canal, which is calculated to cost 260,784,700 marks; a ship canal between Berlin and Stettin, to cost 41,500,000 marks; a waterway connecting the Oder and the Vistula, of which the cost, together with that of a channel rendering the Warthe navigable for ships from Posen to the junction of the Netze, is estimated at 22,631,000 marks, and a canal connecting the province of Silesia with the canal joining the Oder to the Spree. The bill further proposed that the State should participate in the work of improving the flow of water in the lower Oder and the upper Havel to the extent of 40,980,000 marks and 9,670,000 marks respectively, and should contribute the sum of 9,336,000 marks towards the canalization of the Spree.

1901 (December).—Claims and complaints against Venezuela communicated to the United States.—Interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. See VENEZUELA: 1901.

1901-1909.—Antarctic exploration. See ANT-ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1901-1909.

1902.—Prince Henry's visit to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1902 (February-March).

1902.—Sugar bounty conference. See SUGAR BOUNTY CONFERENCE.

1902.—New tariff law and changed commercial policy.—Attitude toward the United States. See TARIFF: 1902-1906.

1902 (March-September).—Discussion of alcoholic drinking. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: 1902-1907.

1902 (June).—Renewal of the Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1902-1903.—Concessions for building the Bagdad railway. See RAILROADS: 1899-1916.

1902-1904.—Coercive proceedings against Venezuela concerted with Great Britain and Italy.—Settlement of claims secured.—Reference to The Hague.—Recognition given to the American Monroe Doctrine. See U. S. A.: 1902-1903; VENEZUELA: 1902-1904.

1903.—Adoption of a new child labor law. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1914.

1903-1920.—Interests around Mediterranean sea. See MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

1904.—End of the Kulturkampf.—"In 1904 one of the last vestiges of the Kulturkampf, the clause shutting out the Jesuits from German territory, disappeared. The Centre, for their part, realised that if they did not wish to condemn their party to an implacable and in the long run barren opposition, they must recognise the accomplished fact, frankly accept the new Empire and rally round a national policy. They consequently succeeded very cleverly in moderating their particularistic tendencies, on the one hand, in such a way as not to lay themselves open to the suspicion of separatist ambitions; and on the other hand so tempered their ultramontanism as no longer to give any grounds for the reproach which had been made against them of being an unpatriotic association."—H. Lichtenberger, *Germany and its evolution in modern times*, p. 245.

1904-1905.—Interest in Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1904-1905.—Wars with natives in German African colonies. See SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1905.

1904-1906.—Entente Cordiale of England and France.—Relation to Germany. See FRANCE: 1904-1906.

1904-1917.—Power of the steel syndicate. See TRUSTS: Germany: 1904-1917.

1905.—Acquisition of submarines in the navy. See SUBMARINES: 1000-1018.

1905.—Emperor's statement of his peace policy based on preparation for war. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1905.

1905.—Effect of Russo-Japanese War on the Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Effect of Russo-Japanese War.

1905.—Action with other powers in forcing financial reforms in Macedonia on Turkey. See TURKEY: 1903-1908.

1905-1906.—Raising the Morocco question.—"The Morocco crisis of 1905 almost led to war between France and Germany. Germany had actually begun mobilizing her army when France bowed to the demonstration of force, giving Germany what is usually called a diplomatic victory. However, she lost nothing substantial by giving way, but Germany received in the following year a diplomatic defeat at Algeciras, whence she returned empty-handed, and she quietly withdrew for a time her loudly advertised claims upon Moroccan territory."—J. E. Barker, *Modern Ger-*



many, p. 137.—See also MOROCCO: 1896-1906; U. S. A.: 1905-1906.

1905-1914.—Influence in Japan. See JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1906.—German settlements in Brazil.—Extent of migration. See BRAZIL: 1906: Status, etc.; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: European problems.

1906.—Commercial Treaty with the United States. See TARIFF: 1902-1906.

1906-1907.—Bloc parties in Reichstag. See BLOC: German.

1906-1907.—School strikes.—Language question of Poles. See POLAND: 1872-1910.

1906-1912.—Foreign policy.—Relations with England. See ENGLAND: 1912.

1907.—Second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907 (November).—Treaty with Great Britain, France, Norway, and Russia, guaranteeing the integrity of Norway. See NORWAY: 1907-1908.

1907-1908.—Trial of Maximilian Harden for his attack on Prince Eulenburg and Count von Moltke.—Maximilian Harden, editor of the *Zukunft*, made attacks on the character of Prince Eulenburg and Count Kuno von Moltke, in 1907, on account of which the latter brought a libel suit against him. "The charges not only affected the character of the persons accused, but affirmed that they had constituted a kind of kitchen cabinet, or 'Camarilla,' and had again and again given the Emperor misleading information and had exerted a very unfortunate influence over him. The case aroused intense interest throughout Germany, and indeed throughout Europe; and in spite of the unseizable nature of the charges, the testimony was widely reprinted. . . . Harden was acquitted, and the plaintiff was sentenced to pay the cost of the suit. Taking into account the exalted political position of the accused, and the great respect in which the Imperial court is held in Germany, this action of a German judge was regarded as sustaining the high character of the German courts for independence. A criminal suit was then brought by the public prosecutor, at the instigation of Count von Moltke and his associates, on the charge that Harden had committed an offense against public morals. On this trial the same witnesses appeared as on the former trial, but a great change had taken place in their memory of the transactions to which they had testified on the first trial. They either contradicted or repudiated their former statements to such a degree that their evidence was discredited and Harden's defense was broken down. Harden was found guilty and sentenced to four months' imprisonment. What changed the attitude of the witnesses is a matter of guesswork. It has been charged that their change of front was due to very powerful influences brought to bear upon them."—*Outlook*, Jan. 18, 1908.

An appeal was taken by Harden to a higher court. Official investigations which followed the trials resulted in the court-martialing of Count Lynar and General Hohenau, the former of whom was sentenced to fifteen months' imprisonment, while the latter was acquitted. In May, 1908, Prince Eulenburg was arrested on charges of immorality, but appears to have been so shattered in health that he could not be brought to trial. Substantially, Harden was vindicated.

1907-1909.—Friction with France after the Casablanca incident.—Commercial activities. See MOROCCO: 1907-1909; 1909; FRANCE: 1906-1909; Presidency of Armand Fallières.

1907-1914.—Strength of the Social-Democrats.—Attitude of William II.—Elections of 1907

and 1912.—Attitude of the Social-Democratic party towards the World War.—"In the autumn of the same year [1800] the Social-Democrats held with great enthusiasm the first of their annual general meetings of delegates. Disruptive influences have appeared in all these meetings; but the party has lost only individuals, it has never broken into groups. No other party, except the Centre, holds so closely together. Since 1881 the party has lost seats in the Reichstag in two elections, but the number of votes it has polled has increased without break. . . . The conciliatory policy which the Government adopted by allowing the Law of Exceptions to expire [1890] had no visible effect on the temper and solidarity of the party. The Government therefore soon returned to repressive measures, particularly in keeping a close watch on Social-Democratic gatherings and in haling speakers before the courts on charge of seditious utterances. The emperor William II has declared repeatedly that he considers a Social-Democrat a personal enemy of himself and of the Empire. . . . The Government and the parties of the Right oppose the Social-Democrats so vigorously because they fear the complete overthrow of existing institutions. The German workingman, . . . has profited by the prosperity of the last decades; he alone has enjoyed the gain of the socialistic legislation. The Social-Democrat is therefore less sweeping in his condemnation of the existing order. . . . What the Social-Democrat most desires for the immediate future is more, if not complete, coöperation in government on the part of every adult German."—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, pp. 161-162.—"The way the 4,216 local societies [of the Social Democrats] submit to the forty-eight country and district associations, and these again to the Central Association; the way enormous subscriptions are paid as if they were lawful taxes; the way the huge demonstrations are arranged, as if they were military operations; all this is not the result only of enthusiasm for a political party, it is also due to the sense of discipline which the German has in his blood. No nation in the world possesses or has ever possessed a like or even a similar party organization. The clubs of the Jacobins, which were spread like a network over France, were only a pale prototype. . . . The struggle of the labouring classes for better conditions of life, which originated at the time of the inception of the Social Democratic movement, has grown at times in Germany to a fanatical hatred of property and culture, birth and position. The excellent arrangements to raise the status of the workmen have not had much effect on this envy. . . . The German Social Democrats cling most lovingly, and with tenacious obstinacy, to the ultimate goal of Socialism, the destruction of differences in wealth by the suppression of private property and the nationalization of the means of production."—B. von Bülow, *Imperial Germany*, pp. 220, 224-225.—"The elections of 1907 inflicted the severest loss that the Social Democrats had experienced since the founding of the Reichstag; the elections of 1912 brought them the greatest gain. The parties of the Right fell from the hundred and thirteen seats that they had won in 1907 to sixty-nine in 1912. That is the smallest number of members of the Right since the year 1874. The number of Liberals in the Reichstag after the elections of 1912 was lower than ever before. At the elections of 1907, for the first time, Conservatives and Liberals of all shades of opinion were united for one cause. The elections of 1912 saw a close coalition of all the parties of the Left. In 1907 the Right emerged from the elections as the strongest group, numbering a hun-

dred and thirteen members as against a hundred and six Liberals, a hundred and five representatives of the Centre, and forty-three Socialists. In the year 1912 the Social Democrats were the strongest party in the Reichstag, with a hundred and ten members. . . . Since the year 1884, the number of votes recorded in favour of the Social Democrats has steadily increased. In round numbers the votes recorded . . . and the number of seats they obtained in the Reichstag are:

	votes	seats
1884.....	550,000	24
1887.....	763,000	11
1890.....	1,427,000	35
1893.....	1,787,000	44
1898.....	2,107,000	56
1903.....	3,011,000	81
1907.....	3,539,000	43
1912.....	4,250,000	110."

—Idem, *Imperial Germany*, pp. 174-175, 203.—"The party has [1914] the support of three-fourths of Germany's labor unionists. It owns 86 daily papers and controls many thousands of subsidiary organizations of various kinds. The actual or potential influence of such a party upon public opinion, if not directly upon the government, is evident. . . . Its position was clearly defined by its anti-war proclamations of July 25th and 31st, by the editorials of *Vorwaerts* and *Die Neue Zeit*, the official party organs, and by the resolutions of the Berlin mass meetings of July 29th, and the revolutionary resolutions of the Wurtemberg Socialist Convention, then in session. In all of these documents it will be noted that there is the strongest possible opposition to the war and that every conceivable argument is used against it. Even the most opportunistic Socialist newspapers, now very warlike, offered no exceptions. We close . . . with the official declaration of the party in the Reichstag, on August 4th, in favor of supporting the war.

"A most serious hour is upon us, an hour in which a matter of life and death confronts us. The results of the imperialistic policy which furnishes cause for the entire world to take up arms and permits the horrors of war to engulf us, the results of this policy, I say, have broken forth like a storm flood. The responsibility for this calamity falls upon supporters of this policy. We, ourselves, are not responsible. . . . The Social Democratic Party has always combated this policy to the utmost, and even to this hour we have agitated for the maintenance of peace by great demonstrations in all countries, and, above all, by our co-operation with our French brothers. Our exertions have been in vain. And now we are only too surely confronted by the fact that war is upon us and that we are menaced by the terror of foreign invasion. The problem before us now is not the relative advisability of war or peace, but a consideration of just what steps must be taken for the protection of our country. At this moment let us think of the millions of our compatriotic comrades, who, through no fault of their own, will be involved in this calamity; it is they who will suffer most acutely from the devastation that war inevitably brings in its train. Our best wishes accompany those of our brothers who have been summoned to arms, no matter what their party. . . . We think also of the mothers who must be separated from their sons, and of the wives and children who are being robbed of their bread-winners and who in consequence dwell in constant torment and fear as to the fate of their loved ones, threatened themselves, meanwhile, by the terrible sword of hunger. Tens of thousands will be wounded or will return as invalids. Let us regard it as our duty to assist

these unfortunates, to mitigate their sufferings, and to minister to their indescribable need. But as far as concerns our people and its independence, much, if not everything, would be endangered by a triumph of Russian despotism, already weltering in the blood of her own noblest sons. It devolves upon us, therefore, to avert this danger, to shelter the civilization and independence of our native land. Therefore, we must to-day justify what we have always said. In its hour of danger Germany may ever rely upon us. We take our stand upon the doctrine basic to the international labor movement, which at all times has recognized the right of every people to national independence and national defense, and at the same time we condemn all war for conquest. We hope that as soon as our opponents are ready for negotiations, an end will be made to the war and a state of peace induced which will make possible friendly relations with our neighbors. We do not regard this in the light of a contradiction to our duty in connection with international solidarity to which we are just as firmly bound as to Germany itself. We hope that this fatal strife will prove a lesson to the millions who will come after us, a lesson which will fill them with lasting abhorrence for all warfare. May they be converted by this to the ideal of Social Democracy and international peace. And now, bearing these thoughts in mind, we give our sanction to the voting of those moneys demanded. . . . Those Reichstag Socialists who were present at the session, in obedience to the decision of the party caucus, voted unanimously in favor of the war loan."—W. E. Walling, *Socialists and the war*, pp. 129-130, 143-145.

1908.—Present at maritime conference in London. See LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

1908.—Treaty with Denmark, England, France, the Netherlands, and Sweden, for maintenance of the *status quo* on the North sea. See NORTH SEA: 1908.

1908 (April).—Passage of law defining for the empire at large the rights of association and public meeting.—The rights of association and public meeting were determined for the empire at large for the first time by an enactment of the Reichstag in April, 1908. Hitherto each State had regulated these fundamental matters of political freedom by legislation of its own, some with considerable latitude, and others, especially in the north German states, with a narrow restraint, subject, in an intolerable degree, to the discretion or will of the police. The national law now brought into force, superseding the local legislation, enlarged greatly the liberty of citizens to associate themselves for legitimate purposes and to hold public meetings. An attempt to forbid the use of any foreign language at public meetings was defeated; but public speaking in other languages was sanctioned only in districts where sixty per cent. of the population use the foreign tongue. This does not apply, however, to international congresses in Germany, or to meetings of electors for the election of legislative representatives, federal or state; and the states have some privilege of modifying the rule.

1908 (November).—Excitement in Europe over a published interview with the emperor.—What may fairly be called a "row" in the European world, and of the greatest liveliness in Germany itself, arose, early in November, 1908. "The 'storm' arose from the publication, in the London *Daily Telegraph* of October 28, 1908, of an interview coming, as the editor said in introducing it, 'from a source of such unimpeachable authority that we can without hesitation commend the ob-

vious message, which it conveys to the attention of the public.' As to the origin and composition of the interview a good deal of mystery still exists. All that has become known is that some one, whose identity has hitherto successfully been concealed, with the object of demonstrating the sentiments of warm friendship with which the Emperor regarded England, put together, in England or in Germany, a number of statements made by the Emperor and sanctioned by him for publication. Whether the Emperor read the interview previous to publication or not, no official statement has been made; it is, however, quite certain that he did. . . . [The kaiser spoke of his friendship for England:] 'I have referred,' he said, 'to the speeches in which I have done all that a sovereign can to proclaim my goodwill. But, as actions speak louder than words, let me also refer to my acts. It is commonly believed in England that throughout the South African War Germany was hostile to her. German opinion undoubtedly was hostile—bitterly hostile. The Press was hostile; private opinion was hostile. But what of official Germany? Let my critics ask themselves what brought to a sudden stop, and, indeed, to absolute collapse, the European tour of the Boer delegates who were striving to obtain European intervention? They were fêted in Holland; France gave them a rapturous welcome. They wished to come to Berlin, where the German people would have crowned them with flowers. But when they asked me to receive them—I refused. The agitation immediately died away, and the delegation returned empty-handed. Was that, I ask, the action of a secret enemy? Again, when the struggle was at its height, the German Government was invited by the Governments of France and Russia to join with them in calling upon England to put an end to the war. The moment had come, they said, not only to save the Boer Republics, but also to humiliate England to the dust. What was my reply? I said that so far from Germany joining in any concerted European action to put pressure upon England and bring about her downfall, Germany would always keep aloof from politics that could bring her into complications with a Sea Power like England. Posterity will one day read the exact terms of the telegram—now in the archives of Windsor Castle—in which I informed the Sovereign of England of the answer I had returned to the Powers which then sought to compass her fall. Englishmen who now insult me by doubting my word should know what were my actions in the hour of their adversity.' . . . There are more indiscretions than one in the interview. . . . Such a revelation coming from the Emperor ought, one would suppose, to have caused serious trouble between Great Britain and her Entente friends. That it did not is at once testimony to the cynicism of Governments and the reality and strength of the Entente engagement. . . . The excitement in Germany caused by the publication of the interview soon took the shape of a determination on the part of the Chancellor and the Federal Council, for once fully identifying themselves with the feelings of Parliament, Press, and people, that 'something must be done,' and it was decided that the Chancellor should go to Potsdam, see the Emperor, and try to obtain from him a promise to be more cautious in his utterances on political topics for the future. . . . What passed at Potsdam between the Emperor and his Chancellor has not transpired. . . . It should not be difficult to imagine the mental attitudes of the two men on the occasion, and especially not difficult to imagine the sensations of the Emperor,

a Prussian King, on being impeached by a people—his people—for whom, his feeling would be, he had done so much, and in whose best interests he felt convinced he had acted; but whatever occurred, it ended in the Emperor bowing before the storm and giving the assurances required. . . . The text of these assurances, which was published in the *Official Gazette* the same evening, was as follows: 'His Majesty, while unaffected by public criticism which he regards as exaggerated, considers his most honourable imperial task to consist in securing the stability of the policy of the Empire while adhering to the principle of constitutional



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responsibility. The Kaiser accordingly endorses the statements of the Imperial Chancellor in Parliament, and assures Prince von Bülow of his continued confidence.' After returning to Berlin, Prince von Bülow gave in the Reichstag his impatiently awaited account of the result of his mission, and made what defence he could of his imperial master's action in allowing the famous interview to be published. . . . [The speech in part is as follows:] 'For the fault which occurred in dealing with the manuscript I accept, as I have caused to be said in the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, entire responsibility. It also goes against my personal feelings that officials who have done their duty all their lives should be stamped as transgressors because, in a single case, they relied too much on the fact that I usually read and

finally decide everything myself. . . . When the article in the *Daily Telegraph* appeared, its fateful effect could not for a moment be doubtful to me, and I handed in my resignation. This decision was unavoidable, and was not difficult to come to. The most serious and most difficult decision which I ever took in my political life was, in obedience to the Kaiser's wish, to remain in office. I brought myself to this decision only because I saw in it a command of my political duty, precisely in the time of trouble, to continue to serve his Majesty the Kaiser and the country. . . . How long that will be possible for me, I cannot say."—S. Shaw, *William of Germany*, pp. 303-304, 306-310, 314-315.—Von Bülow resigned in the following year, but for different reasons. See above: 1900-1909.

1908-1913.—Industrial development.—Establishment of industrial courts.—Their functions. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1890-1908; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: g; h.

1909.—Accelerated naval construction.—Excitement in Great Britain.—Comparison of dreadnought building with that of England. See NAVY, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: German side of navy building, 1909-1913.

1909.—Extent of trade unionism. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1848-1918.

1909.—International Opium Commission. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1909 (February).

1909.—Recognizes annexation of Congo Free State by Belgium. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1909.

1909 (July).—Von Bethmann-Hollweg appointed imperial chancellor.—Upon the resignation of von Bülow, the emperor appointed von Bethmann-Hollweg imperial chancellor, president of the Prussian ministry, and minister for foreign affairs.

1909 (September).—Speech of the emperor on the pride of his subjects in "the Game of War." See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1913: Anticipation, etc.

1909 (December).—Mannesmann mining concession. See MOROCCO: 1909.

1909-1914.—Commercial relations with various countries. See TARIFF: 1909-1914.

1910.—Electoral reform in Prussia postponed.—The Prussian Electoral Reform Bill of 1910 was a great disappointment to the people, particularly to the Social-Democrats who favored a secret ballot and universal suffrage. Their demonstrations met with unusually rigid police activity, but the government withdrew the measure, and the old system continued. On August 25 Wilhelm II uttered at Königsberg the celebrated words, "Looking on myself as God's instrument, I shall go my way without regard to the ideas and opinion of the time," a position which the chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg defended in the Reichstag. But for various reasons, the Conservative-Centrist bloc was shaken and the opposing national liberal party became united, while the Social-Democrats increased in strength and activity in mass meetings voicing the popular discontent.

1910.—Explorations in Arctic.—Emigration to South America. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1910-1916; LATIN AMERICA: 1910.

1910.—Statistics for trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1910.—Anti-clerical demonstrations.—Breach with the pope. See PAPACY: 1910.

1910 (March).—Demand of the Reichstag for ministerial responsibility.—On March 15, 1910, it was reported from Berlin that the Reichstag had adopted a motion, made by a socialist member, demanding the introduction of a bill making

the chancellor responsible to the Reichstag for his official acts and also extending his responsibility to cover all of the acts and documents made by the emperor, for which responsibility he shall be answerable in a court of law.

1911.—Morocco crisis.—"Germany sent to Agadir, south Morocco, the warship, *Panther*, in order to protect the life and property of Germans and German protégés in this region. This was considered a violation of the Algeiras treaty of 1906, to which France, Great Britain, Spain, Russia, and, in a certain sense, the United States were signatories. A French warship was sent to Agadir soon afterwards and a diplomatic exchange of notes between France and Germany followed; it resulted, however, in a peaceful settlement."—British Foreign Office, *German colonization (Handbook no. 42)*.—See also MOROCCO: 1911-1914; FRANCE: 1910-1912; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 4.

1911.—Insurance Consolidation Act. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1911.

1911.—Relations with Liberia.—Desire for control. See LIBERIA: 1911-1913.

1911.—Acquisition of part of the French Congo.—"The latest of Germany's colonial possessions came to her in 1911, and its acquisition was part of the final Morocco settlement. In that year Germany agreed to recognize the paramount influence of France in the Sultanate, while France ceded to Germany by way of compensation, about 100,000 square miles of her Congo empire; and agreed in the event of the disruption of the Congo Free State, to waive her right of pre-emption regarding it in favor of the international regulation of the question, i.e., regulation by the Powers which were parties of the Congo Act of 1885. . . . By the acquisition of part of the French Congo [New Kamerun] the Cameroon colony was extended to the Congo and Ubanghi rivers."—British Foreign Office, *German colonization (Handbook, no. 42, p. 89)*.

1911.—Claim against Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1911-1916.

1911.—Government's views on arbitration. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern period: 1911.

1911.—Statement of pan-Germanism. See PAN-GERMANISM: German presentation, etc.

1911.—Member of consortium to give financial aid to China. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921.

1911.—New commercial treaty with Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1911.

1911-1913.—Guarantees Belgian neutrality. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 36.

1911-1918.—Alsace-Lorraine constitution.—A bill to organize Alsace-Lorraine as a constituent province of the empire, at first provided it with a representation in the federal council without any voting power. The Social-Democrats held protest meetings in all parts of Alsace-Lorraine, and in the Reichstag were supported by Centrists and Liberals to secure for the province three votes in the federal council. On May 26, 1911, the bill was passed by a vote of 211 to 93. The German emperor exercising sovereign power appointed a *Statthalter* who stood at the head of the government at Strassburg, the capital. Local laws were made with the consent of two chambers and of the emperor. The first chamber was composed of nominated members while the second was elective by secret ballot on the basis of universal suffrage. It may be added that Alsace-Lorraine representatives in the federal council had no right to vote on constitutional changes. When France took over the provinces on November 26, 1918, universal suf-

frage was granted.—See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1011.

1912.—Balkan and Asia Minor interests.—“If Germany was to carry her Mesopotamian and Turkish policy to success, another aspect of the Near Eastern Question concerned her very closely, namely, the position of the independent Balkan States. Should those nations become powerful and diplomatically autonomous the security of the path from Germany to Constantinople would be threatened. They must, therefore, be subjected to the domination of Germany, or better still, to that of Germany's ally, Austria; for Austria has always had greater success than Germany in dealing with the Slavs. In no event could the Slavs be allowed to control the Balkans, lest Germany's communications with Asia Minor be cut. [See BAGDAD RAILWAY: Plan.] Thus a regenerated Turkey must guard the Straits while Austria dominated the Balkans. With her ally, Austria, supreme on the Danube, and her friend, Turkey, in control of the Dardanelles, Germany might reasonably hope to be master of a sweep of territory extending from the North Sea to the Persian Gulf. She would cut Russia from her Mediterranean trade, hold the shortest route to the East, and threaten the position of the British in Egypt and India.”—C. Seymour, *Diplomatic background of the war*, pp. 208-209.—See also above: 1800-1914: Alteration of foreign policy; BALKAN STATES: 1913; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, iv.

1912.—Growth of the Agrarian League.—Increase in agricultural products.—“They [the Agrarian League] formed societies—there were over twenty-six thousand of these in 1912—which aid small farmers in various ways, as purchasers of raw materials and selling agencies, and as savings and credit banks; they established schools of instruction in scientific farming, listing two hundred and twelve schools and nearly ten thousand pupils in 1911. Above all, German farmers employed every bit of technical science that could be applied to agriculture; it is said that no other country farms so scientifically or produces so much per acre. Between 1890 and 1912 the amount of rye produced in Germany within a year rose from 6.8 to 11 million tons, potatoes from 29.7 to 44.2 million tons; in the same period cattle increased from about 17 to 20.1 million head, pigs from 12 to 21.8 millions. On the other hand, more land was drawn into cultivation; indeed the cultivation of crops on land which was formerly used for grazing entailed a reduction in head of sheep from about 14 to 5.7 millions. At the same time the imports of wheat, oats, barley, and meat for immediate consumption exceeded the exports of the same articles in 1890 by 1.6 million tons and in 1912 by 5.2 million tons.”—G. M. Priest, *Germany since 1740*, p. 146.—“‘We have now seen,’ declared the German foreign secretary, Jagow, on February 7, 1913, ‘that we have not only points of contact with England of a sentimental nature, but that similar interests also exist. I am not a prophet; but I entertain the hope that on the ground of common interests, which in politics is the most fertile ground, we can continue to work with England and perhaps to reap the fruits of our labours.’ Thus co-operation in practical work had at last appeared to accomplish what the search for abstract formulas failed to achieve. Taking advantage of the new-born atmosphere of confidence and goodwill, the two Governments in the winter of 1913-14 proceeded to discuss two problems to which Germany attached the greatest importance. An adjustment of interests was at last reached in regard to the Bagdad railway, the joint exploitation of the

petroleum springs in the Mosul vilayet, and the navigation of the Tigris. The future of the Portuguese colonies was again debated. Baron Beyens, who was Belgian minister at Berlin at the time, states that Angola was earmarked as a German, and Mozambique as a British sphere of influence, Rohrbach declares that Germany was to have pre-emption whenever Portugal desired to sell Angola, contenting herself meanwhile with economic facilities. Whatever the exact details, an agreement highly gratifying to Germany was reached and initialled shortly before the outbreak of the war.”—G. B. Gooch and J. H. B. Masterman, *Century of British foreign policy*, pp. 105-106.—See also ENGLAND: 1912; 1912-1913; CAMEROONS: Exploration of the interior; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, xii; 71, xiv.

1912.—Renewal of Triple Alliance. See ITALY: 1912-1914; TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Content of the treaties.

1912-1913.—Foreign politics.—Appointment of Herr von Jagow as foreign secretary.—Anglo-German relations.—“In foreign politics the greatest achievement of Germany this year was the prevention of a European war, which would in all probability have broken out if the emperor William had not plainly declared, on the one hand to Austria-Hungary that he would not support her should she be involved in a war with Russia as the consequence of an attack by her upon Serbia, and on the other to Russia that if she attacked Austria-Hungary, notwithstanding her abstinence from active intervention in the Balkans, he would fight by the side of his Austrian ally. His speeches on the occasion of the celebration of the centenary of the War of Liberation in 1813, while proclaiming the past glories of the Prussian army, again affirmed his desire for peace and his conviction that a strong German army and navy are the most effectual means of maintaining it. Herr von Jagow, German ambassador in Rome, was appointed on January 14 to succeed the late Herr von Kiderlen-Waechter as foreign secretary. He has had little foreign experience, but obtained great credit both in Germany and in Italy for his success in renewing the Triple Alliance.”—*Annual Register*, 1913, pp. 321-322.

1912-1914.—Bid for British neutrality.—Increase of navy. See ENGLAND: 1912-1913; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1912-1913; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, xviii; also above: 1800-1914: Growth of the army.

1913.—Bagdad Railway Treaty.—Control in Asia Minor. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, xvi.

1913.—Army organization and strength.—Aims and obligations of the military as stated by the German staff. See above: 1800-1914: Growth of the army; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1913; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: 1, 6; Diplomatic background: 4; 5.

1913.—Friendly relations with England.—Jealousy and fear of France. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 4; 71, x; 71, xiv.

1913.—Expedition to South Pole. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1913.

1913.—Interests in Balkan Wars.—Desire for control. See BALKAN STATES: 1913; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, iv.

1913.—Zabern incident.—“The crassest of the outward, non-political manifestations of militarism in recent years was the Zabern affair [in Alsace]. A young lieutenant had sabered a crippled shoemaker for a real or fancied offense against military rules. The townspeople made a demonstration against the officer, and the colonel commanding the

regiment stationed at Zabern locked a number of the civilians in the cellar of the barracks and kept them there all night. This was too much even for a docile German Reichstag, and an excited debate was followed by the passing of a vote of censure on a government which, through the mouths of its Chancellor and War Minister, had justified the colonel's actions. The colonel and the lieutenant were convicted upon trial and adequate sentences were imposed upon them, but the convictions were significantly set aside upon appeal and both escaped punishment."—S. M. Bouton, *And the Kaiser abdicates*, p. 41.—See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1913.

1914.—Colonies in Africa.—Building of railroads in Southwest Africa. See ABYSSINIA: 1913-1920; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914; SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1914.

1914.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1914.

1914.—Effect of the outbreak of the World War on working children. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1914.

1914.—Relations with Russia, Italy and Turkey previous to the outbreak of war.—Influence in Turkey.—Negotiations with England.—Interest in Irish uprising.—Plans for Bagdad railway.—Causes for war. See BAGDAD RAILWAY: Plan; BALKAN STATES: 1914-1916; IRELAND: 1913-1916; ITALY: 1901-1918; RUSSIA: 1914 (August); Relations with Germany; TURKEY: 1919 (April-May); WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: k; Diplomatic background: 71, v; 71, xvi; 1914: IV. Turkey: a; b.

1914.—Eve of the World War.—Attitude of press and people.—Anti-British sentiment.—"It is not for the historian to anathematize the uncompromising tone assumed by Germany in the crisis of 1914. . . . Without question the extraordinary growth of German population and the resulting development of German industry forced a natural expansion of commerce and led to the demand for a protecting navy. It was inevitable, given the German mentality, which has been dominated by Prussia in recent years, that there should follow a demand for political influence in the world at large, proportionate to the commercial influence exercised by Germany. . . . It was because political primacy on the Continent seemed the essential basis of Germany's world empire that she was determined to give the law to Europe in 1914, either by diplomacy or by war."—C. Seymour, *Diplomatic background of the War*, pp. 286-287.—During the critical days immediately preceding the outbreak of war public opinion in Germany was sharply divided. The people undoubtedly dreaded the possibility of war as strongly as the military party allegedly desired it. At the end of July the *Militärische Rundschau* declared: "If we do not decide for war, that war in which we shall have to engage at the latest in two or three years will be begun in far less propitious circumstances. At this moment the initiative rests with us. Russia is not ready, moral factors and right are on our side, as well as might. Since we shall have to accept the contest some day, let us provoke it at once. Our prestige, our position as a great Power, our honor, are in question; and yet more, for it would seem that our very existence is concerned." The other point of view was presented by the *Rheinisch-Westphälische Zeitung*, on July 24: "The Austro-Hungarian ultimatum is nothing but a pretext for war, and this time a dangerous one. As it seems, we are on the brink of an Austro-Serbian war. . . . It is a shame if the Imperial [German] Government had not required that demands of this kind should

be submitted to it beforehand. Our one duty now is to declare that we are not under any obligation to launch into a war to further the aggressive policy of the Hapsburgs." When the storm had broken loose, however, by Germany's declaration of war against Russia and France, the German people presented an almost united front. Even the Social Democrats, by a vast majority, supported the government. Their newspaper, *Vorwärts*, thus echoed the party's sentiments: "We were always open enemies of the monarchic form of government, and we always shall be. . . . But we have to acknowledge to-day that William II has shown himself the friend of universal peace."

"The *Berliner Nachrichten* took its own view and setting aside all question of alliance came out on July 25 with the following philosophic observation: 'If we must have a European war it is better for us that it should be this year and not 1917. By that date, Russia would have terminated her military reform and France would have filled the gaps pointed out by Senator Humbert.' This is a reference to the criticisms made by the French senator on the deficient military organization of his country; but the Prussian newspaper forgot that when he made them, the whole German press would not admit the gaps but alleged that it was merely a pretext to augment war preparations. More dangerous for the people were the semi-official communications proceeding now from some high military personage, now from some high civil employee; and more exciting for them was the financial news. Influenced by one and the other the crowds filled the streets singing that hymn which embodies all their hopes—*Deutschland über Alles*."—O. Ferrara, *Causes and pretexts of the World War*, p. 112.—When the British declaration of war against Germany became public, there were violent anti-British demonstrations in Berlin.—See also WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: k; Diplomatic background: 9; 12; 33; 34; 38; 40; 44; 64; 71, xxii; 71, xxiv; 71, xxix; 73, v; 76; 77.

1914.—Aircraft strength before the war.—Control of railways. See WORLD WAR: 1914: X. War in the air: a; RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914.—Military strength at outbreak of war.—Use of athletics in training. See above: 1890-1914: Growth of the army; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 20; 21; 29; RECREATION: 1914.

1914.—Contraband and restraint of trade after outbreak of war. See WORLD WAR: 1914: XII. Neutral nations: b.

1914.—Government instructions to ambassadors.—Kaiser's knowledge of approaching Austro-Serbian crisis.—His partial control over Austrian foreign policy.—Kaiser and Tsar telegrams.—Russian mobilization.—Potsdam military council.—Bid for British neutrality.—Telegrams between Kaiser and King George.—Bethmann-Hollweg's statements on origin of the war. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 16; 73, vi; 38; 33; 69; 73, ii; 34; 40; 73, i; 76; 77.

1914.—Lichnowsky memorandum. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71.

1914.—Correspondence with Chile relative to outbreak of war. See CHILE: 1914: Declaration of neutrality.

1914.—Spy system and secret service in England. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: II. Espionage: a, 1.

1914.—Propaganda system. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: d, 1.

1914 (August).—World War: Mobilization of troops.—Demand for passage through Belgium.

—Its refusal.—French attitude.—German refusal to respect neutrality and virtual declaration of war against Belgium.—Declaration of war against Russia.—Declaration of war against France.—Invasion of Luxemburg.—Invasion of Belgium.—British protest and ultimatum.—Effect in Germany of British action.—Plans for invasion of France.—Alliance with Turkey. See **WORLD WAR: Preparation for war: a; b; Diplomatic background: 42; 43; 47; 48; 50 to 52; 56; 59; 61; 62; 64; 73, iii; also 1914: IV. Turkey: c; ENGLAND: 1914 (August 4); LUXEMBURG: 1914-1918; TURKEY: 1914.**

1914 (August-December).—World War: Germans in Belgium.—Atrocities.—Liège.—Brussels.—Louvain.—Invasion of France.—Battle of the Marne.—Ypres.—Aisne.—Lys.—Mons.—Ardenne. See **BELGIUM: 1914; 1914-1918: German occupation; German administration; BRUGES: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 1.**

1914 (August-December).—World War: Operations in East Prussia.—Battle of Tannenberg.—Balkan relations. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 1; c, 2; c, 3; 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 4.**

1914 (August-December).—World War: War in Manchuria.—Japan declares war.—Operations around Kiao-Chau. See **JAPAN: 1914-1918: In the World War; WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: a; b; d; also CHINA: 1919.**

1914 (August-December).—War in the African colonies. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: a; c; EGYPT: 1914.**

1914 (August-December).—World War: Naval operations.—Submarine warfare.—Battle off Coronel.—Battle of Falklands.—Cruise of *Emden*. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: Naval operations: b; e; f, 4; h.**

1914 (December).—Map of subject nationalities of the German alliance. See **WORLD WAR: Map of subject nationalities.**

1914-1915.—Food conservation.—Industrial and financial depression.—“Although the German Government was confident that the war would last but a few months, its first food-conservation order followed on the heels of the mobilization. The government took over all supplies of bread-stuffs and established a weekly ration of four metric pounds per person (about seventy ounces). Other similar measures followed fast. Meat was rationed, the weekly allowance varying from six to nine ounces in different parts of the Empire.” S. M. Bouton, *And the Kaiser abdicates*, pp. 64-65.—“On January 25, 1915, the government issued decrees regulating minutely the use of grain and flour. All available grain was seized for the War Grain Association, and for communal associations which undertook to keep the people from want. On New Year's Day, 1915, all Germany knew that the twelve months ahead would bring trials more fiery than any that the country had suffered since the overthrow of Napoleon I. And the German people, still labouring under the delusion that the war had been provoked by their enemies, were prepared to face those trials with the same determination and self-sacrifice which their ancestors had shown in the days of Stein. . . . Owing to the favorable strategic situations which the German armies had won for themselves, it was not the purely military side of the war which was the chief preoccupation of German statesmen or the main anxiety of the civilian population. The financial strain and the industrial depression were regarded with greater uneasiness, especially in Ham-

burg, which had become almost a ‘dead city.’ . . . The food supply caused the Germans considerable anxiety during the first few months of the year . . . but as the harvest approached, it was seen that though the country might suffer from scarcity there was no danger of actual famine.”—*Annual Register*, 1915, pp. 212-214.—See also **FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918: Rationing in Germany; German food policy.**

1914-1915.—Spanish protests against unrestricted submarine warfare. See **SPAIN: 1914-1918.**

1914-1915.—Influence in Bulgaria. See **BULGARIA: 1914; 1914-1915.**

1914-1917.—Poland's attitude in war against Russia. See **POLAND: 1914-1917.**

1914-1917.—German plots in the United States. See **U. S. A.: 1914-1917.**

1914-1918.—Advances in social insurance. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1914-1918.**

1914-1918.—War taxes, direct and indirect. See **TAXATION: World War.**

1914-1918.—Strict censorship of press. See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: a, 2.**

1914-1918.—World War: Treatment of prisoners of war. See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIII. Prisoners and prisons: a.**

1914-1918.—World War: Destructive engineering during war.—Railroad, bridge, tunnel destruction.—Flooding of lands in France. See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: a.**

1914-1918.—Reëducation of the disabled during the World War. See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Reëducation.**

1915.—World War: General military situation at opening of year. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: I. Military situation; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 19: Germany.**

1915.—World War: Naval operations in the North sea and the Baltic. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: a; c.**

1915.—World War: Aerial operations.—Raids on British towns. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: X. War in the air.**

1915.—Foodstuffs declared contraband. See **U. S. A.: 1915 (February): Contraband of war.**

1915.—Commercial agreement with Switzerland.—Control of Shantung. See **SWITZERLAND: 1915; CHINA: 1915.**

1915.—Rule of conquered Poland, Lithuania, Volhynia and Podolia by combined central powers. See **POLAND: 1915-1918; LITHUANIA: 1914-1918: Effects of World War.**

1915.—World War: Military operations on the western front.—Battles.—Soissons.—Champagne.—St. Mihiel.—Ypres, second battle of.—Artois.—Neuve Chapelle.—Festubert.—La Fille Morte. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front.**

1915.—World War: Campaign on the eastern front.—In Carpathians.—Galicia.—East Prussia.—Advance on Warsaw.—Hindenburg's invasion of Courland.—Capture of Kovno.—Przemysl.—Riga. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: c; f; f, 8; g; h; i; i, 4; i, 5; i, 6.**

1915.—World War: Operations in the Balkans and Near East.—Serbia.—Greece.—Along Suez canal.—Relations with Persia. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: a; c, i; VI. Turkey: b, i; VII. Persia and Germany.**

1915.—World War: Military campaigns in Africa.—Surrender to British. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa; SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1915.**

1915 (February).—World War: Proclamation of war zone around British Isles.—On February 4 the German Admiralty announced a blockade by submarines from February 18, of all waters surrounding the British Isles, that all enemy vessels found in these waters would be destroyed, though it might not always be possible to save the crews and passengers, and that the misuse of neutral flags by British vessels made it probable that neutral ships might be attacked.—See also ENGLAND: 1915: German blockade; U. S. A.: 1915 (February): Germany begins submarine campaign; WORLD WAR: 1915: XI. Politics and diplomacy: d.

1915 (February-September).—World War: Submarine warfare.—Note from United States regarding mines outside neutral waters.—Torpedoing of American vessels.—*Lusitania*.—*Nebraska*.—*Gulflight*.—*Cushing*.—*Arabic*.—Diplomatic correspondence concerning them. See U. S. A.: 1915 (February): Germany begins submarine campaign; (May); (May-September); (June); (August); WORLD WAR: 1915: XI. Politics and diplomacy: d.

1915 (March).—World War: Allied blockade of German commerce.—Indictment of Hamburg-American steamship line. See U. S. A.: 1915 (March): Blockade, etc.; Indictment, etc.

1915 (May).—Withdrawal of Italy from Triple Alliance. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Break up, etc.

1915 (July-September).—Plots and conspiracies in United States. See U. S. A.: 1915 (July); (September).

1915 (October).—World War: Bulgaria enters war as ally. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b.

1915-1916.—Conservation of national vitality.—“Quite early in the war a very influential committee was formed in Berlin to study how best to work for ‘the conservation and increment of the vitality of the nation.’ A conference was called in Berlin in 1915; when a large number of the best-known doctors, economists and sociologists in Germany spoke on the birth-rate and allied question. The provision of small holdings for soldiers was taken up very warmly; and the housing problem received much attention. Steps were taken to make detailed surveys of these matters and to prepare practical reports. Another body called the *Gesellschaft für Bevölkerungspolitik* (Society for ‘Population-politics’) was started in Berlin, also in 1915, under the presidency of Professor J. Wolf, of Breslau, the famous economist. Its objects were stated to be: (1) To promote the growth and vitality of the German race. (2) To assist in every way the education and feeding of large families. (3) To encourage the domestic training of women. (4) To work for better housing conditions and for the opening up of land for small cultivators. (5) To combat all diseases diminishing fertility and all attempts to employ women upon unsuitable work. (6) To protect the motherhood and young life of the nation. In South Germany, a further body was organised by Pastor D. Weber, called ‘The Committee for the Encouragement of Population,’ the aims of which were to approach the whole matter more from the religious standpoint and to counteract any dangerous tendencies associated with a materialistic view of the population problem. A Congress was held at Darmstadt, in November, 1916, under the presidency of von Gruber. The following points were especially emphasized: (1) Christian marriage must be strictly maintained; and early marriage should be encouraged. (2) Houses and small holdings specially suitable for family life must be arranged for.

(3) It should be necessary that people about to marry should produce medical certificates. There should also be a compulsory notification of sexual diseases. (4) Temperance is to be promoted [see LIQUOR PROBLEM: Germany: 1915-1918]. (5) Importance should be attached to the domestic education of women.”—M. Booth, *Social reconstruction in Germany*, pp. 23-24.

1916.—Formation of the Independent Socialist party.—While the majority of the German Social Democratic Party supported the government from the beginning of the war, an influential minority strongly opposed the war, its conduct, and the various war loans. These dissensions led to the formation of the Independent Socialist Party, originated by twenty socialists, including Bernstein, Liebknecht, Ledebour and Hugo Haase. The pro-government party was headed by Scheidemann and Ebert. Liebknecht was arrested, charged with high treason and sentenced to four years’ imprisonment.—See also SOCIALISM: 1912-1918; 1918-1919: German revolution; and below: 1922 (September-November).

1916.—Changes in government and army personnel.—Fall of von Tirpitz.—Among the important political and military changes during the year were the resignations of Dr. Delbrück, Minister of the Interior, and of the foreign secretary von Jagow. They were succeeded, respectively, by Dr. Helfferich and Herr Zimmermann. When Rumania had declared war on Germany, the emperor dismissed General von Falkenhayn from office as chief of the general staff and appointed Marshal von Hindenburg in his stead. The most sensational event, however, was the resignation, in March, of Grand-Admiral von Tirpitz, who, it was well known, was a powerful advocate of ruthless submarine warfare against Great Britain, without regard for the safety of subjects of neutral states or enemy non-combatants. More moderate counsels apparently prevailed, as von Bethmann-Hollweg and von Jagow were unwilling to risk complications with the United States. Tirpitz was succeeded by Admiral von Capelle as Minister of Marine.

1916.—World War: Campaigns on western front.—Ypres.—St. Eloi.—Verdun offensive.—Battle of the Somme.—Gas attacks. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front.

1916.—World War: Campaigns on eastern front.—Aid and influence in Austria-Hungary. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1916-1917; WORLD WAR: 1916: III. Eastern front: a; a, 3; a, 5; a, 8; a, 9.

1916.—World War: Campaign in the Balkans and conspiracy in Arabia.—Conquest of Rumania.—Dobrudja campaign. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 6; ARABIA: 1916; RUMANIA: 1914-1918; 1916.

1916.—World War: Campaign in East Africa. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a.

1916.—World War: Naval operations.—Battle of Jutland. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a.

1916.—World War: Submarine warfare.—*Appam* case.—*Sussex*.—*Voyage of the Deutschland*.—U-boat 53. See U. S. A.: 1916 (February-October); (March-May); (July): *Voyage of the Deutschland*; (October): German U-boat 53.

1916.—Deportation of Belgians.—Protests of French government. See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in northern France, etc.: a; b.

1916.—War time measures.—Preventive arrest.—Auxiliary Service Bill.—“The anti-war movement, whatever may have been its actual dimensions, led to an extraordinary growth of police tyranny and to the institution of a system of what



was called 'preventive arrest.' Anybody who was suspected of holding revolutionary opinions or of taking the smallest part in any extreme pacifist agitation was liable to be suddenly arrested, in order to 'prevent' further 'mischievous' propaganda by the unfortunate person concerned. . . . This system of preventive arrest was at work all over Germany except in the kingdom of Bavaria, which, . . . was largely independent of the king of Prussia, even in war-time."—*Annual Register*, 1916, p. 241.—"The Government introduced in the Reichstag at the end of November a remarkable Bill to confer upon the State power to mobilize labour compulsorily for war-work. The Bill was called the 'Patriotic Auxiliary Service' Bill."—*Ibid.*, p. 243.

1916.—Daylight saving movement passed as an emergency war measure.—Results. See DAYLIGHT SAVING MOVEMENT: 1916.

1916.—Ministry of food supplies.—Food problem.—Peace proposal.—"A Ministry of Food Supplies was instituted, owing to the difficulties caused by the British naval blockade, and the official appointed to control this new department, who was generally known as the 'Food Dictator,' was Herr von Batocki, who had previously been President of the province of East Prussia, one of the most important agrarian districts in Germany. [See also WORLD WAR: 1916: XII. Political conditions: b.] . . . During the autumn the problem of food supplies became more serious than formerly. The shortage of meat was so great that the Food Dictator only allowed each adult of the population  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. per week, and children received less. The potato crop had been very poor. . . . Although the harvest, in respect of cereals, had been superior to that of 1915, the position was on the whole considerably worse than it had been in the previous winter. The supplies secured by the conquest of Rumania were not large, as the Rumanians in their retreat had destroyed great stocks of grain."—*Annual Register*, 1916, pp. 238, 241.—"Great though the strength of the German nation was, that strength was severely strained after seventeen months of the European War. The blockade of the German coasts by the British fleet . . . had caused a very disagreeable insufficiency of certain kinds of food. . . . These trials, the horrible loss of life, the waste of wealth, the arduous, unpleasant, and unfruitful labor, had produced in the German people a deep yearning for peace."—*Ibid.*, pp. 220-230.—"The year . . . closed . . . with a definite and official offer on the part of Germany and her allies to enter into immediate peace negotiations. This offer was categorically rejected by the Entente Governments."—*Ibid.*, 1917, p. 209.—See also BELGIUM: 1916-1917; RUSSIA: 1916; Opposition of Duma; U. S. A.: 1916-1917; WORLD WAR: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: a; a, 2; b, 1.

1916 (March).—World War: Declaration of war against Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1914-1918: In World War.

1916 (August).—Italy's and Rumania's declarations of war. See ITALY: 1915-1916; WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c. 5.

1916-1918.—Economic stringency.—Raw material and food substitutes.—"Much nonsense has been disseminated on the success of the Germans, Austrians, and Hungarians in inventing substitutes for the things that were hard to get during the war. . . . That much was done in that field is true enough. . . . The first thing the German scientists did at the outbreak of the war was to perfect the system of a Norwegian chemist who had succeeded two years before in condensing the nitrogen of the air into the highly tangible form of

crystals. . . . The British blockade had made the importation of niter from overseas impossible. There is no telling what would have happened except for the fact that the practically inexhaustible store of nitrogen in the air could be drawn upon. It kept the Central Powers group of belligerents in powder, so long as there was vegetable fiber and coal-tar enough to be nitrated. Incidentally, some of the by-products of the nitrogen process served in good stead as fertilizer. The quantity won was not great, however. . . . Science multiplied by three the store of textiles held in the Central states at the outbreak of the war. . . . [It was known] . . . that birch pulp and willow pulp made most excellent substitutes for cotton, if the process, or 'operation,' as the thing is known technically, is suitably modified. . . . The nettle, now looked upon as a noxious weed fit only for goose fodder, was brought into its place. Very soon it was in the market as a textile, which often aspired to as imposing a name as 'natural silk,' a name the plant and its fiber well deserve. . . . The paucity of textiles, however, gave rise to the paper-cloth industry. It was realized that for many purposes for which textiles were being used the paper cloth was well suited. . . . For instance, it will make splendid sweater coats for ladies and children. It will also take the place of felt for hats. The endeavor to find a substitute for sole leather was not so successful, even when finally it was decided that leather soles could be made only of animal tissue. . . . A very interesting solution was found in the use of wooden soles [which however was not very successful]. . . . It was the department of food substitution that was really the most interesting. For decades food in tabloid form has interested the men in the chemical laboratories. Some of them have asserted that man could be fed chemically. Theoretically that may be done; in practice it is impossible. . . . The very wise pure-food laws of the Central states were thrown on the rubbish-heap by the governments when stretching the food-supply became necessary. . . . How to substitute flour was indeed a great and urgent problem. . . . The first war-bread baked was a superior sort of rye bread, containing in proportions 55, 25, 20, rye flour, wheat flour, and potato meal or flakes, sugar, and fat. . . . Oats, Indian corn, barley, beans, peas, and buckwheat meal had to be added as time went on. . . . Imports of coffee had become impossible in 1916. . . . [The first substitute was made mostly of roasted barley and oats. The next sort of artificial coffee was made of roasted acorns and beechnuts, with just enough roasted barley to build up a coffee flavor. The principal ingredients of the third substitute were carrots and yellow turnips.] To find substitutes for tea was not difficult. The bloom of the linden-tree, mixed with beech buds, makes an excellent beverage. . . . [An example of a meat substitute may be found in the rice "lamb" chop.] The rice was boiled and then formed into lumps resembling a chop. Into the lump a skewer of wood was stuck to serve as a bone, and to make the illusion more complete a little paper rosette was used to top off the 'bone.' All of it was very *comme il faut*. Then the things were fried in real mutton tallow, and when they came on the table their looks and aroma, now reinforced by green peas and a sprig of watercress, would satisfy the most exacting. . . . The crux of the situation was to fill the public stomach as well as conditions permitted, and the consumption of fats could have no place in that scheme under the circumstances. It was decided, therefore, to have the human stomach do what heretofore had largely been attended to by

the animal industries. An entire series of frictional waste could in that manner be eliminated, as indeed it was. The same policy led to a reduction in the supply of eggs. To keep the human stomach occupied had become as much a necessity as furnishing nutriment to the body. I doubt whether without this happy idea the Central states would have been able to carry on the war."—G. A. Schreiner, *Iron ration*, pp. 145-158.

1917.—Financial and economic conditions.—War loans.—"The German Empire, after twenty-nine months of war, was battered and bleeding from many wounds, but still held a position of great strength. . . . In a military sense the course of the war had remained favorable to the Hohenzollern Empire; every army which had approached Germany or her chief ally, Austria-Hungary—the Russians, the French, the British, the Italians, the Rumanians—had still remained outside her frontiers. [Russia was in the throes of revolution.] . . . But the ruthless submarine warfare, initiated at that time, brought about the break with the United States. The food problem became still more serious. . . . During the spring and early summer the population suffered from scarcity of food more severely than at any previous period of the war. . . . In particular, the shortage of bread was more serious even than it had been in the spring of 1916, and in April the bread-ration in Prussia was reduced from 4 lbs. to 3 lbs. per week. [See also FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1918; 1916-1918.] [The Imperial Economic Office was set up October 21, 1917, with Freiherr von Stein as minister to handle social, economic and commercial questions.] The financial position of the Empire constituted a problem which gave constant anxiety to both statesmen and people of Germany. . . . The total subscriptions to [the first] five loans amounted to nearly £2,360,000,000. The funds actually subscribed towards the cost of the war . . . fell short of the expenditure by a sum of £800,000,000. In March a sixth War-loan was issued. . . . The loan was a greater success than either the fourth or the fifth War-loan, and the subscription reached the huge total of nearly £660,000,000."—*Annual Register*, 1917, pp. 208, 216.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions: b.

1917.—World War: Diplomatic relations severed with Bolivia (April) and Peru (October). See BOLIVIA: 1917; PERU: 1917.

1917.—World War: Campaign on the western front.—Devastation.—Attempt to acquire Flanders.—Battles along Chemin des Dames.—Champagne.—Cambrai.—Arras.—Ypres and Messines.—Somme.—Verdun. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front; XII. Political conditions; h; FRANCE: 1917-1918 (November-March).

1917.—World War: Campaign on eastern front.—In Baltic Provinces.—Galicia.—Volhynia.—Capture of Riga.—Przemysl.—Lemberg. See WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia, etc.: b; i, 1; k; o; I. Summary: b, 8; RUSSIA: 1917 (October-November).

1917.—World War: Campaigns against Italy.—Isonzo front.—Piave and Asiago regions. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front; d, 2; d, 4; e; e, 7.

1917.—World War: Conquest of Rumania. See WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: d, 1.

1917.—World War: Campaign in East Africa. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VII. East African campaign: a.

1917.—World War: Ruthless submarine warfare.—Hospital ships torpedoed. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: a; b, 5; c;

Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: e.

1917 (January).—World War: Note to neutral nations concerning peace.—Relations with Mexico. See WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: b; MEXICO: 1917-1918; U. S. A.: 1917 (January): Germany declares, etc.

1917 (January).—World War: Declaration of unrestricted submarine warfare.—Barred sea zones for submarine warfare. See U. S. A.: 1917 (January): Germany declares, etc.; WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States: a, 1; a, 2; a, 3.

1917 (February-April).—World War: Diplomatic relations severed with United States.—American declaration of war.—Cuban declaration of war. See U. S. A.: 1917 (February-April); (April): War declared; WORLD WAR: 1917: I. Summary: b, 6; VIII. United States: a; CUBA: 1917 (April).

1917 (July-October).—Clericals and radicals support Socialist peace demands.—Resignation of Bethmann-Hollweg.—Michaelis appointed chancellor.—Constitutional reform movement.—Resignation of Michaelis.—The Reichstag reassembled on July 6 and immediately violent attacks developed against the government's conduct of the war, the onslaught naturally being directed upon the chancellor. Discontent and disappointment marked the public spirit. Not only had the expectations of speedy success from the "ruthless" submarine campaign failed to materialize, but the United States had also joined the ranks of Germany's enemies. The Majority Socialists clamored for a "reasonable peace"; similar aspirations emanated from Austria and struck responsive chords among German Catholics and radicals. Deputy Erzberger demanded peace "without annexations and indemnities," a plea that was repudiated by ministers and Conservatives. Unable to weather the storm of criticism, Bethmann-Hollweg resigned on July 14, after holding office for exactly eight years. He was succeeded by Dr. Georg Michaelis, Food Controller for Prussia, who now combined within himself the offices of imperial chancellor and Prussian premier. "The adoption of constitutional reforms which would secure a relationship of responsible subordination on the part of the government to the people's representatives had long been agitated in Germany by the Social Democratic and Radical parties."—W. J. Shepard, *Internal political situation in Germany (American Political Science Review, Nov., 1917)*.—"The Reichstag . . . set up a special committee to consider electoral and other constitutional changes. . . . The emperor had publicly admitted the necessity of reform, but had insisted upon delay until after the war. The Center party, led by Erzberger, had joined the Radicals and the Social Democrats on a program of 'peace without annexations,' coupled with democratic constitutional reform. Confronted by this hostile bloc, the government had agreed to carry out a reform of the Prussian electoral system before the next elections. And when this concession proved unavailing, Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg . . . [fell] the scapegoat of a government which was trying to stem the tide of public disapproval without actually departing from its policies."—F. A. Ogg, *Political developments in Germany (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1919)*.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: e.

The military authorities had predicted that England would be reduced to submission by ruthless submarine warfare in six months. That prophecy had failed and, in addition, the United States had joined the enemies of Germany. Notwithstanding

the apparent removal of danger from Russia by the "fraternizing" tactics of the Germans among the demoralized Russian armies and revolutionary circles, the discussion of war aims and demands for peace became increasingly clamorous in Germany. The situation in the Reichstag grew beyond control. Erzbergers' "no annexations, no indemnity" speech of July 9 voiced the steadily growing realization that a final, decisive victory resulting in territorial acquisitions lay beyond the range of probability. Five days after the fall of Bethmann-Hollweg, the new chancellor, Michaelis, found himself obliged to accept the following Reichstag resolution, which was carried on July 10 by a majority of about 100 votes: "On the threshold of the fourth year of the war the Reichstag declares: As on August 14, 1914, the truth of the motto remains: 'No desire for conquest actuates us.' Germany took up arms for the defence of her freedom and independence, and to secure the integrity of her territory. Declining all thoughts of the forcible acquisition of territory, the Reichstag strives for a Peace by Agreement, and a permanent reconciliation of the nations. With such a peace, political, economic, and financial oppression are incompatible. The Reichstag also rejects all plans which aim at economic exclusion and enmity between peoples after the war. Only an economic peace, with freedom of the seas, will, after the termination of the war, prepare the ground for permanently friendly relations between the nations. Actuated by these considerations and aims, the Reichstag will vigorously support the institution of international organizations for the strengthening of international law. So long, however, as the hostile governments reject such a peace and threaten Germany and her Allies with schemes for conquest and oppression, the German people are determined unshakably to stand together and to endure, for the defense of their own and their Allies' right to live and to develop. The German people know that united in defense they are invincible." The chancellor declared his adherence to this resolution "as he understood it," upon which the Reichstag passed a war credit of 15,000,000,000 marks and adjourned until October. Meanwhile, Richard von Kühlmann became foreign minister, August 5, 1917. The militarists and industrialists were only temporarily vanquished; they rallied their forces and fostered—or were accused of fostering—an extravagantly reactionary form of patriotism and expressing a contemptuous opinion of the inefficiency and futility of any pacific tendencies among the civil authorities. Disorders and insubordination occurred in the navy; these were ruthlessly suppressed, but the general discontent brought on parliamentary interpellations in October and Michaelis resigned at the end of the month.—See also *WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Political conditions: e.*

1917 (August).—*World War: Declaration of war by China.*—By Liberia. See *CHINA: 1916-1917; 1917; LIBERIA: 1917-1918.*

1917 (August-September).—*World War: Note of Pope Benedict asking peace.*—Speech of Chancellor Michaelis.—Reply to pope. See *WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: g; i; k.*

1917 (October).—*World War: Influence upon American industries.*—Trading with the Enemy Act of United States. See *U. S. A.: 1917 (October): Trading with the Enemy Act.*

1917 (October).—*World War: Diplomatic relations severed with Uruguay.* See *URUGUAY: 1917.*

1917 (November-December).—Hertling ap-

pointed chancellor.—Count von Hertling (1843-1919), an aged ultramontane, former president of the Bavarian council, was now appointed chancellor, accepting only after several days of conferences with various party leaders. When the peace note from the Pope came under discussion, he said the time had not yet come to make known the intentions of Germany in regard to Belgium, but that Germany must have guarantees political and economic that would remove any danger of Belgian hostility. As for Alsace-Lorraine, it was proposed to annex Alsace to Bavaria, Lorraine to Prussia, a scheme hotly denounced by the socialists and those who were now willing to return those lands to France. A relaxation of political censorship and the state of siege was promised, and indeed a furious war of words followed in all quarters on affairs foreign and domestic, socialistic, even Bolshevistic on the one hand as well as monarchical and imperialistic on the other in their diverse tendencies. A prominent feature was the mutual hostility of Prussia and Bavaria, arising largely from von Hertling's appointment.

1917 (December).—*World War: Armistice with Russia.* See *RUSSIA: 1917 (November-December); WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia, etc.: q; q, 2; q, 4; q, 6; I. Summary: b, 13; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: a.*

1918.—*Peace treaty with Finland (March).*—Aid to White Guards.—Possession of Aland islands. See *ALAND ISLANDS: 1917-1919; FINLAND: 1918.*

1918.—*World War: Campaign on western front.*—Battles of Picardy.—St. Quentin.—Drive for Channel Ports.—Lys.—Cantigny.—Drive for Paris.—Château-Thierry.—Belleau Wood.—Second Marne.—Amiens.—The Scarpe.—The Sambre.—Withdrawal of troops from Belgium and France. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front; XI. End of the war: c; BELGIUM: 1918.*

1918.—*World War: Struggle against Esthonians.*—Operations in Russia against Czecho-Slovak army. See *BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: 1918-1919: Struggle against Germans; WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: a, 1.*

1918.—*World War: Campaign in Italy.* See *WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian front: a; b.*

1918.—*World War: Campaign in the Balkans.*—Mesopotamia.—Africa. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: c, 8; i; VI. Turkish theater: a, 3; VII. East African theater: a.*

1918.—*World War: Naval operations.*—Zeebrugge and Ostend.—Surrender of High Seas Fleet. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a; h.*

1918.—*World War: Submarine warfare.*—U-boat methods. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: c, 9; d; g; i.*

1918.—*Prussian reform repudiated.*—Von Kühlmann dismissed.—"During the winter of 1917-18 strikes were organized in Prussia as protest against the dilatory tactics of the government in dealing with electoral reform; but the only reply was a series of arrests of prominent Socialists. In the spring of 1918, indeed, the reform movement seemed to lose ground. . . . Prussian reactionaries repudiated the emperor's pledges and carried, in the lower branch of the Landtag, by a vote of 235 to 183, a bill substituting an absurd six-class electoral system for the promised plan of equal suffrage. Another straw which showed which way the wind was blowing was the dismissal, in July, of foreign secretary von Kühlmann as a punishment for saying publicly Germany could no longer hope for a military victory."—F. A. Ogg, *Political developments in Ger-*

many (*American Political Science Review*, Feb., 1919).

1918.—Financial and economic conditions.—“The financial position of the German Empire at the opening of the year was such as to cause . . . thinking Germans almost to despair. . . . The War Credits voted by Parliament up to the end of 1917 reached the total of £5,450,000,000. This sum was, however, by no means covered by the subscriptions to the seven great War Loans which the Imperial Government had issued. The total subscriptions to these seven loans amounted to about £3,650,000,000. . . . In March subscriptions were opened for the Eighth German War Loan. . . . [But] the mind of Germany was largely concentrated upon the urgent question of food. The country was still very under-nourished, and protests were constantly made against the maintenance of the Blockade by the Allies. Moreover, the conviction that the defeat of the German army was imminent had become widespread. At the beginning of November, therefore, there was a sudden outbreak of a republican movement occurring spontaneously in many parts of the country—a sudden revival of the old spirit of 1848. . . . Outbreaks occurred in the Fleet and at the ports.”—*Annual Register*, 1918, pp. 196, 206.—“Meanwhile the German military and diplomatic collapse was impending. The armies were everywhere being forced back; the invasion of German soil seemed only a question of time; power of resistance was fast ebbing; schemes to divide and weaken the Allies had failed; at home—even on the floor of the Reichstag—the socialists were clamoring for a republic. The end came with unexpected swiftness.”—F. A. Ogg, *Political developments in Germany* (*American Political Science Review*, Feb., 1919).

1918.—Number of trade unions organized. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1848-1918.

1918 (January-February).—World War: Lloyd-George's speech on war aims.—Reply of von Hertling.—Wilson's fourteen points.—Von Hertling's reply.—Wilson's four additional bases for peace. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a; d; f; U. S. A.: 1918 (January); (February).

1918 (March).—World War: Brest-Litovsk Treaty with Russia and Ukraine. See BREST-LITOVSK: Treaties, 1918; RUSSIA: 1918 (March); WORLD WAR: 1918: I. Political survey: a.

1918 (March-November).—Mutiny in the navy.—“In March, 1918, a fugitive German sailor came running into Geneva to knock at the door of the quiet little British Consulate in the Rue Levrier. He brought strange news which he wished to have transmitted post-haste to Whitehall. He told how the German sailors of the High Sea Fleet, sick of the War, sick of the semistarvation, and of the submarine compulsion, but sick most of all of the selfishness, the arrogance, the browbeating and profiteering of their officers, and convinced, moreover, that Germany was not only bound to lose but deserved to lose the War, had determined to seize the High Sea Fleet and take it, hull, gun and hawser, across the North Sea, there to deliver it into the hands of the British admirals. The plot had, at the last moment, failed, and the ringleaders of the mutiny had been shot. . . . Since the Revolution the fact has leaked out that during the War the Independent Socialist Party, in Berlin and other centres, very carefully and methodically registered every grievance soldiers and sailors from time to time laid before them. In both Army and Navy a widespread and cleverly organised campaign was

carried on, in which Junkerdom and the Monarchy were denounced as solely responsible for the outbreak of the War and for the horrible manner in which it was being prolonged. . . . In the last half-year of the War, practically the whole Army became Socialist, while out of 123,000 factory workers, 75,000 were for the Revolution. The knowledge that the Fleet was ready at a given moment to support a rising of the workmen gave to the Revolutionary Party in Berlin just the guarantee it needed to encourage and stimulate it to attempt extreme action. . . . All efforts on the part of the Admiralty to improve the discipline on the High Sea Fleet were in vain. Things went from bad to worse, and on the 2nd of November, 1918, the date on which General Keim wrote in the *Deutsche Tageszeitung* that ‘every hour added new strength to the German front, which was fast approaching technical perfection,’ this insubordination culminated in a mutiny which was destined to give the *coup de grâce* to the German Army. . . . The mutiny spread like wildfire from ship to ship. Although the sailors were kept on board the vessels at anchor and no intercourse permitted with the shore, they managed to exchange Morse messages by means of lights shown from the signal deck and from the portholes, and thus to arrange a concerted plan of action. In some mysterious manner, too, ‘defeatist’ pamphlets were distributed on board the ships, the officers being powerless to prevent their circulation. When on the 30th of October orders were finally given to weigh anchor, it was found, said Captain von Förstner, that on each ship the mutineers had put the capstan apparatus out of gear, and the fleet could not budge. Nor could the crews be pacified except by the countermanding of the order to sail. . . . By the 5th of November almost all the ships, both at Kiel and at Wilhelmshaven, were flying the red flag of the coming Socialist Republic. On the 6th of November, as a last appeal to the men's patriotism, orders were once more given to put to sea, on the ground that British ships were off the German coast. In response only two small cruisers, the *Königsberg* and the *Köln*, and half a torpedo-boat flotilla under Captain Harder obeyed; needless to say they returned without having got into touch with the enemy. ‘From this moment the German Navy ceased to be.’ . . . Of the 80,000 naval ratings and marines that according to Noske's computation were then in Kiel, the majority were already in open rebellion while the remainder were at best passive. Not an officer dared show his nose in street or barrack. To try to quell the mutiny in such circumstances by force of arms would have been sheer folly. A whole army corps, at the very least, would have been needed for the task. . . . The German Government had imagined that Germans were immune from *défaïtisme*. The famous sealed train in which Germany sent Lenin and his comrades across the Vistula into Russia will stand in history as a modern parallel to the story of the Trojan Horse. With grim humour, after Brest-Litovsk, Russia answered with a similar device, sending . . . Joffe to Berlin with millions of roubles in his purse with which in its turn to debauch the proletariat of the State that had debauched Russia. Germany's General Staff, blind till it was too late, permitted the trick. . . . The extreme Left wing of the Independents, known as Spartacists, turned for their inspiration to Russian sources. The term Spartacist, first used in 1916, was specially applied to the disciples of Spartacus, the anonymous author of the typewritten and secretly distributed political letters, the first of which was issued on the Em-

peror's birthday in 1916. By the August of that year it was known that Spartacus was none other than Karl Liebknecht. The letters were afterwards surreptitiously published in pamphlet form, and used for propaganda purposes. They contained very sharp attacks on the Majority Socialists, whom they accused of being the willing tools of the Imperial Government."—F. S. Delmer, *History of the German revolution (Nineteenth Century and After, Mar., 1920)*.

1918 (May).—World War: Treaty of Bucharest signed. See BUCHAREST, TREATY OF.

1918 (July).—World War: War declared by Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1918 (July).

1918 (September-October).—World War: Appeal to President Wilson for peace.—Notes regarding peace terms.—Acceptance of terms for armistice. See U. S. A.: 1918 (September-November); WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: m; p; q; r.

1918 (October-November).—Prince Maximilian, last imperial chancellor.—"Efforts to force the government's hand . . . led to the chancellor's [von Hertling's] retirement. The successor was another south German, Prince Maximilian, heir to the grand-ducal throne of Baden, who . . . entered office with a reputation for liberal views. In the new ministry were included three socialists, one of them, Philipp Scheidemann, without portfolio."—F. A. Ogg, *Political developments in Germany (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1910)*.

1918 (November).—Revolution.—Abdication of William II.—Provisional government.—Armistice with Allies signed.—Controversy between Council of Commissars and Executive Committee.—Social Democrats eliminate Independents.—Councils or Soviet system rejected.—Council of Commissars strengthened.—"During that week [Nov. 4-9] in Germany the mutterings of the storm of revolution were growing louder. Some issued heated appeals for a patriotic closing up of ranks in a last stand against the coming disaster; others attempted to make a scapegoat of the unhappy Ludendorff; but everywhere was apparent a rising anger against the Emperor and the Imperial House. He had fled to the army, but the army was in no case to protect him. The Social Democrats in the Government, led by Scheidemann, were clamoring for his instant abdication, and they had the support of the great mass of the people. Everywhere there reigned a frantic fear of invasion, especially in Bavaria, where the collapse of Austria made the populace expect to see at any moment the victorious Italians in their streets; and invasion was no cheerful prospect to Germany when she remembered her own method of conducting it, and reflected that for four years she had been devastating the lands and torturing the peoples of the Powers now marching to her borders. Strange things, too, were happening within her own confines. In the first days of November the stage had been set for a great sea battle. Her High Seas Fleet was ordered out, but it would not move. The dry-rot, which had been growing during the four years' inaction, had crumbled all its discipline. 'Der Tag' had come, but not that joyous day which her naval officers had toasted. She had broken the unwritten laws of the deep sea, and she was now to have her reward. On 4th November the red flag was hoisted on the battleship *Kaiser*. The mutiny spread to the Kiel shipyards and workshops, where there had always been a strong Socialist element; a Council of soldiers, sailors, and workmen was formed; and the mutineers captured the barracks, and took possession of the town. The trouble

spread like wildfire to Hamburg, Bremen, Lubeck, and adjacent ports, and it was significant that in every case the soldiers and sailors took the lead. Deputations of Social Democrats were sent down post-haste by the Government, and succeeded in temporarily restoring order, but the terms on which peace was made were the ruin of the old régime. In Cologne, in Essen, and in other industrial centers there were grave disturbances, and everywhere the chief outcry was against the Emperor and the Hohenzollerns. He who had been worshipped as a god, because he was the embodiment of a greater Germany, was now reviled by a nation disillusioned of dreams of greatness. At the same time the Empire was dissolving in its periphery. The Polish deputies from Posen and Silesia seceded from the Reichstag and Schleswig demanded liberation. It was hard to tell where in Germany the seat of power now lay. On the 5th the Army Command invited to Headquarters representatives of the majority parties in the Reichstag to discuss the next step, and search was made for military officers who might be least unacceptable to the Allies. On that day the Government at Washington transmitted to Germany, through Switzerland, the last word on the matter of negotiations. This Note gave the reply of America's Allies to the correspondence which had been formally submitted to them. They had accepted the President's Fourteen Points as a basis of peace with two provisos: first, they reserved their own liberty of action on the question of the freedom of the seas, since that phrase was open to so many interpretations; second, by the word 'restoration' in the case of invaded territories, they declared that they understood 'compensation by Germany for all damage done to the civilian population of the Allies, and to their property by the aggression of Germany by land, by sea, and from the air.' President Wilson signified his assent to these provisos, and announced that Marshal Foch had been authorized by all the Allies to receive properly accredited representatives of the German Government, and to communicate to them the terms of an armistice."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war, v. 24, pp. 64-66*.—See also U. S. A.: 1918 (September-November); WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: t; XI. End of the war: a; a, 6; a, 7; a, 9; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: f.—"The revolution was actually accomplished through a general strike of factory workers. The truth seems to be that the majority party (and probably many of the leading minority or independent socialists) were, even as late as November 6, opposed to any revolutionary action, but as the military situation became more desperate, they attempted to compromise by insisting upon such drastic steps as the abdication of the kaiser. On November 4 and 6, the Majority paper *Vorwärts* was urgently appealing to the workers and warning them against agitators, flyspecks, Bolshevism, and 'Russian conditions,' or, in one word, revolution. Then, suddenly, the socialist papers began to demand the kaiser's abdication. Even on the morning of Friday, November 8, the Socialist ministers, Ebert and Scheidemann, seem to have thought it possible that the revolution might be staved off by the kaiser's resignation, and they issued . . . [an ultimatum to Prince Max's government, demanding among other requirements the kaiser's abdication]. This ultimatum was to expire on Friday mid-day; as a matter of fact, the time was extended until Friday midnight. But in the interval events moved with great rapidity; and when, in the 'early hour' of Saturday morning, the kaiser at last consented to retire into Holland, it

was no longer merely a question of the resignation of socialist ministers, but of revolution. On Saturday morning many workers struck work spontaneously. . . . *Vorwärts* issued a flysheet calling a general strike. A few hours were sufficient for accomplishing the 'bloodless revolution.' . . . Prince Max handed over the chancellorship to the socialist Friedrich Ebert and announced the abdication of the kaiser. But the kaiser, himself waited for nineteen days in Holland before signing his formal act of abdication [on November 28]—*Documentary history of the German revolution (International Conciliation, Apr., 1919)*.—See also SOCIALISM: 1912-1918; 1918-1919: German revolution.—In every state uprisings occurred at once and the reigning princes either abdicated or were deposed. "While the Empire was collapsing there arose quickly on the ruins of the old edifice a new structure. In place of the Empire, the government of a bourgeois and military oligarchy, came the dictatorship of the proletarian masses at one blow, the republic of the working class. Everywhere Councils of Workers and Soldiers were formed, which, taking political power in their hands, appeared to be thereafter the only and real holders of sovereignty. But the Councils lacked the needed agreement in aim and action. Two diametrically opposed tendencies divided the new powers in control. On the one hand the members of the Social Democratic party within the Councils pursued a purely political goal—the creation of a German republic on a democratic basis to be effected by a Constituent Assembly to be convoked as soon as possible. On the other hand the Independent Socialists, the Communists, the Spartacists and other left wing elements set up as the principal aim an economic change—the quick and complete socialization of all means of production. But they also had in view a political objective, the establishment of a dictatorship of the proletariat on the model of the Russian Soviet Republic, by the complete organization of the system of Councils of Workers and Soldiers. The particular question on which the antagonism between these two groups broke out was whether or not there should be called a new constituent assembly. The revolution was undoubtedly the work of the Independents. Their leader, Ernest Daumig, had been to Moscow to study the Bolshevik movement, and Russia had come back with him in the persons of Joffe and his agents of propaganda. Already during the strikes of January, 1918, which had been organized by them, there had appeared for the first time in Germany Workers' Councils; and in the days preceding the insurrection of November, 1918, Councils of Workers and Soldiers had been secretly organized at Kiel as well as in Berlin. The Social Democrats, on the other hand, to the last moment warned the people against the consequences of an ill-considered insurrection. But when the success of the revolts seemed assured it was seen that many who had condemned it were now joining it. Thanks to Maximilian of Baden it was the Social Democrats, Ebert and Scheidemann and the trade unions that were installed in power on the 9th of November, 1918. The history of the German revolution is the story of a revolution made by one political group and its fruits garnered by another. At first the two Socialist parties divided power equally. But after several weeks of collaboration the Social Democrats eliminated the Independents and remained in sole control of the government. . . . On the 9th of November early in the afternoon Ebert had received from the former Imperial cabinet his functions of Chancellor of the Empire. He considered himself

such at the time. His intention was to nominate Scheidemann and Landsberg as secretaries of state, but to keep in the cabinet the old state secretaries; in addition to which the Independent Socialists were to enter the government. He proclaimed immediately several decrees signed, Chancellor of the Empire, Ebert.' . . . The Independents submitted as the condition of their entry into the government the following twofold demand: The cabinet was to consist only of socialists, and it was to recognize officially that political sovereignty resided in the hands of the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils. The next day the Social Democrats accepted these conditions—for the Independents were still the actual power in control and 'the street belonged to them'—and a government of six chiefs was constituted. It comprised three Socialist Democrats, Ebert, Scheidemann and Landsberg, and three Independents, Haase, Dittmann and Barth. In the evening [of Nov. 9] there was held at the Busch Circus a plenary session of the Workers and Soldiers Councils of Berlin. This assembly passed a resolution which declared among other things the following: 'Old Germany is no more. The dynasties are gone forever. The holders of thrones are stripped of their power. Germany is now a Republic, a Socialist Republic. The Workers and Soldiers Councils are now the holders of political power.' Then the assembly nominated an executive committee (Vollzugsrat) of twenty-four members, six Social Democrats, six Independents, and twelve Soldiers, and they proclaimed as the men in control of the government the six named above. Following this meeting the cabinet was constituted. It formed a 'college' of which all the members had equal rights and which took the name of 'Council of Commissars of the People' (Rat der Volksbeauftragten); Ebert and Haase were nominated chairmen. All the decrees of the government would have to be promulgated by these two in accord and signed jointly by them. It was, so to speak, a Chancellorship of two. The Council of Commissars of the People thus found itself invested with political power by the General Assembly of the Councils of Workers and Soldiers of Berlin. Making immediate use of its power the Council of Commissars issued on November 12, 1918, a proclamation which constituted a declaration of rights of the new régime."—R. Brunet, *New German constitution*, pp. 16-19.—The proclamation is as follows: "(1) The state of siege is abolished. (2) The right of association and meeting is subject to no limitations, not even for officials and state workers. (3) The censorship ceases to exist. The censorship of plays is abolished. (4) Expression of opinion, whether by word of mouth or in writing, is free. (5) Freedom of religious practice is guaranteed. No one shall be compelled to perform any religious act. (6) An amnesty is granted for all political punishments. Trials now proceeding for such crimes are quashed. (7) The Law of (compulsory) National Auxiliary Service is abolished with the exception of the provisions referring to the settlement of disputes. (8) The Domestic Services Decrees become null and void; also the Exceptional Laws against rural workers. (9) The laws protecting Labor, which were abandoned at the beginning of the war, are herewith restored. . . . On January 1, 1919, at latest, the Eight-Hour Day will come into force. The Government will do all that is possible to secure sufficient opportunities of work. . . . In the sphere of sickness insurance the insurance obligation will be increased beyond the present limit of 2,500 Marks. [See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Recent: 1919-1921: Later health insurance.] The housing difficulty will be

dealt with by the building of houses. Efforts will be made to secure regular feeding of the people. The Government will maintain orderly production, will protect property against private interference, as well as the freedom and security of individuals. All elections to public bodies are immediately to be carried out according to the equal, secret, direct, and universal franchise on the basis of proportional representation for all male and female persons of not less than 20 years of age; this franchise also holds for the Constituent Assembly, concerning which more detailed orders will follow."—*Documentary history of the German revolution (International Conciliation, Apr., 1919)*.—But "the first act of the provisional government was to accept the conditions of the armistice, November 11. Its next tasks, according to announcement, would be to negotiate peace and inaugurate economic reconstruction. Meanwhile it proposed also to arrange for a constitutional convention to work out for the former empire, as soon as conditions permitted, a permanent and democratic system of government."—F. A. Ogg, *Political developments in Germany (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1919)*.

"Difficulties arose soon between The Council of Commissars of the People and the Executive Committee of the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils of Berlin. Each of these two bodies considered itself the chief holder of sovereignty and launched proclamations issuing orders. It became absolutely necessary to put precise limits to their respective powers. That was the object of an agreement reached by these two bodies November 22, 1918. According to the terms of this agreement sovereignty belonged wholly to the Executive Committee. The Council of Commissars was to exercise executive power under the permanent control of the Executive Committee. The latter had the power to nominate or recall members of the Council of Commissars. In reality the situation was somewhat different; for the Council of Commissars exercised to some extent legislative powers according to which it claimed the right to issue decrees that had the force of laws. For a month the two bodies worked in this accord. Collisions occurred, of course. The functionaries of the old régime endured impatiently the supervision of the Councils of Workers and Soldiers. Inflaming rumours circulated of the extravagance with which these Councils managed the public finances. Worst of all was the increasing opposition that developed all over the country to the Executive Committee of Workers' and Soldiers' Councils, which, consisting exclusively of Berlin members, claimed to represent the Councils of all Germany and which acted in effect as though it were delegated by the Councils of the whole country. The fact that on November 23 this Executive Committee had added to itself a certain number of delegates of Workers' and Soldiers' Councils of states other than Prussia, delegates who had authority to deliberate in matters that concerned all of Germany, did not strengthen the position of the Executive Committee. Meanwhile, however, its machinery appeared to be functioning. In the struggle that ensued among socialists, the Social Democrats brought to their side the support first of individual states, then that of a general Congress of Workers' and Soldiers' Councils. From November 10 Ebert and his party showed an increasing determination to call a constituent assembly. However, they did not attempt to act upon it at once, being restrained by the strength that still lay in the hands of the Councils. But on November 25 under the name of 'the conference of German Federated States'

there was held at Berlin a meeting of representatives of the revolutionary governments of several states. It was presided over by the Commissar of the People, Ebert. Speaking of the forthcoming constitution, Ebert declared, 'The system of collaboration between the government of the Reich and the Federated States, which should be very definitely specified, must be established by a National Assembly. The government has firmly resolved to call this National Assembly with the least delay. Till then nothing but a provisional agreement can be effected between the Reich and the States.' In the course of the discussion the most conflicting opinions possible were expressed; but finally the immense majority of the delegates present adopted the following two-fold resolution: 'It is to a National Assembly that the power of establishing the constitution of the Reich should be entrusted. Till such a time, however, the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils are the representatives of the will of the people.' Strengthened by this decision the Council of the Commissars of the People promulgated on November 30 a decree for the election of a National Assembly. It was the general congress of Workers' and Soldiers' Councils at its meetings in Berlin from December 16 to 20, more than any other factor, that gave the Social Democrats the opportunity they had been seeking to disembarass themselves of the Executive Committee of the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils of Berlin; and by this means to deliver a decisive blow at the system of Councils as a whole. The Social Democrats had an overwhelming majority in this congress and the delegates, well disciplined and little familiar with parliamentary debate, carried out punctiliously the instructions which had been given them by the official spokesmen. The congress passed a number of important resolutions. . . . On December 19 by a vote of 334 against 98 the congress rejected the motion made by Däumig that 'under all circumstances the Councils system shall be adhered to as the basis of the Socialist Republic in the sense that the Councils shall possess supreme legislative, executive and judiciary powers.' . . . The congress, which declared itself invested with complete political power, delegated legislative and executive power to the Council of Commissars of the People up to the time the National Assembly convened. Further, it nominated a central committee (Zentralrat) of the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils of Germany, consisting of twenty-seven members which was to exercise parliamentary control over the German and Prussian cabinets; that is to say, according to the official explanation of Commissar of the People Haase, all projects of law must be submitted by the Council of the Commissars of the People to the Central Committee and discussed by them. The Central Committee had the right to appoint and recall Commissars of the People for Prussia and for the Reich. Finally the Council of the Commissars of the People was to appoint to each Secretary of State two delegates, a Social Democrat and an Independent, who would be charged with the conduct of affairs within the ministries. As for the Executive Committee of the Workers' and Soldiers' Councils of Berlin it was limited by the congress to authority only in matters pertaining to the Berlin group."—R. Brunet, *New German constitution, pp. 19-23*.—See also SOCIALISM: 1018-1019.

1918 (November).—Imperial labor department created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1015-1019.

1918 (November).—Proclamation of Polish People's Republic. See POLAND: 1918.

1918 (November-December).—Collapse of the German army.—Armistice.—Return of troops.—“Red” and “Citizen” armies.—“Green Guard.”—Appointment of Brockdorff-Rantzau.—“As soon as the Armistice was signed many of the German troops started a mad scramble to reach their homes. Even the hastily elected Soldiers’ Council could not restrain them. Pitiably sights were to be seen at the stations as the trainloads of soldiers arrived from the fronts. Hundreds of those who had climbed on to the roofs of the trains, all other space being occupied, were swept off and mutilated in the tunnels. And what a home-coming for those who did get back! They had been sent away by cheering crowds, with music, with fine ladies throwing flowers to them. They returned in disgrace. There was no pretence of a reception; except for a few relatives, who waited hour after hour at the stations, Berlin ostentatiously ostracised her soldiers. Several days passed before the Provisional Government realised its mistake in discouraging civic welcomes for the returning troops. Then it was too late. This negligence and lack of understanding of the peculiar mood of the men from the front were great factors in the cause of the attempted real revolution. The only people alive to the possibilities of the occasion were the Spartacists. As the soldiers crawled from the trains, hungry and ill from nights of exposure, they were met by agents, and, unless they joined the Red Army, in most cases sold their arms for a few marks and a square meal. . . . In this way thousands of rifles and machine-guns were obtained and stored away by the Spartacists. Some of the older men, on reading the appeal from the Russian Bolsheviks to retain their weapons, did so and went home to wait events. A week after the signing of the Armistice there were seventy thousand armed troops in Berlin, men bitterly resentful of the treatment accorded them. Members of the Bourgeoisie, thinking that all danger was passed, went out of their way to show their scorn for the groups of miserable, unkempt soldiers. The awakening came with the news of the rapid formation of a ‘Red Army.’ The movement was well afoot before the attention of the Provisional Government could be diverted from its petty squabbles for places to the serious turn the situation had taken. The measures adopted to meet the emergency were momentarily successful. Large white placards were posted about the town calling for recruits for a ‘Citizen Army.’ Pay and conditions were, for that period, exceedingly generous. I watched hundreds of young soldiers, anxious to obtain the colossal sum of eleven marks and various valuable privileges, surge through the gates at the War Office to enrol in the ‘White Army.’ Those who were refused walked over to the Reds, who were recruiting in the Französischestrasse. This ‘Citizen Army’ was really the nucleus of Noske’s notorious ‘Green Guard,’ and was mainly composed of unscrupulous mercenaries. Although the temptations to join the new force were great, the organisers of the Red Guard still continued to get recruits—even though they did not raise the pay, two marks a day with uncertain ration allowances. The Government took further precautions against disorder. . . . The next troops to arrive at the station were surprised to find a grand reception awaiting them! There was little food, but at least there was a welcome which dispelled much of the bitterness which had caused many of their comrades to become Red Guards. At the station they made an earnest attempt to brighten up their worn-out uniforms and battered equipment. They responded to the well-dressed crowds, who, over-night, had

decided to cheer them. By the time they passed the Reichstag and under the Victory horses, headed by a really wonderful band which repeated ‘Deutschland über Alles’ many times, they were transformed from the serious disappointed men of whom revolutionaries are made to their old docile selves. To disarm them and send them to their homes was now a comparatively simple matter. . . . After the ‘Revolution’ had been accepted by all classes in Berlin the city became almost barren of important incident. It was amusing to read accounts in German newspapers of how the Revolution had ‘blazed through the land withering up all opposition in its path.’”—P. Brown, *Germany in dissolution*, pp. 57-60.—The question of public order was naturally bound up with that of maintaining discipline in the army. The lesson of the Russian revolution was not lost upon the new German government, which issued the following telegram to the High Command: “If single troops stream back at their own pleasure, they place themselves, their comrades, and their homes in the greatest danger. The consequences would necessarily be chaos, famine, and want. The People’s Government expects of you the strictest self-discipline in order to avoid immeasurable calamity. We desire the High Command to inform the army in the field of this declaration of the People’s Government, and to issue the following orders: (1) The relations between officer and rank and file are to be built up on mutual confidence. Prerequisites to this are willing submission of the ranks to the officer, and comradely treatment by the officer of the ranks. (2) The officer’s superiority in rank remains. Unqualified obedience in service is of prime importance for the success of the return home to Germany. Military discipline and army order must therefore be maintained under all circumstances. (3) The Soldiers’ Councils have an advisory voice in maintaining confidence between officer and rank and file in questions of food, leave, the infliction of disciplinary punishments. Their highest duty is to try to prevent disorder and mutiny. (4) The same food for officers, officials, and rank and file. (5) The same bonuses to be added to the pay, and the same allowances for service in the field for officers and rank and file. (6) Arms are to be used against members of our own people only in case of self-defence and to prevent robberies.” By the middle of December the foreign minister, Dr. Solf, resigned and was succeeded by Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, who had previously been German minister at Copenhagen.

1918 (December).—World War: Amount of aircraft development during war. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IV. Aviation: b.

1918 (December).—Cost of the war.—Property loss.—Casualties. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: a; b, 3; b, 4.

1918 (December).—Return of Allied property taken in war.—A Reuter’s dispatch of December 5 stated that “the Germans, in conformity with the Armistice Treaty, have begun the restitutions demanded by the Allies. The sum of 300,000,000 francs exacted from the Russian Treasury has already been handed over by the German military authorities to the Allied governments, who will take care of it until the conclusion of peace. The Germans are every day restoring works of art stolen in the invaded territories. Those taken in the occupied regions which the Germans have already returned are valued at 2,000 million francs.”

1918-1919 (December-January). — Workers’ revolution. — Government crisis. — Spartacist movement.—“No sooner had the political revolu-



tion been accomplished than a movement began to crown it by a social and industrial revolution. This movement takes two important forms: a demand for control of industry by workers, and a demand for the introduction of the Russian Soviet system in some form and the recognition of the Workers' Councils as part of the constitutional machinery of the country."—*Conditions in Germany (International Review, Aug., 1919)*.—"Christmas week of 1918 in Berlin was a bloody one. A detachment of marines which had installed itself in the royal castle and had refused to leave it in spite of the orders of the government of Prussia had tried to capture Commissars of the People, Ebert and Landsberg, to keep them as hostages against the non-payment of wages due them. Their attempt failed and troops were summoned by the government to force the sailors to leave the castle. Bloody fights ensued in Berlin which lasted till Christmas. These events produced a crisis in the government. On December 29 the Independents, Haase, Dittmann, and Barth, resigned from the Council of the Commissars of the People; whereupon the remaining three Commissars immediately handed their resignations to the Central Committee. The latter reappointed the three Social Democrats and completed the Government by adding to them three new Commissars, all Social Democrats, Noske, Wissel, Löbe. Löbe declined and his post remained vacant; but Noske and Wissel entered the Government. Scheidemann replaced Haase as co-president with Ebert. The Independents and the Communists made another attempt. On January 3, the Independents who had entered the Government of Prussia handed in their resignations. But Eichhorn, since the revolution president of the Berlin police, refused to resign his powers and, being recalled, refused to relinquish his post. That was the signal for a veritable insurrection which had been called, not without reason, 'the second revolution.' Troops of Spartacists met in bloody encounters in the streets with the troops of Noske."—R. Brunet, *New German constitution*, pp. 23-24.

1918-1920.—Health and old-age insurance.—Maternity grants. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1918-1920.

1918-1920.—New balance of power.—Re-adjustment of states. See EUROPE: Modern: New balance of power.

1918-1920.—Effects of World War on condition of Jews.—Anti-Semitic feeling. See JEWS: Germany: 1914-1920.

1918-1920.—Politico-geographical re-arrangement.—"Almost immediately after the revolution the two small states of Reuss (elder and younger lines) united; and a movement was started for creating a state of 'Great Thuringia' to embrace eight of the small states of central Germany and an important segment of Prussian territory with the Prussian city of Erfurt as capital. Both Prussia and Erfurt interposed violent opposition, and the project as a whole was abandoned. The state of Thuringia was nevertheless formed by the union of seven states—Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Altenburg, Reuss (the two branches having previously united), Saxe-Gotha (not including Coburg), Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, and Saxe-Meiningen. The consolidation of these states was effected by a 'treaty.' Their consent having thus been given the state of Thuringia was recognized by an 'ordinary law' of the Reich of April 30, 1920. Shortly after the war Coburg detached itself from the Duchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha without any legal sanction. On October 30, 1919, the question of whether this 'irregular'

state should unite with Bavaria or with the new state of Thuringia, then in the making, was overwhelmingly decided by the voters of Coburg in favor of union with Bavaria. On March 11, 1920, the Bavarian government consented, and the union was legalized by an ordinary law of the Reich of April 30, 1920. The former German Empire consisted of twenty-five units exclusive of the Imperial Territory of Alsace-Lorraine. The Reich now consists of eighteen units; for counting Reuss as two states, seven of the old states merged into the new state of Thuringia, while an eighth state (Saxe-Coburg-Gotha) disappeared partly into Thuringia and partly into Bavaria. In net result, therefore, the constitutional provisions for the alteration of state boundaries and entities have, for the present at least, left the huge territory of Prussia unaffected."—H. L. McBain and L. Rogers, *New constitutions of Europe*, p. 67.

1918-1922.—Work of American relief administration. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Trade union statistics. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1919.—Relief work done by Quakers. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American Friends.

1919.—Internal reforms.—Censorship abolished.—Woman suffrage granted. See CENSORSHIP: World War; SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: Germany: 1919.

1919.—Emigration problem. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Germany: 1850-1919.

1919 (January).—Revolution.—Spartacists.—Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg.—"We come now to the Revolution of January. Who prepared it? At whose command was it unleashed? Who directed it? The Sparticides say that the impulse to it came from *agents provocateurs*. The Government needed riots in order to get rid of Liebknecht, Rosa Luxemburg, Eichorn, Ledebour, and all the others who were embarrassing it. Ebert and Scheidemann demanded the dismissal of Eichorn. This move was made to provoke the working people, who all wanted to have him kept in office as Prefect of Police. Big demonstrations took place on Sunday, January 5th. The general strike was proclaimed the following day. The manifestations continued. Most of those taking part in them were former soldiers who had retained their arms. The bourgeois newspapers, accused of misleading public opinion in order to sustain the Majority Government, or even the ancient régime, had exasperated the people. Suddenly their wrath was turned against these newspapers. The offices of the latter were seized and barricaded. It was decided that they should hereafter appear under the auspices of the people. It was hoped that no blood would flow. Large placards bore the words: 'Brothers, don't fire!' But the *agents provocateurs* interfered. Shots were heard; men fell. The situation remained confused during the first half of the week. But Noske entered the Government. Troops flowed in. Machine guns, mine throwers, and cannon were put in position. On Sunday, the 12th, the Sparticides realized that further resistance was hopeless. Those of them in the *Vorwaerts* building sent six unarmed envoys to treat with the besiegers. These envoys were assassinated and the massacres continued. Liebknecht was always opposed to brute force. But once carried away by the crowd, he had resolved to make one supreme effort to disarm German militarism. That militarism strangled the popular uprising. Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg then took refuge in a friendly house in Wilmersdorf, in the western

section of Berlin. They continued to see some loyal friends there and to publish *Die Rothe Fahne*. On the 15th, about five o'clock in the afternoon, the house was surrounded by the bourgeois guard of Wilmersdorf and the two revolutionaries were arrested. Liebknecht was taken to a school-house in the suburb, whence his captors asked for instructions from the Hotel Eden. This hotel was the headquarters of the Cavalry Corps of the Guard, which had taken a very prominent part in suppressing the Sparticide revolt. At nine o'clock some officers of the bourgeois guard of Wilmersdorf took Liebknecht in an auto to the Hotel Eden. Rosa Luxemburg followed him half an hour later. The two famous revolutionaries were never to see each other again. [Both were killed by soldiers the same day.]—M. Berger, *Germany after the armistice*, pp. 244-



FRIEDRICH EBERT

First President of the German Republic

246.—Again, in Berlin, the general strike of March was directed towards a realization of these Spartacist aims. It culminated in an agreement between the government and the strikers by which the government recognized the soviet system by undertaking that the workers' councils should be an integral part of, or incorporated in, the constitution. "As yet, the scheme agreed upon between the Scheidemann Cabinet and a Delegation from the Berlin Soviet (in which at that time the 'Majority' socialists were leading) exists only in outline. It is a promise that the constitution shall recognize, or set up (1) Works' Committees representing all workers and employes in every factory, mine, &c.; (2) Industrial Councils in every trade of the 'Whitley' type, to regulate the general conditions of production, representing both employers and workers. (3) Chambers of Work, representing employers, the professions, and the workers of all trades in definite territorial districts; and (4) Chamber of Work for the whole

German Realm, with a right of suggestion and consultation on all industrial and social-political legislation."—H. N. Brailsford, *Soviet idea in Germany* (*New Republic*, Aug. 6, 1919).—"Another serious crisis confronted Ebert when the moderate Bavarian Government under Herr Hoffmann was suddenly ousted. Hoffmann and his colleagues had been running Bavaria as a semi-independent entity, but they showed their belief in a centralized Germany by appealing to Ebert for help against the Reds who had ousted them. Gustav Noske, Ebert's Minister of Defense, who had suppressed the Spartacan uprising in Berlin by the most drastic methods, took a hand in the Bavarian trouble and acted with such energy that the Bavarian Reds were soon crushed and Hoffmann back in Munich."—*New York Times*, May 18, 1919.—See also SOCIALISM: 1912-1918; 1918-1919: German revolution; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1918-1921.

1919 (January-June).—Election for national assembly.—Prussian constituent assembly.—Seat of new parliament at Weimar.—Election of Friedrich Ebert as president.—"For a moment it seemed that Germany was about to split into pieces and sink down into the chaos of ruin and disorder into which Russia had just gone before her. But the strong and solid qualities of the German people reasserted themselves; the disorders were suppressed; the separatist movements were checked; and in place of the German Empire there presently appeared a federation of republics much like the United States of America, except that constitution and organization were socialized, less, indeed, than in Russia, but more thoroughly than anywhere else in the world. [See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Modern.] In the midst of national disorganization and disaster, liable for an indemnity of vast and indefinite amount, this government maintained itself with increasing difficulty. It probably had the support of most of the German people for the time, but it was constantly threatened on the one side by reactionaries and *Junkers*, who hoped to see the older forms soon restored, and on the other by radicals and 'Spartacides,' or extreme communists, who wanted a complete revolution, more like the one in Russia."—E. R. Turner, *Europe*, pp. 503-504.—A general election for the new National Assembly was held on January 19, with the following results:

German National People's Party (Conservative) .....	42
German People's Party (National Liberal) .....	21
Christian People's Party (Centrist) .....	88
German Democratic Party (Bourgeois) .....	75
Majority Social Democratic Party .....	163
Independent Social Democratic Party .....	21
Others (mostly Spartacist) .....	11

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The elections for the Prussian Constituent Assembly were held on January 26, with results closely resembling those for the National Assembly. "It was arranged that the new German Parliament should sit in Weimar, not in Berlin. It was thought that public sentiment would be averse from constituting Berlin as the legislative capital of the new republic, since that city was all too reminiscent of the disastrous Hohenzollern régime. The session was opened on February 6, and the sitting was held in the well-known National Theatre, this building being, however, very imperfectly adapted for a legislature. . . . On February 11, Friedrich Ebert, Socialist [a saddler by trade], was elected President of Germany by the National





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- THURINGIAN STATES**
- 2 Reuss-Greiz
  - 3 Reuss-Schleiz
  - 4 Saxe-Altenburg
  - 5 Saxe-Coburg
  - 6 Gotha
  - 7 Saxe-Meinungen
  - 8 Saxony (Saxe-Weimar Eisenach)
  - 9 Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt
  - 9 Schwarzburg-Sondershausen

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Assembly [by a vote of 277 out of 397].—*Annual Register*, 1919, p. 203.—A cabinet of fourteen members was formed at the same time, with Philip Scheidemann, socialist, as premier and Count von Brockdorff-Rantzau as foreign minister. To this government fell the onerous task of extricating Germany from the dire consequences of defeat.

1919 (January-December).—Paris Conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work.

1919 (May).—Thuringia republic formed by merging of two Reuss principalities. See REUSS.

1919 (May 7).—Peace terms of Allied and Associated Powers presented to the German delegates at the Trianon Palace Hotel, Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF.

1919 (June 28).—Treaty of Versailles signed.—Conditions imposed on Germany by treaty. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF.

1919 (June).—Scuttling of German warships at Scapa Flow. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: d.

1919 (June-July).—German attitude toward peace terms.—Fall of Scheidemann cabinet.—New ministry under Bauer.—When the terms of peace dictated by the Allies became known to the German people a wave of consternation swept over the country. The heavy losses in colonial and national territory, plus the vast sums claimed as reparations for damage committed during the war, were regarded as an excessive and vindictive penalty and totally at variance with the promises held out by President Wilson's Fourteen Points. The following statements by representative Germans reflect the public attitude: "Prince Lichnowsky: 'I am from Upper Silesia, and I assure you that we are very much disturbed over the question of detaching us from Germany. The population there is Polish in part; but all the cities, all the estates, and all the intellectuals are German. We have been separated from Poland since 1163, and we would be ruined if we should now be cut off from the German market. I have proposed a compromise—that the Allies renounce the Pan-Polish program and that we abandon the Pan-German program. There are no political, economic, or geographical reasons which would justify our union with German Austria. We have no need of aggrandizement. I was against annexations during the war; I am still more against them now.' Count Brockdorff-Rantzau then minister of foreign affairs: 'Peace will depend on the terms which are offered to us. Germany seeks a peace of justice. At this moment she has no idea of revenge, or if such an idea exists, it exists only in the minds of a very small minority. But if the Entente—and particularly France—pursues the policy to which it is committing itself more and more, the idea of revenge will be born again and will never die.' Karl Helfferich, former minister of finance and vice-chancellor: 'The Diet formulated in July, 1917, a proposal for peace without annexations or indemnities. . . . Our enemies don't show the same moderation. France is going to annex Alsace-Lorraine. I don't believe that that separation will be final. A French Alsace, with ninety-five per cent of its population not understanding French, is nonsense. . . . In any case, I don't believe in either the extermination or the enslavement of the German people. We must always be taken into account.'—M. Berger, *Germany after the armistice*, pp. 19, 28, 112-114.—Chancellor Bauer: "The attitude of the German people and the Government is that they are determined to keep the treaty of Versailles, however hard it may be. They desire no policy of revenge, they wish to work. They

will endeavor to fulfill the Treaty paragraph by paragraph with the most conscientious loyalty. But they expect that the Entente will deal fairly with them and make abatements in the Treaty as soon as it becomes evident that it cannot be carried out in its present form. For it must be made clear that, if Germany is to fulfill the Treaty strictly in accordance with the letter, in the manner the conditions of the armistice were applied, it will mean not the commencement of a state of peace, but the continuation of war by political means."—*Political review in Review of the Foreign Press (Economic Review, Jan. 30, 1920)*.—When it was clear that the Allies would insist that the Germans sign the treaty with very little change, the entire Scheidemann cabinet fell and Count Brockdorff-Rantzau resigned. President Ebert called upon Bauer, a well-known majority Socialist, to form a new ministry which he succeeded in doing on June 21. In this as in the preceding cabinet Gustav Noske was minister of defense. "On July 9 the government introduced into the National assembly a bill to ratify the peace treaty, and it was passed through all stages with great rapidity. . . . The treaty of peace having been disposed of, the National assembly turned to the more congenial task of drawing up a permanent constitution for Germany."—*Annual Register*, 1919, pp. 202, 209.

1919 (July).—Education, civil service reform and the high court of justice under the Republican constitution. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General: Germany: Under the republic; CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: Germany; COURTS: Germany: Under the Republican constitution.

1919 (July-August).—Constitution adopted.—Dissolution of the constituent assembly.—"After months of debate the new German Constitution, largely the work of Professor Hugo Preuss, [minister of home affairs in Scheidemann's cabinet] was finally adopted on July 31 and became effective by executive order on August 11, 1919, without being submitted to popular referendum. . . . On August 21, President Ebert was formally sworn into office under the new Constitution, and the Constituent Assembly as such dissolved."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*.—See also GERMANY, CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC.

1919 (August-November).—Political problems.—Disturbances by radicals and monarchists.—Financial legislation.—New taxation laws.—"Throughout the year the government has been confronted by serious political and economic problems. During the autumn a remarkable industrial revival swept over the nation; longer working hours were agreed to, either voluntarily or otherwise, and thus production was greatly increased despite the severe handicap caused by shortage of coal and raw material. To relieve the coal situation all railway passenger transportation was officially suspended from November 4 to 15. Considerable anxiety was manifested by the government on the approach of the anniversary of the revolution, November 9, when radical outbreaks were feared. Due to the drastic precautionary measures taken by Herr Noske, Minister of Defence, a general strike, which had been proclaimed in Berlin, failed to accomplish its purpose; cold weather, a heavy snowfall and the temporary suspension of railway passenger service also helped to paralyze the plans of the extremists. The government was equally annoyed by the monarchists; at a general meeting of the Pan-German League, a reactionary organization, held in Berlin on August 31, a return to monarchy was strongly advocated. The

visit of General von Hindenburg to Berlin during the first part of November was made the occasion for monarchist demonstrations, and the parties of the Left were sufficiently alarmed to issue warning that the commonwealth was in danger. In this connection the Ministry of Education began an investigation of the Nationalists Youth League, the organizers of which were alleged to be monarchists who were poisoning the minds of the boys of Germany with monarchist propaganda for a war of revenge. In financial matters the government successfully secured the passage of important legislation. The parallel forms of taxation which prevailed under the old régime were replaced by a single national income tax and a single property tax; out of the money thus raised the whole expenditure of the commonwealth, federal, state and municipal, will be defrayed. The new regulation defines the amount to be contributed by each individual. Under the old system incomes above 500 marks were taxed without regard to the number of persons in the taxpayer's family; under the new arrangement incomes below 1,000 marks are free from taxation, and an exemption of 500 marks is allowed for the first dependent and 300 marks for each additional dependent thereafter. The measure was vehemently attacked by the Nationalists."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, p. 116.

1919 (September).—United States Senate rejects treaty and adopts "Lodge reservations." See U. S. A.: 1919 (September-November).

1919 (December).—Congress of Independent Socialists.—Communist party formed.—"An important Congress of the Independent Socialists, held at Leipsig during the first week in December, attracted wide attention. The proposal for union of the two socialist parties, which had been agitated for some time by Herr Scheidemann, was rejected by the Independents."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*.—"The Spartacides, about the end of December, [had] held a congress, in the course of which, in order to distinguish themselves from the Independent Socialist, they organized the Communist Party."—M. Berger, *Germany after the armistice*, p. 243.—See also below: 1922 (September-November).

1919-1920.—Question of socialization of industries.—"The controversy over the socialization of industry in Germany began at the very outset of the revolution, and shows no signs as yet of being settled. . . . A memorandum on socialization by Herr Wissell, ex-minister for economics, is 'interesting as indicating the tendencies of thought with regard to the future economic system in Germany. . . . The advanced policy of expropriation proposed in Section VII . . . is the type of socialization now popular in Germany, and consists in the buying up of the financial interests, but not of the management of industrial concerns'."—*Germany: State control of industry (International Review, Sept., 1919, p. 118)*.—The proposal was, however, rejected by the government. "About the end of March the report of the Government Commission on Socialisation was issued . . . with recommendations against the direct state ownership of industry, and in favor of governmentally controlled but internally self-governing syndicates. . . . [Its] recommendations with respect to the coal industry are of peculiar interest. . . . The government has not yet put the plan into practice; but has gone some distance in this direction by taking over control of the coal industry, fixing prices, and giving representation to workers and consumers on the managerial

committee."—M. Booth, *Social reconstruction in Germany*, p. 35.—The tendency towards combination and concentration of capital had become very pronounced. As long ago as 1904 "two . . . immense combinations had been formed in the dye-stuff industry, each including three of the largest six houses. . . . In 1916 the two pre-existing cartels were combined with . . . various smaller companies is one gigantic cartel representing a nationalization of the entire German dye and pharmaceutical industry."—*Report of the alien property custodian on the chemical industry (Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry, Apr., 1919)*.

—See also TRUSTS: Germany: 1920.—"The war, as would naturally be expected, greatly accelerated the already prevailing tendency towards collectivism in Germany. According to the latest report of the Secretary of State, A. Müller, issued in January 1919, 'many of the most comprehensive steps taken in the direction of collectivist organization have proved so useful that their abandonment is not contemplated.'"—M. Booth, *Social reconstruction in Germany*, p. 7.—"As indicative of the community co-operative movement which has developed in late years in Germany, the German press calls attention to the organization of a society among thirty-five towns in Thuringia for the purchase and development of peat beds lying in the Weser basin, south of Bremen. These peat beds will be developed as a source of fuel supply for the towns in the association."—*Commerce Reports, Apr. 17, 1920*.—"One of the results of the war in Germany was to open up an immense field for social experiment. . . . There was often a very close co-operation between municipalities and the various local bodies, such as trades-unions, churches, chambers of commerce, building societies, credit banks, etc. In this way the importance of the municipality as a focus of social effort and organization received a very powerful impetus. . . . The principle throughout was to call forth local effort by means of a policy of decentralization. This applied to the whole sphere of relief work and social organization for 'welfare' purposes. The various cities and districts elaborated quite different methods for dealing, for example, with unemployment, housing, credit and the provision of coal and clothing. . . . Even before the war, as is well-known, Germany had made long strides in the direction of the collectivist type of social life; and the real significance of these developments is that they constitute another and most decisive stage in the same movement."—M. Booth, *Social reconstruction in Germany*, pp. 7-9.

ALSO IN: W. H. Dawson, *What is wrong with Germany?*—Idem, *Municipal life and government in Germany*.

1919-1920.—Economic difficulties.—Reduction of productivity.—Unemployment.—Underfeeding.—Population question.—Financial situation.—Germany suffered severely financially, industrially, and economically from the war and its aftermath. The nation's phenomenal growth industrially had been inextricably bound up with her expanding commercialism abroad, and was dependent on her production of iron and coal. The ores from Lorraine and the Saar basin, the Silesian coalfields with their related industries, and a large share of the rolling stock of the country, were taken from Germany as a result of the Treaty of Versailles. The deprivation of her colonies closed many of her commercial establishments abroad and rendered the progress of foreign trade difficult. Depreciation in the value of fixed capital in the form of plants, rolling stock, buildings, and docks,

was consequently very great. The same post war depression was seen in agricultural sections where only one-third of the live stock was left, and lack of labor and fertilizers had reduced the productivity of the soil by a quarter. "The labour situation is desperate. The number of unemployed in Berlin is between 220,000 and 270,000. . . . On the other hand, many factories are retaining full staffs although they have not employment for them. Industry is on the verge of collapse. Capital reserves are being rapidly absorbed by the payment of the greatly increased wages for which the output offers a diminished return."—M. Booth, *Social reconstruction in Germany*, p. 32-33.—"The energy and efficiency of the German working classes [were said to] . . . have been terribly undermined by underfeeding. This underfeeding . . . cannot be remedied so long as Germany, by virtue of the Peace Treaty, is compelled to supply goods and perform services gratis or at prices far below those obtaining in the world's markets, while she has to pay high prices for indispensable necessities, foodstuffs and raw materials from abroad."—*Underfeeding in Germany (Economic Review, Nov. 12, 1920)*.—According to reports by British officers sent on special missions of investigation to Germany in 1919, the general impression conveyed is that the food situation is very serious; that the establishment of stable conditions of government depends upon an immediate supply of food and raw materials and that the Bolshevik danger is by no means imaginary. "Underfeeding is by no means confined to the working classes, but is even worse among the middle classes, who send their children to the middle schools, and is nearly as marked in the high schools. The terrible depreciation of money and the increased price of necessities have caused distress to be specially rife among the classes dependent on a moderate income from investments. Among these classes, especially among widows and elderly persons, there has been an enormous increase of mortality due to underfeeding, and its consequent reduction of capacity to resist disease."—*Ibid.*—According to a report of the Copenhagen Society for investigation of social effects of the war, issued in March, 1919, "The German people suffered by diminution in births and increase of mortality a total loss of approximately 5,600,000 souls. The number of inhabitants has sunk from 67,800,000 [in 1914] to about 65,100,000; of these 33,900,000 are females and only 31,200,000 males. . . . [In 1919, the population, exclusive of Alsace-Lorraine, was 32,000,000 females and 31,075,000 males.] The health conditions of the population have deteriorated immensely through want of food and over-work. The poorer hard-working sections of the people have suffered the most."—*War and population of Germany (Living Age, Aug. 23, 1919)*.

ALSO IN: W. H. Dawson, *Industrialism in Germany*.—Idem, *Germany and the Germans*.

According to a report in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of July 2, Dr. Wirth, finance minister, pictured Germany's past and present financial situation as follows: "A close observation shows that our financial system has passed through three stages of development. At the beginning of the war we had reached the zenith of our economic development, stocks of goods and raw materials, in fact a wealth of substantive values, were at our disposal. At that time it was possible to transform an extraordinary amount of actual capital into paper war loan capital. That was the period when our loan policy from the standpoint of political economy stood upon the broadest basis and when we had not overtaxed ourselves either

financially or economically. . . . With the year 1917 began the second phase of our financial embarrassment. It was then that the physical, material and financial resources of the nation began to be sapped. The war became more expensive, and prices, already high, increased. Economic impoverishment set in and increased month to month. In the development of the national finances this over-straining of our strength was manifested by the discrepancy between current revenue and current expenditure. . . . And then came the collapse, both military and political. With it the critical position of our finances entered upon its third stage. The disquieting increase of the floating debts commenced; it was unavoidable, for on the one hand the Commonwealth lacked rich sources of taxation and lacked the basis of taking up firm loans, and on the other hand it was faced with vast expenditure as the aftermath and consequence of the war. The liquidation of the war cost month by month milliards of marks and will also absorb still larger sums. In addition, there is the expenditure for a terribly hard peace. We must also add the sums required for cheapening foodstuffs and for other social and economic objects. The collapse of our currency has aided, in a manner absolutely un-annoying, in increasing our expenditure."—*Germany's position (Economic Review, July 9, 1920)*.

1919-1920.—Post-war tariff changes. See TARIFF: 1919-1920: Germany.

1919-1920.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Germany.

1920.—Economic conditions.—Nationalization of railroads.—New trusts formed.—Labor organizations.—Social legislation. See RAILROADS: 1919-1920; TRUSTS: Germany: 1920; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1918-1921; CHARITIES: Germany: 1920-1921.

1920.—Peace with China.—Relinquishes claims to Shantung. See CHINA: 1919-1920; U. S. A.: 1919-1920.

1920.—United States rejects peace treaty. See U. S. A.: 1920: Final rejection, etc.

1920.—Armament and reparations considered at Spa conference. See SPA, CONFERENCE OF.

1920 (January).—A dismembered empire.—Recurrence of Spartacist outbreaks.—The German Republic at the beginning of 1920 presented an eloquent object lesson illustrating the bitter consequences of defeat in war. The quondam powerful, united empire had been shorn of valuable territories which had been originally annexed by war and now detached again through the same medium. Alsace-Lorraine had reverted to France; large districts in West Prussia, Posen and Silesia had been awarded to Poland at the dictation of the Allies; the port of Danzig was now an independent state; the fate of Memel, once the extreme eastern outpost, awaited the decision of the conquerors, who awarded it to Lithuania in 1923; a part of Silesia was promised to the new state of Czecho-Slovakia; the rich valley of the Saar was provisionally taken away with the proviso of a referendum to be taken fifteen years later to determine its allegiance. Other regions were left to decide by plebiscite whether the inhabitants preferred to remain German or cast in their lot with other states. "The second week in January saw a serious Communist upheaval in Berlin. The Government was not unprepared, and had repeatedly warned the public through the Press that it would not shrink from meeting violence with violence. On January 13, the day when Parliament reassembled to discuss the Works' Councils Bill, there were nevertheless revolutionary demonstra-

tions in Berlin in response to the call of the *Freiheit* and the *Rote Fahne*. Large crowds assembled in front of the Reichstag, and the more rowdy elements among them tried to storm the Reichstag building. The Civic Guards when it was almost too late opened fire on them with machine-guns and rifles, and there were some 150 casualties before the Königsplatz was cleared. Martial law was proclaimed in Berlin and Northern Germany. The Government, as will be seen from the statements of the Chancellor and Herr Heine, the Prussian Minister of Home Affairs, both of them Socialists, took a very grave view of the danger they had been in.—*Review of the Foreign Press (Economic Review, Jan. 30, 1920)*.

1920 (March-April).—Counter revolution.—Kapp's coup d'état.—Fall of the Bauer ministry.—Uprisings in the Ruhr district.—French occupation of Frankfurt.—German protest.—“A counter-revolutionary movement, under the leadership of Dr. Wolfgang von Kapp and apparently backed by all monarchist sympathizers, including the powerful Pomeranian Land League, took the government by surprise when on March 13, troops under General von Lüttwitz marched into Berlin, took possession of all the public buildings and chief strategic points of the city and caused President Ebert and the government to flee, first to Dresden and later to Stuttgart. Throughout North Germany the government troops refused to fight against the rebels; South and West Germany, however, together with the Hanseatic towns, declared themselves hostile to the movement. Dr. Kapp proclaimed himself ‘Imperial Chancellor’ and appointed Baron von Lüttwitz as commander-in-chief of the army. Unable to deal with the passive resistance of a general strike called by the Socialists, the revolutionists in numerous soothing proclamations sought to gain the confidence of the people. Their protestations made little impression, and by March 15 the *coup* had failed. In its wake came a political upheaval, for when the Bauer ministry returned to Berlin it found its prestige gone, and attempts of the extremists to browbeat the country into Sovietism, coupled with armed resistance of workmen in the Ruhr district, brought about its fall. Contributing to its overthrow was its inability to meet the terms of an ultimatum of the trade unions, demanding, among other things, selection by them of members of the cabinet, a decisive voice in drafting all new legislation, disarmament and punishment of all persons implicated in the *coup d'état*. After vainly striving to remodel his cabinet to suit the importunities of those arrayed against him, Herr Bauer resigned, and upon the invitation of President Ebert, Hermann Müller, Socialist, became the third chancellor of the Republic [with Herr Gessler as minister of defence]. The first serious problem which the new government faced was the suppression of Communist uprisings in the Ruhr district, where a Red army had been organized. After methods of persuasion had failed, troops [under General von Watter at Münster] were despatched into the valley, which lies within the neutral zone fixed by the treaty; this action caused grave concern in Paris, and on April 6, General Dongoulette [at the head of French troops] marched into Frankfurt and Darmstadt; Homburg, Hanau and Dieburg also were occupied. [These places are not in the Ruhr valley and there was no encounter with the Germans.] By the middle of April law and order had been restored, although unrest continued.”—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp.*

117-118.—The German government protested against the action of the French army in the following note: “It cannot possibly have been the intention of the Treaty of Versailles to prevent Germany from restoring order as quickly as possible in the part of its territory most seriously disturbed by bands of robbers. The movement in the Ruhr region, if it had not been quickly opposed, would have shaken the republic to its foundations, both politically and economically. The German Government would have acted inexcusably if it had waited longer in the optimistic hope that the insurgent movement in the Ruhr district would end without military intervention, and events so far have shown that it was right. Everywhere that the troops arrived the movement quickly collapsed, and the fears expressed by the Allies that the very entry of the troops would make the disturbances worse and lead to the destruction of most important industrial works has up to the present not proved justified. The note points out that alleged violations of the treaty must, under the terms of that instrument, be redressed by all the signatories on the allied side, and not by a single one, acting independently. The idea that the dispatch of troops to the region could in any way involve a menace to France is so absurd that it does not require to be refuted,” the note continues, “and it may therefore be maintained with the fullest conviction on Germany's part that there is here no intentional violation of the Peace Treaty which could make the German Government responsible in the meaning of the Peace Treaty. Even if such a violation had been committed, the military act of violence now committed by the French Government would not be justified.”

1920 (June).—General election result.—Konstantine Fehrenbach appointed chancellor.—“General elections, postponement of which undoubtedly had hastened the Kapp revolt, were held on June 6. . . . At the elections, which were conducted on the basis of proportional representation and in accordance with the new franchise bill providing for one member for every 60,000 votes polled, more than 25,000,000 votes were cast and 460 Reichstag members were chosen. . . . On June 8, the government of Herr Müller tendered its resignation, but President Ebert requested it to remain in office provisionally. A few days later Konstantine Fehrenbach, former president of the Reichstag, was called to the chancellorship. After having selected a cabinet which did not meet with the approval of the Majority socialists, he finally succeeded in forming a ministry chosen from representatives of the Catholic, Democratic and People's parties.”—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp. 118-119*.—Dr. Walter Simons became foreign minister, Dr. Wirth, minister of finance, and Gessler remained as minister of defence. The outstanding problem before the new government was the settling of the reparations question in accordance with the Treaty of Versailles and as modified in conferences at Spa and London with the Allied Supreme Council.

1921.—Question of war responsibility. See *WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71; 76; 77; 78.*

1921.—World War effects on shipping. See *COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1914-1921.*

1921.—Upper Silesian complications.—German plebiscite victory.—Accusations of Polish outrages.—Germano-Polish Convention (April 21). See *POLAND: 1921: Upper Silesian complications; Peace treaty; SILESIA: 1919-1921.*

1921.—Child welfare court of Munich. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.

1921 (March).—Düsseldorf, Ruhrort and Duisburg occupied by England, France and Belgium. See FRANCE: 1921 (March 8).

1921 (April).—Appeals to United States for mediation on reparations.—Replies. See U. S. A.: 1921 (April-May): German appeal.

1921 (April).—Death of ex-empress in exile.—“The ex-Empress Augusta Victoria died at the Castle of Doorn [in Holland] at 6.15 this morning [April 11]. . . . The ex-Empress had lived at Doorn for about a year. Only very rarely did she enter the village for a short walk and since her illness she never left the Castle grounds. . . . The *Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant* remarks:—“The Republican form of government has not so far taken root in Germany that a great part of the German people should not mourn for its last Empress who was, at the height of her power, revered as an example of the German housewife who only minded the three K's—Kirche, Kinder, Küche' (Church, Children, Kitchen). The *Vaterland* says:—“She was a pious woman, the centre of the Orthodox Protestant Church life.—Augusta Victoria Frederica Feodora Jenny, Princess of Schleswig-Holstein, was born on October 22, 1858, and married the crown prince of Prussia [William II] on February 27, 1881, seven years before he became Emperor. The Emperor was particularly concerned to exhibit his wife in the character of *Landesmutter*. . . . She bore her husband six sons and one daughter, all of whom she lived to see married, and at the time of her death she had nearly a score of grandchildren.”—*The Times* (London), Apr. 12, 1921.

1921 (May).—Trade agreement with Russia. See RUSSIA: 1920-1921: Difficulties of establishing peace, etc.

1921 (May-June).—Acceptance by Germany of Allied reparations demand.—Summary of obligations.—First payment.—Trade unionists oppose German labor in devastated areas.—Restriction of German export trade.—Dilatory procedure with war offenders.—In reply to an Allied ultimatum presented on May 6, accompanied by threats of French military action, Germany agreed on May 11 to pay a total of \$33,000,000,000 for damages committed by German troops during the war. This concession was made by the new chancellor, Wirth, who had succeeded Fehrenbach. The Allied premiers drew up the terms in London and presented them in the form of an ultimatum, with the proviso attached that if they were not unreservedly accepted by May 12 the French, supported by Allied troops, would occupy the Ruhr district and hold the same as a guarantee for the fulfilment of Germany's reparation debt. French troops were moved into the Rhine district and concentrated upon Ruhrort. At the last moment Germany yielded. “The unconditional acceptance by Germany of the Allied demands as set forth in the ultimatum . . . entails the discharge of the following obligations:—

“June 1.—Payment of one milliard gold marks [£50,000,000].

“June 30.—Disarmament.

“July 1.—Delivery to the Reparations Commission of bonds for 12 milliards gold marks [£600,000,000].

“July 15.—First quarterly payment of the annual sum of two milliard gold marks [£100,000,000].

“August 15.—First quarterly payment of the twenty-six per cent. of the value of German exports,

“October 15.—Second quarterly payment of the annual sum of two milliard gold marks.

“November 1.—Delivery to the Reparations Commission of bonds for thirty-eight milliards gold marks [£1,900,000,000]. Also bonds without coupons attached for eighty-two milliards gold marks [£4,100,000,000].

“November 15.—Second quarterly payment of the twenty-six per cent. of the value of German exports.”—*The Statist*, May 14, 1921.—“The German Government, through the agency of four New York banks, . . . transferred . . . \$45,733,000 to the New York Federal Reserve Bank in respect of the first instalment of its liability to the Allies under the Reparations agreement. This payment . . . was not made in gold. . . . The sum mentioned forms only a small part of the total amount for which Germany was liable to the Reparations Commission before June 1. Under the agreement this was to be one milliard gold marks, which would be equivalent to £47,850,000 (gold), or 232,800,000 United States dollars.”—*Ibid.*, June 4, 1921.—“The Allied reparations bill against Germany totals £6,750 million. How to receive this without injury to ourselves [Great Britain] is a big problem for us, and the United States is in an equally awkward dilemma as regards her foreign creditors. It will be remembered that after the War it was proposed to employ German labour on a large scale to reconstruct the devastated areas in France and Belgium, but the scheme fell through because unemployment and strong trade-union opposition were feared. The Treaty provided an alternative means of ensuring reparation by giving the Allies an option on German machinery and reconstruction materials of every kind for approximately two years. This clause was for various reasons not availed of. Again, in the case of ships, neither our own nor the French markets were able to absorb all the surrendered vessels, and the consequent depression in price enabled very cheap purchases of tonnage to be made. . . . The use of German labour outside Germany has been rejected by the Allies, as well as the products of German labour working within the country.”—*Ibid.*, June 18, 1921.—All the Allies “are busy in devising various means of stifling the German export trade in order to protect their own industries. Similarly, the United States desires an attempt to be made by debtor nations of Europe to meet the obligations contracted by them during and since the War, while at the same time proposing to raise its already high tariff on imports. The two policies are at variance, but a judicious reconciliation is possible without injuring the internal condition of the recipient countries or permanently crippling the productive capacity of the paying countries. . . . On the subject of war criminals Germany's action has been even more lax. In response to urgent representations the Allies consented to the trial of war offenders before the High Court of Leipzig, but three of the seven persons whom they demanded should be brought to justice have been allowed to leave the country, while the other four have not yet been tried.”—*Ibid.*, May 7, 1921.

1921 (May-December).—Negotiations with Denmark. — Agreement as regards water courses, fisheries, etc. See DENMARK: 1921.

1921 (July).—Agreement with China.—Post war reparations. See CHINA: 1921 (July).

1921 (August).—Treaty of peace with the United States. See U. S. A.: 1921 (July-August): Peace, etc.

1921 (November-December). — Reparations problem.—Completion of disarmament.—Finan-

cial status.—“During November and December, Hugo Stinnes, the leading financier and industrialist of Germany, and Dr. Walter Rathenau, former Minister of Reconstruction in the German Cabinet, were in consultation at London with the British member of the Reparation Commission and other British authorities, to discuss some new adjustment for Germany's reparation payments. . . . The Berlin correspondent of *The New York Times* cabled on Dec. 11 that after visiting every part of Germany and studying all the information derived from official investigations, he could report that Germany's disarmament, under the military terms of the Versailles Treaty, was 97 per cent. complete as regards artillery, and 93 per cent. complete as regards machine guns and rifles. Factories



WALTER RATHENAU

Foreign minister of the German Republic, assassinated in 1922

known to have been engaged in manufacturing war materials were industrially disarmed at that date to a degree of 90 per cent. Dr. Wirth, the German Chancellor, in a public statement made Dec. 10, categorically denied the charges made in France that Germany had not disarmed.”—*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1922, pp. 670-671.—“The total estimated deficit for the year, including railroad and post subsidies, was 46,800,000,000 marks. . . . The industries are active and the number of unemployed at the close of the year was estimated around 1 per cent. All the factories were in operation. . . . Herr Stinnes obtained the consent of the Government to denationalize the railroads. His plan assigns to the Government 51 per cent. of the new railroad stock, 25 per cent. to the capitalists and apportioned 24 per cent. to the railroad employes. . . . Between 250,000 and 300,000 Russian immigrants now live in Germany.

The colony consists mainly of ex-officers, lawyers and merchants. . . . The Krupp Works has increased its capital 250,000,000 marks, changing from war production to peace production. The gross profits during the year were 250,000,000 marks, the net 98,000,000. The new stock is to be profit sharing with the employes. . . . The Allied Disarmament Commission reconsidered its order to destroy the Deutsche Werke, a group of plants used during the war for manufacturing German armaments, and will instead convert them into workshops for the manufacture of industrial machinery, which will call for the employment of 20,000 workers.”—*Ibid.*, Feb., 1922.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Far-reaching effects of the World War.

1922.—Agitation for an eight hour day. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1920-1922.

1922 (January-February).—Railroad strike.—Appointment of United States ambassador to Germany.—Reparations problem.—“There was a complete tie-up of Germany's railroads on Feb. 2 because the Government refused to give an immediate answer to the demand of the men for an increase of 50 to 70 per cent. in pay. An increase of 15 to 20 per cent. had already been granted on Oct. 1, 1921. An acute economic crisis resulted from the strike, which received sympathetic support from public utility workers in some of the larger cities, though the General Federation of Labor Unions strongly condemned it. The Government made firm efforts to resist, but the food situation grew so desperate that it was forced to capitulate by practically granting the demands. The strike lasted six days. [See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Germany.] . . . Congressman A. B. Houghton of Corning, N. Y., was nominated by the President as Ambassador to Germany on Jan. 18 and was promptly confirmed by the Senate. . . . The German note to the Reparation Commission, in explaining the failure to meet reparation obligations in January and February, requests that Germany be relieved of all cash payments in 1922. The note points out the steps taken to increase revenues; it also asks for a reduction in cash payments and an increase in payments in kind. With the schedule of increased taxes, the note states, there will be a surplus of some 16,000,000,000 marks available for reparation payments.”—*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1922, pp. 1054-1055.

1922 (March).—National rent law passed. See HOUSING: Germany: Convention of the League of German Tenants' Associations.

1922 (April).—Treaty of Rapallo (text). See RAPALLO, TREATY OF (1922).

1922 (May).—Represented at the Genoa conference.—Note of Allied representatives regarding secret treaty with Russia.—Inability to meet French demands for payment of debts. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

1922 (June-July).—Assassination of Rathenau and consequent crisis.—Defense of the Republic Bill.—Elections in Saar valley.—“The German Republic has just passed through one of the most critical months of its existence. When Dr. Walter Rathenau, the German Foreign Minister, was riding in an automobile to his office on the morning of June 24, he was suddenly fired upon by assassins in another automobile and was instantly killed. . . . The murdered statesman was not only the foremost member of Chancellor Wirth's government, but was the most forceful personality working in Germany for the fulfillment of treaty obligations and the financial rehabilitation of the republic. Everything indicated that

his assassins were members of a reactionary group of Royalists and anti-Semites banded together to fight reparation payments and foment revolution. It was felt throughout Germany that the blow had been aimed not only at Rathenau but at the heart of the republic itself."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1922.—"President Ebert was working energetically to prevent a break in his Cabinet, and to hold his Government firm after the excitement caused by the assassination of Dr. Rathenau. The murderers of the German Foreign Minister, Hermann Fischer and Edwin Kern, after being encircled and hunted down for more than ten days in Central Germany, were finally located in an unoccupied castle, where they committed suicide under dramatic circumstances just as the police were about to arrest them. The Defense of the Republic bill, which was a direct outcome of the assassination, passed its third reading in the Reichstag on July 18. (At the same session the bill for a compulsory loan of 70,000,000,000 marks also passed its third reading.) . . . Despite repeated protests by representatives of the inhabitants of the Sarre Basin to the Council of the League of Nations against the new semi-legislative body to be known as the Advisory Council, the main body of the inhabitants turned out at the elections on June 25 and elected the representatives, with the result that the Centrists won 16 seats, the Socialists bulking second. This new Council is to be called into session every three months by the Chairman of the Governing Commission, and its decisions will be accepted by that commission unless they are obviously contrary to the régime created by the Treaty of Versailles. Under the treaty, the League of Nations is to administer the territory until 1935, when a plebiscite will decide whether it shall belong to Germany or France. A Study Committee is to cooperate with the Council."—*Ibid.*, Sept., 1922, p. 1074.

1922 (July-August). — Reparations crisis. — Agreement with the United States regarding claims.—Labor conditions.—"The French and British Premiers met in London on Aug. 7 for a conference on the allied policy to be adopted in view of Germany's insistence that she could no longer meet her reparations and other financial obligations. The situation which they were called upon to face was incontestably serious. In the first week of July the floating debt had been increased by more than 3,500,000,000 marks, and the exchange value of the mark was dropping lower and lower. The next monthly reparation payment of 32,000,000 marks, due July 15, and already representing a reduction of 18,000,000 marks from the 50,000,000 due under the fixed schedule laid down some months ago by the Reparation Commission, loomed so large to the German Government that a special envoy was sent to Paris to ask a two-year moratorium for this and the following payments. The Reparation Commission took the request under advisement, but insisted that the July instalment would have to be met, and Germany paid it [on the 17th]. . . . [Germany gave] notification that it would be impossible for her to keep up coal deliveries of 1,900,000 tons monthly, and her request to be allowed to reduce the amount by one-third. This pessimism was further increased by a new German demand which came on July 15 that Germany be relieved for three years from making payments in cash for the liquidation of claims of French nationals against German nationals, represented in Clearing House balances. The balance due France on this account amounts to some \$100,000,000, and Ger-

many agreed in the London conference of June 10, 1921, to pay \$10,000,000 monthly to liquidate. What she now asked was that this monthly payment be reduced to \$2,500,000. This roused a new French storm, and the determination of France to apply the 'sanctions' or penalties, unless Germany changed her attitude, became correspondingly stiffened. Plans were drawn up by Premier Poincaré to obtain satisfaction through other channels. . . . Germany's reply to the French ultimatum demanding the payment of \$10,000,000 was received by Aug. 5, within the time limit. Germany declared anew that the compensation payments formed a part of the general reparations, again denied France's right to adopt punitive measures before Aug. 15, and, after pointing out the disastrous fall of the German mark, urged France to hold decision over until after the London meeting of the Premiers. M. Poincaré wasted no time in showing that his plans of coercion brooked no delay. Three hours later the French Foreign Office issued a decree declaring that all payment or recognition of German nationals' credits in France was suspended, that all payments to Germans of awards of the Mixed Arbitral Tribunal were suspended; that all proceeds of the liquidation of German property in France were sequestered until further notice, and that liquidation in Alsace-Lorraine was suspended. The Fifth Article, saying, 'Conservatory measures will be immediately taken in Alsace-Lorraine,' obviously referred to the French plan to sequester German property in the redeemed provinces, and to expel a certain number of prominent Germans from this territory. By Aug. 11 the expulsion of 500 Alsatian Germans was already under way. . . . The first step toward settling the claims of the United States against Germany was taken on Aug. 10 with the signing in Berlin by representatives of the two nations of an agreement for the determination of the American claims. The agreement provided for a mixed claims commission to be composed of one German and one American delegate, with an umpire to settle matters in dispute. On the day of agreement was signed, President Harding named William R. Day, Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, to act as the commissioner for America. The commission is to pass upon (1) claims of American citizens arising since the outbreak of the war for damage of property or interests within German territory; (2) other claims for loss or damage arising from the war, and (3) debts owed American citizens by the German Government or by German nationals. Though Germany's currency was further inflated by the issue of more billions of paper marks, and though the mark continued to fall till it reached nearly 900 to the dollar by the 10th of August, accompanied by the raging of speculation and violent rise of prices, comparatively few men remained unemployed, and only some 20,000 were receiving State aid."—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1922.—See also FRANCE: 1922 (August-October).—On August 3, the Council of Ambassadors notified Bolivia to dispense with all German army advisers in compliance with Article 170 of the Treaty of Versailles, to which Bolivia was a signatory. The Reparation Commission decided on August 30, that Germany need not pay any cash installments for a period of six months a moratorium as such being refused; 270,000,000 gold marks were to be paid in notes to Belgium with some form of bank endorsement.

1922 (September-November).—Restoration of French liberated regions.—Belgian demand refused.—Socialists amalgamate.—British repara-

tions proposals.—Kiel canal controversy.—Resignation of the chancellor.—On Sept. 5 Hugo Stinnes, German industrial magnate, concluded a contract with the Federation of Co-operative Societies of the French Liberated Regions to furnish building material under a scientific plan of restoration; the material to be made up in Germany and to cost 13,000,000,000 francs, to be charged to indemnity account. On the 14th the German government refused to provide the \$100,000,000 in gold marks demanded by Belgium as guarantee of a note issue on account of reparations, and also declared her inability to pay £1,500,000 demanded by September 15 by the Allies on account of private pre-war debts. After six years of bitter political differences the German Independent Socialists and the Majority Socialists united to form the German Social Democracy, Sept. 24; the drafting of a new party programme was entrusted to Karl Kautsky. A proposal, put forward by Great Britain, to relieve Germany for five years of all cash reparation payments, with immediate control of German government finances by the Allies, was rejected by France on Oct. 13. On the 26th the Council of Ambassadors decided to refer the question of free passage of the Kiel canal to the International Court of Justice, in order to settle the dispute between Germany and the Allies arising from refusal of passage to Allied ships during the Russian war with Poland in 1920. On Nov. 15 the chancellor, Julius Wirth, resigned with his cabinet; he was succeeded by Wilhelm Cuno.

1922 (October).—McKenna's statement of the practical economic problem involved in German reparations. See DEBTS, PUBLIC: Problem of paying, etc.

1922 (December).—London conference on reparations.—Allied disagreement.—French demand occupation of Ruhr towns.—French case for action.—Statement in Senate by Premier Poincaré.—Germany declared in default.—The British, French, Italian and Belgian premiers met in London on Dec. 9 to confer on German reparations. A proposal emanated from the British side to cancel certain war debts, to cease the employment of forcible measures against Germany, to grant a moratorium to that country to permit her to re-establish her finances, and to make a substantial reduction in the reparations terms. M. Poincaré agreed to a two years' moratorium on condition of satisfactory guarantees being offered. Belgium proposed an annual international loan to Germany of 5,000,000,000 gold marks for seven years—making a total of 35,000,000,000, to represent the entire reparations indemnity. The conference broke up in failure on the 11th, with France insisting on the occupation of Essen and Bochum. The next meeting was arranged to be held in Paris on Jan. 2, 1923. To a full attendance of members in the French Senate on Dec. 21, Premier Poincaré said it was natural that in the face of the German insolvency they should turn to seek a new solution, but he hoped that this might never be interpreted as a partial or total abandonment of the French claims. Germany had persisted in her ways, he said; her great industrial magnates had grown richer and richer at the expense of the German people. What, he asked, was the quickest and surest way to get satisfaction of the French claims? Germany was not carrying out her engagements and the Schedule of Payments of May, 1921, was a dead letter. As to reparations in kind, the Weisbaden agreement had been ratified by the Reparations Commission; the Allies had even recognized the right of France to make other conventions which promised a surer and more rapid fulfilment.

These agreements had come into force on July 20, 1922, but nothing had been accomplished under them except with great difficulty. An order for 35,000 cubic metres of wood had been passed for completion in the last quarter of this year, but the execution of the order had been negligible. The French government had also considered a large programme of works to be carried out in France by the Germans. The Reparations Commission had approved the proposed system in principle and the government had put themselves in touch with the German government in regard to the matter. Here was an excellent opportunity for the German government to prove their good intentions; but it was only in October that the Wilhelmstrasse (the Foreign Office in Berlin) declared its readiness to appoint experts, and even then made a condition about payment. The French government had accepted this, but they were still waiting for the German representatives with whom they were to discuss the matter. Germany said that as a result of depreciation of her currency she could only with difficulty pay in Germany itself for the goods which France wanted from her, but among these supplies were some which came from the national domains. In reality the Reich was seeking means of delaying all reparations, those in kind as much as others. "Is this the moment," asked Poincaré, "to grant Germany a new moratorium, without something in return? New German proposals are announced to us. These have to do doubtless with an elastic moratorium, that is to say, a moratorium over a period which may be extended. But will Germany profit by it to clear up her finances? The past makes us suspicious about that. Germany must, therefore, be subject to effective control."—Based on *The Times* (London) *Paris report*, Dec. 22, 1922.—At a suddenly summoned meeting of the Reparations Commission in Paris on December 26, the French delegates obtained a majority of three to one in favor of a declaration that Germany was in voluntary default in deliveries of timber. Great Britain alone opposed the declaration. The French claim on Germany was in respect of 55,000 cubic metres (72,000 cubic yards) of sawn wood and 200,000 telegraph poles. The declaration of default was made solely on the French claim, which the French delegates justified by the fact that only 36,000 cubic metres of sawn timber and 65,000 telegraph poles had been delivered. The default in actual value was estimated at 2,000,000 gold marks (about \$500,000). The sawn timber in question was not originally in the French contract, but had been transferred by the British to the French. The question arose whether there was in reality a breach which brought Germany under the general penalties of the Treaty of Versailles. In the contracts there was laid down the right of imposing specific penalties, and in the case of telegraph poles those penalties were clearly defined. They were to the effect that if Germany did not deliver the quantities agreed upon then the price credited to her under the heading of reparations should be reduced even in respect of the deliveries she had effected. The whole Reparations Commission was of opinion that the expression "default" in paragraph 17 of the section of the Treaty dealing with reparations meant voluntary default, as stated explicitly in paragraph 18. The whole matter of reparations in kind was undoubtedly much complicated by the disturbed state of German finance and a good case could be made out that, as the Reparation Commission had asked the Allied governments to consider Germany's capacity to pay, her past failures might properly be merged in the larger question. There had also been a shortage in the coal deliv-



eries. Germany had already been declared in default on two former occasions. The first was in respect of coal deliveries before the Spa Conference. But in the sequel the Allies actually allowed credits to Germany to enable her to make deliveries and considerably reduced the quantities demanded. The second occasion arose in connection with the completion of the payments of twenty milliards of gold marks (\$5,000,000,000) before May, 1922, and again in the sequel the Allies did not insist on more than one milliard (\$250,000,000) in gold being paid, and allowed the rest of the sum to be incorporated in the Schedule of Payments then drawn up, which meant that a deficit of twelve milliards (\$3,000,000,000) was represented by "A" bonds.—*Ibid.*, Dec. 27, 1922.—On Dec. 31 the German chancellor Cuno announced to the Reichstag that a Franco-German non-war proposal offered by Germany through the mediation of the United States had been rejected by Premier Poincaré on the ground that France was effectually covenanted against war by Article XI of the League of Nations Covenant.

1923 (January).—Failure of Paris reparations conference. — German default confirmed. — French troops enter Ruhr valley.—Extension of occupation.—A further session of the Reparations Commission met in Paris on Jan. 2, at which all the delegates agreed on reducing the German indemnity to 50,000,000,000 gold marks. The French and British, however, were opposed on the question of penalties, the latter proposing that occupation should be carried out only on future default, and then with unanimous Allied consent. On the 9th the Commission voted, three to one, holding Germany in wilful default on 1922 coal deliveries, Belgium and Italy being ranged on the side of France. On the following day France notified Berlin that, as a result of this default, "the French government had decided to dispatch to the Ruhr a mission of control composed of engineers invested with the necessary powers to supervise the acts of the Kohlsyndikat (Coal Syndicate) . . . [to assure] strict application of the schedules fixed by the Reparations Commission and to take all necessary measures for the payment of reparations." French armies crossed the Rhine and entered the German coal and iron region of the Ruhr Valley. Under command of General Degoutte, Essen and Düsseldorf were occupied. The German government recalled their ambassador from France and their minister from Belgium, at the same time denouncing the concordat with Italy under which Germany had contracted to pay 800,000,000 marks for the redemption of German property in Italy. On the 11th the German government protested to the United States government and to Great Britain against the French invasion, alleging that coercive military measures were being "directed against a defenceless and peaceful nation," and that Germany would "meet violence with violence." On the 12th the Reparations Commission postponed for fifteen days the German indemnity payment of 500,000,000 gold marks due on Jan. 15. In reply to the German government's order that no coal should be delivered to France or Belgium under any circumstances, the French extended their occupation to Lünen and Dortmund, with a threat that the mines might be requisitioned unless a settlement were reached within three days. On the 16th the Reparations Commission again voted Germany in wilful default in respect of deliveries in kind for 1923. On the 15th and 16th disturbances broke out in Bochum and Essen, the French troops fired on the crowd and several were wounded. A passive resistance strike was organized among the civilians and kept

up for some days when the French authorities declared that they were willing to pay the German mine owners a sufficient amount to enable them to carry on the coal deliveries to France, but no more than was necessary to pay wages and keep the mines in working order. The German magnates were ordered to send representatives to appear before the French Control Commission on the 17th. They failed to appear, sending word that they had decided to obey the instructions of Berlin instead of the French coal delivery orders. General Simon told some of the operators that they had not been summoned for a discussion, but to receive the orders of the French government. "If you do not see fit to obey them," he said, "you will be prosecuted before a court-martial, condemned and imprisoned." Several coal operators were subsequently arrested, but released again. On the 26th the Reparations Commission made three important decisions. They declared that the request made for a moratorium by Germany on Nov. 14, 1922, null and void because of the letter of Jan. 13, which stated that all reparations deliveries to the powers responsible for the Ruhr occupation would be suspended while the occupation lasted. The second decision was to declare Germany in general default of all reparations obligations to France and Belgium, as provided for under Paragraph 17, Annex 2, Part 8, of the Treaty of Versailles. This decision was voted by a majority of three, supported by France, Italy and Belgium, with Great Britain abstaining. All the Allied governments were to be notified of the decision. Finally, a letter was drafted by common accord informing Germany that the Schedule of Payments of May, 1921, would again be put into force on expiration of the delay granted to Jan. 31, when the payment of 500,000,000 gold marks postponed from Jan. 15 would become due.

See also AGRICULTURE: Modern period; General survey; ARCHITECTURE: Medieval: Lombard and German; Renaissance: Germany; Modern: Germany; CHARITIES: Germany; CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY; CITY PLANNING: Germany; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Germany; COURTS: Germany; DEBTS, PUBLIC: Germany; EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Germany; 17th century: Germany; etc.; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Germany; EDUCATION, ART: Modern: Germany; EUROPE: Modern: Imperialism; FLAGS: Germany; HISTORY: 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 32; LIBRARIES: Modern: Germany; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Germany; MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Police defined; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Germany; Modern: 1620-1722; 1630-1800; 1650-1827; 1700-1827; 1818-1880; 1843-1897; 1847-1921; MYTHOLOGY: Germanic; NATURALIZATION: Germany; PAINTING: Europe (19th century); GERMAN; POSTAL SYSTEMS: 476-1600; 1600-1800; PRISON REFORM: Germany; RURAL CREDIT; SCULPTURE: Gothic; Modern; SOCIAL INSURANCE: Origin and early development; Details for various countries: Germany; TRUSTS: Germany.

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#### GERMANY, Constitution of the empire.

13th-17th centuries.—Old (Holy Roman) empire.—Golden Bull. See GERMANY: 1347-1493; DIET, GERMANIC.

1815.—Confederation. See GERMANY: 1814-1820.

1871.—New Empire.—On January 18, 1871, at Versailles, King William of Prussia assumed the title of German emperor. On April 16th following, the emperor issued a proclamation, by and with the consent of the council of the German confederation, and of the Imperial diet, decreeing the adoption of a constitution for the Empire. (See GERMANY: 1871 [January] and [April].) The following is a translation of the text of the constitution:

His Majesty the king of Prussia, in the name of the North German Union, His Majesty the king of Bavaria, His Majesty the king of Würtemberg, His Royal Highness the grand duke of Baden, and His Royal Highness the grand duke of Hesse, and by Rhine for those parts of the Grand Duchy of Hesse which are situated south of the Main, con-

clude an eternal alliance for the protection of the territory of the confederation, and of the laws of the same, as well as for the promotion of the welfare of the German people. This confederation shall bear the name of the German Empire, and shall have the following constitution.

#### I.—Territory

Article 1. The territory of the confederation shall consist of the states of Prussia, with Lauenburg, Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, Baden, Hesse, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, Brunswick, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Waldeck, Reuss of the elder branch, Reuss of the younger branch, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe, Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg.

#### II.—Legislation of the empire

Art. 2. Within this territory the empire shall have the right of legislation according to the provisions of this constitution, and the laws of the empire shall take precedence of those of each individual state. The laws of the empire shall be rendered binding by imperial proclamation, such proclamation to be published in a journal devoted to the publication of the laws of the empire, (Reichsgesetzblatt.) If no other period shall be designated in the published law for it to take effect, it shall take effect on the fourteenth day after the day of its publication in the law-journal at Berlin.

Art. 3. There is one citizenship for all Germany, and the citizens or subjects of each state of the federation shall be treated in every other state thereof as natives, and shall have the right of becoming permanent residents, of carrying on business, of filling public offices, and may acquire all civil rights on the same conditions as those born in the state, and shall also have the same usage as regards civil prosecutions and the protection of the laws. No German shall be limited, in the exercise of this privilege, by the authorities of his native state, or by the authorities of any other state of the confederation. The regulations governing the care of paupers, and their admission into the various parishes, are not affected by the principle enunciated in the first paragraph. In like manner those treaties shall remain in force which have been concluded between the various states of the federation in relation to the custody of persons who are to be banished, the care of sick, and the burial of deceased citizens. With regard to the rendering of military service to the various states, the necessary laws will be passed hereafter. All Germans in foreign countries shall have equal claims upon the protection of the empire.

Art. 4. The following matters shall be under the supervision of the empire and its legislature: 1. The privilege of carrying on trade in more than one place; domestic affairs and matters relating to the settlement of natives of one state in the territory of another; the right of citizenship; the issuing and examination of passports; surveillance of foreigners and of manufactures, together with insurance business, so far as these matters are not already provided for by article 3 of this constitution, (in Bavaria, however, exclusive of domestic affairs and matters relating to the settlement of natives of one state in the territory of another;) and likewise matters relating to colonization and emigration to foreign countries. 2. Legislation concerning customs duties and commerce, and such imposts as are

to be applied to the uses of the Empire. 3. Regulation of weights and measures of the coinage, together with the emission of funded and unfunded paper money. 4. Banking regulations in general. 5. Patents for inventions. 6. The protection of literary property. 7. The organization of a general system of protection for German trade in foreign countries; of German navigation, and of the German flag on the high seas; likewise the organization of a general consular representation of the empire. 8. Railway matters, (subject in Bavaria to the provisions of article 46,) and the construction of means of communication by land and water for the purposes of home defense and of general commerce. 9. Rafting and navigation upon those waters which are common to several states, and the condition of such waters, as likewise river and other water dues. 10. Postal and telegraphic affairs; but in Bavaria and Württemberg these shall be subject to the provisions of article 52. 11. Regulations concerning the execution of judicial sentences in civil matters, and the fulfillment of requisitions in general. 12. The authentication of public documents. 13. General legislation regarding the whole domain of civil and criminal law; likewise judicial proceedings. 14. The imperial army and navy. 15. The surveillance of the medical and veterinary professions. 16. The press, trades' unions, &c.

Art. 5. The legislative power of the empire shall be exercised by the federal council and the diet. A majority of the votes of both houses shall be necessary and sufficient for the passage of a law. When a law is proposed in relation to the army or navy, or to the imposts specified in article 35, the vote of the *präsidium* [i.e., Prussia] shall decide, in case of a difference of opinion in the federal council, if said vote shall be in favor of the retention of the existing arrangements.

### III.—Federal council

Art. 6. The federal council shall consist of the representatives of the states of the confederation, among whom the votes shall be divided in such a manner that Prussia, including the former votes of Hanover, the electorate of Hesse, Holstein, Nassau, and Frankfort shall have 17 votes; Bavaria, 6 votes; Saxony, 4 votes; Württemberg, 4 votes; Baden, 3 votes; Hesse, 3 votes; Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 2 votes; Saxe-Weimar, 1 vote; Mecklenburg-Strelitz, 1 vote; Oldenburg, 1 vote; Brunswick, 2 votes; Saxe-Meiningen, 1 vote; Saxe-Altenburg, 1 vote; Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, 1 vote; Anhalt, 1 vote; Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, 1 vote; Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, 1 vote; Waldeck, 1 vote; Reuss, elder branch, 1 vote; Reuss, younger branch, 1 vote; Schaumburg-Lippe, 1 vote; Lippe, 1 vote; Lubeck, 1 vote; Bremen, 1 vote; Hamburg, 1 vote; total 58 votes. Each member of the confederation shall appoint as many delegates to the federal council as it has votes; the total of the votes of each state shall, however, be cast by only one delegate.

Art. 7. The federal council shall take action upon—1. The measures to be proposed to the diet and the resolutions passed by the same. 2. The general provisions and regulations necessary for the execution of the laws of the empire, so far as no other provision is made by said laws. 3. The defects which may be discovered in the execution of the laws of the empire, or of the provisions and regulations heretofore mentioned. Each member of the confederation shall have the right to introduce motions, and it shall be the duty of the presiding officer to submit them for deliberation. Legislative action shall take place by simple majority, with the

exceptions of the provisions in articles 5, 37, and 78. Votes not represented or instructed shall not be counted. In the case of a tie, the vote of the presiding officer shall decide. When legislative action upon a subject which does not affect, according to the provisions of this constitution, the whole empire is taken, the votes of only those states of the confederation shall be counted which shall be interested in the matter in question.

Art. 8. The federal council shall appoint from its own members permanent committees—1. On the army and the fortifications. 2. On naval affairs. 3. On duties and taxes. 4. On commerce and trade. 5. On railroads, post offices, and telegraphs. 6. On the judiciary. 7. On accounts. In each of these committees there shall be representatives of at least four states of the confederation, beside the presiding officer, and each state shall be entitled to only one vote in the same. In the committee on the army and fortifications Bavaria shall have a permanent seat; the remaining members of it, as well as the members of the committee on naval affairs, shall be appointed by the emperor; the members of the other committees shall be elected by the federal council. These committees shall be newly formed at each session of the federal council, *i.e.*, each year, when the retiring members shall again be eligible. Besides, there shall be appointed in the federal council a committee on foreign affairs, over which Bavaria shall preside, to be composed of the plenipotentiaries of the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Württemberg, and of two plenipotentiaries of the other states of the empire, who shall be elected annually by the federal council. Clerks shall be placed at the disposal of the committees to perform the necessary work appertaining thereto.

Art. 9. Each member of the federal council shall have the right to appear in the diet, and shall be heard there at any time when he shall so request, to represent the views of his government, even when the same shall not have been adopted by the majority of the council. Nobody shall be at the same time a member of the federal council and of the diet.

Art. 10. The emperor shall afford the customary diplomatic protection to the members of the federal council.

### IV.—Presidium

Art. 11. The king of Prussia shall be the president of the confederation, and shall have the title of German Emperor. The emperor shall represent the empire among nations, declare war, and conclude peace in the name of the same, enter into alliances and other conventions with foreign countries, accredit ambassadors, and receive them. For a declaration of war in the name of the empire, the consent of the federal council shall be required, except in case of an attack upon the territory of the confederation or its coasts. So far as treaties with foreign countries refer to matters which, according to article 4, are to be regulated by the legislature of the empire, the consent of the federal council shall be required for their ratification, and the approval of the diet shall be necessary to render them valid.

Art. 12. The emperor shall have the right to convene the federal council and the diet, and to open, adjourn, and close them.

Art. 13. The convocation of the federal council and the diet shall take place annually, and the federal council may be called together for the preparation of business without the diet; the latter, however, shall not be convoked without the federal council.

Art. 14. The convocation of the federal council

shall take place as soon as demanded by one-third of its members.

Art. 15. The chancellor of the empire, who shall be appointed by the emperor, shall preside in the federal council, and supervise the conduct of its business. The chancellor of the empire shall have the right to delegate the power to represent him to any member of the federal council.

Art. 16. The necessary bills shall be laid before the diet in the name of the emperor, in accordance with the resolutions of the federal council, and they shall be represented in the diet by members of the federal council or by special commissioners appointed by said council.

Art. 17. To the emperor shall belong the right to prepare and publish the laws of the empire. The laws and regulations of the emperor shall be published in the name of the empire, and require for their validity the signature of the chancellor of the empire, who thereby becomes responsible for their execution.

Art. 18. The emperor shall appoint the officers of the empire, require them to take the oath of allegiance, and dismiss them when necessary. Officials appointed to an office of the empire from one of the states of the confederation shall enjoy the same rights to which they were entitled in their native states by their official position, provided no other legislative provision shall have been made previously to their entrance into the service of the empire.

Art. 19. If states of the confederation shall not fulfill their constitutional duties, proceedings may be instituted against them by military execution. This execution shall be ordered by the federal council, and enforced by the emperor.

#### V.—Diet

Art. 20. The members of the diet shall be elected by universal suffrage, and by direct secret ballot. Until regulated by law, which is reserved by section 5 of the election law of May 31, 1869 (*Bundesgesetzblatt*, 1869, section 145.) 48 delegates shall be elected in Bavaria, 17 in Würtemberg, 14 in Baden, 6 in Hesse, south of the river Main, and the total number of delegates shall be 382.<sup>1</sup>

Art. 21. Officials shall not require a leave of absence in order to enter the diet. When a member of the diet accepts a salaried office of the empire, or a salaried office in one of the states of the confederation, or accepts any office of the empire, or of a state, with which a high rank or salary is connected, he shall forfeit his seat and vote in the diet, but may recover his place in the same by a new election.

Art. 22. The proceedings of the diet shall be public. Truthful reports of the proceedings of the public sessions of the diet shall subject those making them to no responsibility.

Art. 23. The diet shall have the right to propose laws within the jurisdiction of the empire, and to refer petitions addressed to it to the federal council or the chancellor of the empire.

Art. 24. Each legislative period of the diet shall last three years.<sup>2</sup> The diet may be dissolved by a resolution of the federal council, with the consent of the emperor.

Art. 25. In the case of a dissolution of the diet, new elections shall take place within a period of sixty days, and the diet shall reassemble within a period of ninety days after the dissolution.

Art. 26. Unless by consent of the diet, an ad-

jourment of that body shall not exceed the period of thirty days, and shall not be repeated during the same session, without such consent.

Art. 27. The diet shall examine into the legality of the election of its members and decide thereon. It shall regulate the mode of transacting business, and its own discipline, by establishing rules therefor, and elect its president, vice-presidents, and secretaries.

Art. 28. The diet shall pass laws by absolute majority. To render the passage of laws valid, the presence of the majority of the legal number of members shall be required. [When passing laws which do not affect the whole empire, according to the provisions of this constitution, the votes of only those members shall be counted who shall have been elected in those states of the confederation which the laws to be passed shall affect.]<sup>1</sup>

Art. 29. The members of the diet shall be the representatives of the entire people, and shall not be subject to orders and instructions from their constituents.

Art. 30. No member of the diet shall at any time suffer legal prosecution on account of his vote, or on account of utterances made while in the performance of his functions, or be held responsible outside of the diet for his actions.

Art. 31. Without the consent of the diet, none of its members shall be tried or punished, during the session, for any offense committed, except when arrested in the act of committing the offense, or in the course of the following day. The same rule shall apply in the case of arrests for debt. At the request of the diet, all legal proceedings instituted against one of its members, and likewise imprisonment, shall be suspended during its session.

Art. 32. The members of the diet shall not be allowed to draw any salary [or be compensated] as such.<sup>2</sup>

#### VI.—Customs and commerce

Art. 33. Germany shall form a customs and commercial union, having a common frontier for the collection of duties. Such territories as cannot, by reason of their situation, be suitably embraced within the said frontier, shall be excluded. It shall be lawful to introduce all articles of commerce of a state of the confederation into any other state of the confederation, without paying any duty thereon, except so far as such articles are subject to taxation therein.

Art. 34. The Hanseatic towns, Bremen and Hamburg, shall remain free ports outside of the common boundary of the customs union, retaining for that purpose a district of their own, or of the surrounding territory, until they shall request to be admitted into the said union.

Art. 35. The empire shall have the exclusive power to legislate concerning everything relating to the customs, the taxation of salt and tobacco manufactured or raised in the territory of the confederation; concerning the taxation of manufactured brandy and beer, and of sugar and sirup prepared from beets or other domestic productions. It shall have exclusive power to legislate concerning the mutual protection of taxes upon articles of consumption levied in the several states of the empire; against embezzlement; as well as concerning the measures which are required, in granting exemption from the payment of duties, for the security

<sup>1</sup> Clause in brackets repealed, Feb. 24, 1873.

<sup>2</sup> Changed May 21, 1906, the law adding, "They shall receive an indemnification as provided by law."—To wit, 3000 marks and free railroad transportation during sessions of Reichstag and each eight days before and after its session.

<sup>1</sup> By law of June 25, 1873, fifteen additional members are elected from Alsace-Lorraine.

<sup>2</sup> Changed to five years, March 19, 1888.

of the common customs frontier. In Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden, the matter of imposing duties on domestic brandy and beer is reserved for the legislature of each country. The states of the confederation shall, however, endeavor to bring about uniform legislation regarding the taxation of these articles.

Art. 36. The imposing of duties and excises on articles of consumption, and the collection of the same (article 35), is left to each state of the confederation within its own territory, so far as this has been done by each state heretofore. The emperor shall have the supervision of the institution of legal proceedings by officials of the empire, whom he shall designate as adjuncts to the custom or excise offices, and boards of directors of the several states, after hearing the committee of the confederate council on customs and revenues. Notices given by these officials as to defects in the execution of the laws of the empire (article 35) shall be submitted to the confederate council for action.

Art. 37. In taking action upon the rules and regulations for the execution of the laws of the empire, (article 35,) the vote of the presiding officer shall decide, whenever he shall pronounce for upholding the existing rule or regulation.

Art. 38. The amounts accruing from customs and other revenues designated in article 35 of the latter, so far as they are subject to legislation by the diet, shall go to the treasury of the empire. This amount is made up of the total receipts from the customs and other revenues, after deducting therefrom—1. Tax compensations and reductions in conformity with existing laws or regulations. 2. Reimbursements for taxes unduly imposed. 3. The costs for collection and administration, viz.: a. In the department of customs, the costs which are required for the protection and collection of customs on the frontiers and in the frontier districts. b. In the department of the duty on salt, the costs which are used for the pay of the officers charged with collecting and controlling these duties in the salt mines. c. In the department of duties on beet-sugar and tobacco, the compensation which is to be allowed, according to the resolutions of the confederate council, to the several state governments for the costs of the collection of these duties. d. Fifteen per cent. of the total receipts in the departments of the other duties. The territories situated outside of the common customs frontier shall contribute to the expenses of the empire by paying an 'aversum,' (a sum of acquittance). [Bavaria, Württemberg, and Baden shall not share in the revenues from duties on liquors and beer, which go into the treasury of the empire, nor in the corresponding portion of the aforesaid 'aversum.']<sup>1</sup>

Art. 39. The quarterly statements to be regularly made by the revenue officers of the federal states at the end of every quarter, and the final settlements (to be made at the end of the year, and after the closing of the account-books) of the receipts from customs, which have become due in the course of the quarter, or during the fiscal year, and the revenues of the treasury of the empire, according to article 38, shall be arranged by the boards of directors of the federal states after a previous examination, in general summaries in which every duty is to be shown separately; these summaries shall be transmitted to the federal committee on accounts. The latter provisionally fixes, every three months, taking as a basis these summaries, the amount due to the treasury of the empire from the treasury of each state, and it shall inform the federal council and the federal states of this act;

furthermore, it shall submit to the federal council, annually, the final statement of these amounts, with its remarks. The federal council shall act upon the fixing of these amounts.

Art. 40. The terms of the customs-union treaty of July 8, 1867, remain in force, so far as they have not been altered by the provisions of this constitution, and as long as they are not altered in the manner designated in articles 7 and 78.

## VII.—Railways

Art. 41. Railways, which are considered necessary for the defense of Germany or for purposes of general commerce, may be built for the account of the empire by a law of the empire, even in opposition to the will of those members of the confederation through whose territory the railroads run, without detracting from the rights of the sovereign of that country; or private persons may be charged with their construction and receive rights of expropriation. Every existing railway company is bound to permit new railroad lines to be connected with it, at the expense of these latter. All laws granting existing railway companies the right of injunction against the building of parallel or competition lines are hereby abolished throughout the empire, without detriment to rights already acquired. Such right of injunction can henceforth not be granted in concessions to be given hereafter.

Art. 42. The governments of the federal states bind themselves, in the interest of general commerce, to have the German railways managed as a uniform net-work, and for this purpose to have the lines constructed and equipped according to a uniform system.

Art. 43. Accordingly, as soon as possible, uniform arrangements as to management, shall be made, and especially shall uniform regulations be instituted for the police of the railroads. The empire shall take care that the administrative officers of the railways lines keep the roads always in such a condition as is required for public security, and that they be equipped with the necessary rolling stock.

Art. 44. Railway companies are bound to establish such passenger trains of suitable velocity as may be required for ordinary travel, and for the establishment of harmonizing schedules of travel; also, to make provision for such freight trains as may be necessary for commercial purposes, and to establish, without extra remuneration, offices for the direct forwarding of passengers and freight trains, to be transferred, when necessary, from one road to another.

Art. 45. The empire shall have control over the tariff of fares. The same shall endeavor to cause—1. Uniform regulations to be speedily introduced on all German railway lines. 2. The tariff to be reduced and made uniform as far as possible, and particularly to cause a reduction of the tariff for the transport of coal, coke, wood, minerals, stone, salt, crude iron, manure, and similar articles, for long distances, as demanded by the interests of agriculture and industry, and to introduce a one-penny tariff as soon as practicable.

Art. 46. In case of distress, especially in case of an extraordinary rise in the price of provisions, it shall be the duty of the railway companies to adopt temporarily a low special tariff, to be fixed by the emperor, on motion of the competent committee, for the forwarding of grain, flour, vegetables, and potatoes. This tariff shall, however, not be less than the lowest rate for raw produce existing on the said line. The foregoing provisions, and those

<sup>1</sup> Partially repealed in June, 1906.

of articles 42 to 45, shall not apply to Bavaria. The imperial government has, however, the power, also with regard to Bavaria, to establish, by way of legislation, uniform rules for the construction and equipment of such railways as may be of importance for the defense of the country.

Art. 47. The managers of all railways shall be required to obey, without hesitation, requisitions made by the authorities of the empire for the use of their roads for the defense of Germany. Particularly shall the military and all material of war be forwarded at uniform reduced rates.

#### VIII.—Mails and telegraphs

Art. 48. The mails and telegraphs shall be organized and managed as state institutions throughout the German empire. The legislation of the empire in regard to postal and telegraphic affairs, provided for in article 4, does not extend to those matters whose regulation is left to the managerial arrangement, according to the principles which have controlled the North German administration of mails and telegraphs.

Art. 49. The receipts of mails and telegraphs are a joint affair throughout the empire. The expenses shall be paid from the general receipts. The surplus goes into the treasury of the empire. (Section 12.)

Art. 50. The emperor has the supreme supervision of the administration of mails and telegraphs. The authorities appointed by him are in duty bound and authorized to see that uniformity be established and maintained in the organization of the administration and in the transaction of business, as also in regard to the qualifications of employes. The emperor shall have the power to make general administrative regulations, and also exclusively to regulate the relations which are to exist between the post and telegraph offices of Germany and those of other countries. It shall be the duty of all officers of the post-office and telegraph department to obey imperial orders. This obligation shall be included in their oath of office. The appointment of superior officers (such as directors, counselors, and superintendents,) as they shall be required for the administration of the mails and telegraphs, in the various districts; also the appointment of officers of the posts and telegraphs (such as inspectors of comptrollers,) acting for the aforesaid authorities in the several districts, in the capacity of supervisors, shall be made by the emperor for the whole territory of the German empire, and these officers shall take the oath of fealty to him as a part of their oath of office. The governments of the several states shall be informed in due time, by means of imperial confirmation and official publication, of the aforementioned appointments, so far as they may relate to their territories. Other officers required by the department of mails and telegraphs, as also all officers to be employed at the various stations, and for technical purposes, and hence officiating at the actual centers of communication, &c., shall be appointed by the respective governments of the states. Where there is no independent administration of inland mails or telegraphs, the terms of the various treaties are to be enforced.

Art. 51. In assigning the surplus of the post-office department to the treasury of the empire for general purposes, (article 49,) the following proceeding is to be observed in consideration of the difference which has heretofore existed in the clear receipts of the post-office departments of the several territories, for the purpose of securing a suitable equalization during the period of transition

below named. Of the post-office surplus, which accumulated in the several mail districts during the five years from 1861 to 1865, an average yearly surplus shall be computed, and the share which every separate mail district has had in the surplus resulting therefrom for the whole territory of the empire shall be fixed upon by a percentage. In accordance with the proportion thus made, the several states shall be credited on the account of their other contributions to the expenses of the empire with their quota accruing from the postal surplus in the empire, for a period of eight years subsequent to their entrance into the post-office department of the empire. At the end of the said eight years this distinction shall cease, and any surplus in the post-office department shall go, without division, into the treasury of the empire, according to the principle enunciated in article 49. Of the quota of the post-office department surplus resulting during the aforementioned period of eight years in favor of the Hanseatic towns, one-half shall every year be placed at the disposal of the emperor, for the purpose of providing for the establishment of uniform post-offices in the Hanseatic towns.

Art. 52. The stipulations of the foregoing articles 48 to 51 do not apply to Bavaria and Würtemberg. In their stead the following stipulation shall be valid for these two states of the confederation. The empire alone is authorized to legislate upon the privileges of the post-office and telegraph departments, on the legal position of both institutions toward the public, upon the franking privilege and rates of postage, and upon the establishment of rates for telegraphic correspondence into Hanseatic towns. Exclusive, however, of managerial arrangements, and the fixing of tariffs for internal communication within Bavaria and Würtemberg. In the same manner the empire shall regulate postal and telegraphic communication with foreign countries, excepting the immediate communication of Bavaria and Würtemberg with their neighboring states, not belonging to the empire, in regard to which regulation the stipulations in article 49 of the postal treaty of November 23, 1867, remains in force. Bavaria and Würtemberg shall not share in the postal and telegraphic receipts which belong to the treasury of the empire.

#### IX.—Marine and navigation

Art. 53. The navy of the empire is a united one, under the supreme command of the emperor. The emperor is charged with its organization and arrangement, and he shall appoint the officers and officials of the navy, and in his name these and the seamen are to be sworn in. The harbor of Kiel and the harbor of the Jade are imperial war harbors. The expenditures required for the establishment and maintenance of the navy and the institutions connected therewith shall be defrayed from the treasury of the empire. All sea-faring men of the empire, including machinists and hands employed in ship-building, are exempt from service in the army, but obliged to serve in the imperial navy. [The apportionment of men to supply the wants of the navy shall be made according to the actual sea-faring population, and the quota furnished in accordance herewith by each state shall be credited to the army account.]

Art. 54. The merchant vessels of all states of the confederation shall form a united commercial marine. The empire shall determine the process for ascertaining the tonnage of sea-going vessels, shall regulate the issuing of tonnage-certificates and sea-letters, and shall fix the conditions to which a per-

mit for commanding a sea-going vessel shall be subject. The merchant vessels of all the states of the confederation shall be admitted on an equal footing to the harbors, and to all natural and artificial water-courses of the several states of the confederation, and shall receive the same usage therein. The duties which shall be collected from sea-going vessels, or levied upon their freights, for the use of naval institutions in the harbors, shall not exceed the amount required for the maintenance and ordinary repair of these institutions. On all natural water-courses, duties are only to be levied for the use of special establishments, which serve for facilitating commercial intercourse. These duties, as well as the duties for navigating such artificial channels, which are property of the state, are not to exceed the amount required for the maintenance and ordinary repair of the institutions and establishments. These rules apply to rafting, so far as it is carried on on navigable water-courses. The levying of other or higher duties upon foreign vessels or their freights than those which are paid by the vessels of the federal states or their freights does not belong to the various states, but to the empire.

Art. 55. The flag of the war and merchant navy shall be black, white, and red.

#### X.—Consular affairs

Art. 56. The emperor shall have the supervision of all consular affairs of the German empire, and he shall appoint consuls, after hearing the committee of the federal council on commerce and traffic. No new state consulates are to be established within the jurisdiction of the German consuls. German consuls shall perform the functions of state consuls for the states of the confederation not represented in their district. All the now existing state consulates shall be abolished, as soon as the organization of the German consulates shall be completed, in such a manner that the representation of the separate interests of all the federal states shall be recognized by the federal council as secured by the German consulates.

#### XI.—Military affairs of the empire

Art. 57. Every German is subject to military duty, and in the discharge of this duty no substitute can be accepted.

Art. 58. The costs and the burden of all the military system of the empire are to be borne equally by all the federal states and their subjects, and no privileges or molestations to the several states or classes are admissible. Where an equal distribution of the burdens cannot be effected 'in natura' without prejudice to the public welfare, affairs shall be equalized by legislation in accordance with the principles of justice.

Art. 59. Every German capable of bearing arms shall serve for seven years in the standing army, ordinarily from the end of his twentieth to the beginning of his twenty-eighth year; [the first three years in the army of the field, the last four years in the reserve; during the next five years he shall belong to the militia. In those states of the confederation in which heretofore a longer term of service than twelve years was required by law, the gradual reduction of the required time of service shall take place in such a manner as is compatible with the interests and the war-footing of the army of the empire.]<sup>1</sup> As regards the emigration of men

belonging to the reserve, only those provisions shall be in force which apply to the emigration of members of the militia.

Art. 60. The strength of the German army in time of peace shall be, until December 31, 1871, one per cent. of the population of 1867, and shall be furnished by the several federal states in proportion to their population. In future the strength of the army in time of peace shall be fixed by legislation.

Art. 61. After the publication of this constitution the full Prussian military system of legislation shall be introduced without delay throughout the empire, as well the statutes themselves as the regulations, instructions, and ordinances issued for their execution, explanation, or completion; thus, in particular, the military penal code of April 3, 1845; the military orders of the penal court of April 3, 1845; the ordinance concerning the courts of honor of July 20, 1843; the regulations with respect to recruiting, time of service, matters relating to the service and subsistence, to the quartering of troops, claims for damages, mobilizing, &c., for times of peace and war. Orders for the attendance of the military upon religious services is, however, excluded. When a uniform organization of the German army shall have been established, a comprehensive military law for the empire shall be submitted to the diet and the federal council for their action in accordance with the constitution.

Art. 62. For the purpose of defraying the expenses of the whole German army, and the institutions connected therewith, the sum of 225 (two hundred and twenty-five) thalers shall be placed at the disposal of the emperor until December 31, 1871, for each man in the army on the peace-footing, according to article 60. (See section 12.) After December 31, 1871, the payment of these contributions of the several states to the imperial treasury must be continued. The strength of the army in time of peace, which has been temporarily fixed in article 60, shall be taken as a basis for calculating these amounts until it shall be altered by a law of the empire. The expenditure of this sum for the whole army of the empire and its establishments shall be determined by a budget law. In determining the budget of military expenditures, the lawfully established organization of the imperial army, in accordance with this constitution, shall be taken as a basis.

Art. 63. The total land force of the empire shall form one army, which, in war and in peace, shall be under the command of the emperor. The regiments, &c., throughout the whole German army shall bear continuous numbers. The principal colors and the cut of the garments of the Royal Prussian army shall serve as a pattern for the rest of the army. It is left to commanders of contingent forces to choose the external badges, cockades, &c. It shall be the duty and the right of the emperor to take care that, throughout the German army, all divisions be kept full and well equipped, and that unity be established and maintained in regard to organization and formation, equipment, and command in the training of the men, as well as in the qualification of the officers. For this purpose the emperor shall be authorized to satisfy himself at any time of the condition of the several contingents, and to provide remedies for existing he shall belong to the national guard (*Landwehr*) of first summons, and then to the national guard of second summons until the thirty-first day of March of the year in which he reaches the age of thirty-nine years. During the period of service in the standing army the members of the cavalry and of the mounted field artillery are required to serve the first three years in unbroken active service; all other forces are required to give the first two years in active service.

<sup>1</sup> Altered by law of Feb. 11, 1888; again by law of April 15, 1905, whereby the portion in brackets was replaced by the following: During the next five years

defects. The emperor shall determine the strength, composition, and division of the contingents of the imperial army, and also the organization of the militia, and he shall have the right to designate garrisons within the territory of the confederation, as also to call any portion of the army into active service. In order to maintain the necessary unity in the care, arming, and equipment of all troops of the German army, all orders hereafter to be issued for the Prussian army shall be communicated in due form to the commanders of the remaining contingents by the committee on the army and fortifications, provided for in article 8, No. 1.

Art. 64. All German troops are bound implicitly to obey the orders of the emperor. This obligation shall be included in the oath of allegiance. The commander-in-chief of a contingent, as well as all officers commanding troops of more than one contingent, and all commanders of fortresses, shall be appointed by the emperor. The officers appointed by the emperor shall take the oath of fealty to him. The appointment of generals, or of officers performing the duties of generals, in a contingent force, shall be in each case subject to the approval of the emperor. The emperor has the right with regard to the transfer of officers, with or without promotion, to positions which are to be filled in the service of the empire, be it in the Prussian army or in other contingents, to select from the officers of all the contingents of the army of the empire.

Art. 65. The right to build fortresses within the territory of the empire shall belong to the emperor, who, according to section 12, shall ask for the appropriation of the necessary means required for that purpose, if not already included in the regular appropriation.

Art. 66. If not otherwise stipulated, the princes of the empire and the senates shall appoint the officers of their respective contingents, subject to the restriction of article 64. They are the chiefs of all the troops belonging to their respective territories, and are entitled to the honors connected therewith. They shall have especially the right to hold inspections at any time, and receive, besides the regular reports and announcements of changes for publication, timely information of all promotions and appointments concerning their respective contingents. They shall also have the right to employ, for police purposes, not only their own troops but all other contingents of the army of the empire who are stationed in their respective territories.

Art. 67. The unexpended portion of the military appropriation shall, under no circumstances, fall to the share of a single government, but at all times to the treasury of the empire.

Art. 68. The emperor shall have the power, if the public security of the empire demands it, to declare martial law in any part thereof; until the publication of a law regulating the grounds, the form of announcement, and the effects of such a declaration, the provisions of the Prussian law of June 4, 1851, shall be substituted therefor. (Laws of 1851, page 451.)

#### Addition to section XI

The provisions contained in this section shall go into effect in Bavaria as provided for in the treaty of alliance of November 23, 1870, (Bundesgesetzblatt, 1871, section 9,) under III, section 5, in Württemberg, as provided for in the military convention of November 21-25, 1870, (Bundesgesetzblatt, 1870, section 658.)

## XII.—Finances of the empire

Art. 69. All receipts and expenditures of the empire shall be estimated yearly, and included in the financial estimate. The latter shall be fixed by law before the beginning of the fiscal year, according to the following principles:

Art. 70. [The surplus of the previous year, as well as the customs duties, the common excise duties, and the revenues derived from the postal and telegraph service, shall be applied to the defrayal of all general expenditure. In so far as these expenditures are not covered by the receipts, they shall be raised, as long as no taxes of the empire shall have been established, by assessing the several states of the empire according to their population, the amount of the assessment to be fixed by the chancellor of the empire in accordance with the budget agreed upon.]<sup>1</sup>

Art. 71. The general expenditure shall be, as a rule, granted for one year; they may, however, in special cases, be granted for a longer period. During the period of transition fixed in article 60, the financial estimate, properly classified, of the expenditures of the army shall be laid before the federal council and the diet for their information.

Art. 72. An annual report of the expenditure of all the receipts of the empire shall be rendered to the federal council and the diet, through the chancellor of the empire.

Art. 73. In cases of extraordinary requirements, a loan may be contracted in accordance with the laws of the empire, such loan to be granted by the empire.

#### Addition to section XII

Articles 69 and 71 apply to the expenditures for the Bavarian army only according to the provisions of the addition to section XI of the treaty of November 23, 1870; and article 72 only so far as is required to inform the federal council and the diet of the assignment to Bavaria of the required sum for the Bavarian army.

## XIII.—Settlement of disputes and modes of punishment

Art. 74. Every attempt against the existence, the integrity, the security, or the constitution of the German empire; finally, any offense committed against the federal council, the diet, a member of the federal council, or of the diet, a magistrate or public official of the empire, while in the execution of his duty, or with reference to his official position, by word, writing, printing, signs, or caricatures, shall be judicially investigated, and upon conviction punished in the several states of the empire, according to the laws therein existing, or which shall hereafter exist in the same, according to which laws a similar offense against any one of the states of the empire, its constitution, legislature,

<sup>1</sup> Article 70, as amended May 14, 1904.—For the defrayal of all common expenses there shall serve first of all the joint revenues derived from customs duties, from common taxes, from the railway, postal, and telegraph systems, and from the other branches of the administration. In so far as the expenditures are not covered by such receipts, they shall be met by contributions from the several states of the confederation in proportion to their population, such contributions to be fixed by the Imperial Chancellor, with reference to the total amount established by the budget. In so far as these contributions are not used, they shall be repaid to the states at the end of the year, in proportion as the other regular receipts of the empire exceed its needs. Any surpluses from preceding years shall be used, so far as the imperial budgetary law does not otherwise provide, for defraying the joint extraordinary expenses.



members of its legislature, authorities or officials is to be judged.

Art. 75. For those offences, specified in article 74, against the German empire, which, if committed against one of the states of the empire, would be deemed high treason, the superior court of appeals of the three free Hanseatic towns at Lubeck shall be the competent deciding tribunal in the first and last resort. More definite provisions as to the competency and the proceedings of the superior court of appeals shall be adopted by the legislature of the empire. Until the passage of a law of the empire, the existing competency of the courts in the respective states of the empire, and the provisions relative to the proceedings of those courts, shall remain in force.

Art. 76. Disputes between the different states of the confederation, so far as they are not of a private nature, and therefore to be decided by the competent authorities, shall be settled by the federal council, at the request of one of the parties. Disputes relating to constitutional matters in those of the states of the confederation whose constitution contains no provision for the settlement of such differences, shall be adjusted by the federal council, at the request of one of the parties, or, if this cannot be done, they shall be settled by the legislative power of the confederation.

Art. 77. If in one of the states of the confederation justice shall be denied, and no sufficient relief can be procured by legal measures, it shall be the duty of the federal council to receive substantiated complaints concerning denial or restriction of justice, which are to be judged according to the constitution and the existing laws of the respective states of the confederation, and thereupon to obtain judicial relief from the confederate government in the matter which shall have given rise to the complaint.

#### XIV.—General provision

Art. 78. Amendments of the constitution shall be made by legislative enactment. They shall be considered as rejected when fourteen votes are cast against them in the federal council. The provisions of the constitution of the empire, by which fixed rights of individual states of the confederation are established in their relation to the whole, shall only be modified with the consent of that state of the confederation which is immediately concerned.

GERMANY, Constitution of the republic.—On Jan. 19, 1919, a National Constituent Assembly was elected, which adopted a new constitution on July 31, to take effect on Aug. 13, 1919 (See GERMANY: 1919): "The document, containing a preamble and 181 articles, is divided into three parts: 'Structure and Functions of the Commonwealth,' 'Fundamental Rights and Duties of Germans' and 'Transitory and Final Regulations.' Part I consists of seven sections and Part II of five. Section I of the first part declares the German commonwealth (*Reich*) to be a republic, all public authority being derived from the people. It describes the territorial limits of the republic, designates the national colors and states that the generally recognized rules of international law are binding on the commonwealth. Then follows a long list of legislative rights reserved to the national government, within which individual states possess only subordinate powers or no powers at all. Section II treats of the National Assembly (*Reichstag*), composed of representatives of the people 'elected by universal, equal, direct and secret suffrage by all men and women over twenty years of age, in accordance with the principles of proportional representation' for a term of four years. The Assembly

is to meet each year and may be dissolved by the president of the commonwealth. Unless otherwise provided for, the Assembly acts by majority vote, and all proceedings are public. This section further provides that the Assembly and its committees may require the presence of the chancellor (*Reichskanzler*) and any minister at its meetings; on the other hand the chancellor, ministers and commissioners designated by them have the right to be present at sittings of the Assembly and of its committees. The individual states are entitled to send plenipotentiaries to submit the views of their cabinets (*Landesregierung*) on matters under consideration. Representatives of the national cabinet (*Reichsregierung*) shall be heard even outside the regular order of business. The section contains a number of articles dealing with the organization and function of assembly committees and concludes with a statement of the privileges and immunities, individual and collective; enjoyed by members. Section III is concerned with the national president (*Reichspräsident*) and the national cabinet. Any German thirty-five years of age is eligible for the election to the presidency. While elected directly by the people for a seven-year term and reeligible, the president is subject to popular recall on the initiative of the Assembly; such a resolution by the Assembly suspends him, but failure of the recall automatically dissolves the Assembly, thus necessitating a new election. The president is commander-in-chief of all the armed forces of the commonwealth, but war cannot be declared or peace concluded except by legislative act; alliances and treaties with foreign states require the consent of the National Assembly only if they relate to subjects covered by national laws. All orders and direction of the president, including those concerning the armed forces, require for their validity the counter-signature of the chancellor or appropriate ministers; it is explicitly stated that by such countersigning the responsibility is assumed. The president has the power to pardon, but general amnesties require national legislation. The chancellor and the ministers compose the cabinet or government; the president names the chancellor and upon his recommendation appoints and dismisses the ministers. The chancellor or appropriate ministers; it is exclusively responsible to the Assembly and must resign if the Assembly by formal resolution withdraw its confidence. The president, chancellor and ministers may be impeached by the Assembly in accordance with a detailed procedure. In Section IV the old Federal Council (*Bundesrat*) emerges as the National Council (*Reichsrat*); in it each state has at least one vote; in the case of the larger states one vote is accorded for every million inhabitants or fraction thereof equal to the population of the smallest state, but no state shall be accredited with more than two-fifths of all votes. No state shall have more than one vote in any committee and the chairmanship of the Council, as well as of all committees, is to be filled by a member of the national cabinet. The plenary meetings of the Council are public. Section V, on national legislation, outlines the methods of enacting national laws; all bills are initiated by the cabinet or the Assembly. Introduction of bills by the cabinet requires the concurrence of the Council, although the former may present measures notwithstanding the non-consent of the latter. Popular referendum on any law may be had provided the president so orders within a month after its passage. A law the promulgation of which is deferred at the demand of at least one-third of the Assembly, shall be submitted to the people

if one-twentieth of the qualified voters so petition; a popular vote shall be resorted to on a measure initiated by the people if one-tenth of the qualified voters so demand. The Council has only a suspensive veto over legislation; if it refuses to concur, the Assembly may yield or renew its action either by a simple majority or a two-thirds vote; in the latter case the president must order a referendum. [See below: Article 74.] Provision is made in this section for constitutional amendment. [See below: Article 76.] 'The National Administration' is the title of Section VI; it deals with foreign relations, defence, communications (posts, telegraphs, telephone, navigation, roads, railroads and waterways), colonial policy, merchant marine, fiscal affairs, including tariff, and budgetary procedure. Section VII deals with the administration of justice. Judges are independent and subject only to law; extraordinary courts are illegal. Provision is made for administrative courts (*Reichsverwaltungsgericht*) for the protection of the individual against orders and decrees of administrative authorities. Section I of Part II enumerates the fundamental rights and duties of the individual. All Germans are equal before the law; men and women have the same civic rights and duties. The section provides for national citizenship, one state being forbidden to discriminate against a citizen of another state. Right of freedom of travel, of sojourn, of settlement, the acquisition of property, the pursuit of every legitimate means of livelihood, and personal liberty, as well as freedom of speech and press, are guaranteed. Section II, relating to community life, directs that legislation shall be enacted for the compensation of families with numerous children, protection of motherhood, proper physical, mental and social development of children, illegitimate as well as legitimate, protection of youth against exploitation, freedom of assembly and of association, liberty and secrecy of the suffrage, right of petition and right of communal self-government. In this section provision is also made for the civil service. The question of religion and religious societies is treated in Section III; all inhabitants are to enjoy complete freedom of worship and of conscience. While there is no established church, freedom of organization for religious purposes is guaranteed, and such organizations as are recognized by law as corporate bodies are entitled to raise taxes subject to regulations by the state. Sundays and legal holidays are protected as days of rest and spiritual edification. The subject of education and schools is dealt with in Section IV; the entire school system is under the supervision of the state. Eight years' compulsory attendance at school is made a minimum requirement, and arrangement is made for continuation schools for instruction up to eighteen years of age. Provision is made for different types of schools and for the training of teachers for the same. Perhaps the most striking feature of the entire Constitution is the introduction in Section V of clauses relating to the socialization of business enterprise and the economic organization of the community. All natural resources are under control of the state. Subject to certain limitations, the right of private property and inheritance is guaranteed. But all private economic enterprises which are adapted to the purpose may be socialized. Labor is placed under the special protection of the commonwealth, and the right of combination for the protection and promotion of industrial conditions is guaranteed to everybody. Guild Socialism is fostered by a system of workers' and employers' councils, which share with the political organization in the

control of industry. Part III is relatively unimportant.—On September 2, 1919, the government was informed by the Supreme Council that that part of the Constitution providing for the representation of Austria (Article 61) conflicted with the Peace Treaty and was, therefore, unallowable. This ruling was bitterly denounced in many parts of the country."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, pp. 113-116.—See also GERMANY: 1918 (November).

The text of the constitution follows:

### Preamble

The German people, united in all its branches and with the determination to build up and strengthen its domain in liberty and justice, to preserve peace, both at home and abroad, and to foster social progress, has adopted the following Constitution:

### Composition and functions of the government

Article 1.—The German National State is a Republic. The power of the State is derived from the people.

Art. 2.—The territory of the nation consists of the territories of the German States. Other territories may be taken into the Government by national law, when their inhabitants, by a vote of self-determination, express such a desire.

Art. 3.—The national colors are black-red-gold. The trade flag is black-white-red, with the national colors on the upper inside corner.

Art. 4.—The universally recognized principles of the laws of nations are accepted as binding elements of the laws of the German Nation.

Art. 5.—The power of the National State shall be exercised through the agencies of the Government on the basis of the Constitution in all matters affecting the nation, and in all matters affecting the respective States through the agencies of such States on the basis of their respective Constitutions.

Art. 6.—The Government has the exclusive right of legislation over:

1. Foreign relations.
2. Colonial matters.
3. State property, right of changing residence, immigration and emigration, and extradition.
4. Military organization.
5. Coinage.
6. Customs, including the unification of customs and trade districts and the free circulation of wares.
7. Posts, telegraphs, and telephones.

Art. 7.—The Government has right of legislation over:

1. Civil law.
2. Criminal law.
3. Judicial proceedings, including the execution of penalties and co-operation between departments.
4. Passports and police for aliens.
5. Poor laws and vagrancy.
6. Press, associations, and assemblies.
7. Population policy; provisions affecting maternity, nurslings, young children and adolescent.
8. National health, veterinaries, protection of plants from disease and pests.
9. Labor law, insurance, and protection of workmen and employes and employment agencies.
10. The organization of trade representation in the nation.
11. Provision for war veterans and their survivors.

12. The right of alienation of property.

13. The socialization of natural treasures and economic undertakings, as well as the production, organization, distribution, and evaluation of economic goods for the community.

14. Trade, weights and measures, issue of paper money, banks and stock exchanges.

15. Traffic in food articles and luxuries, as well as objects of daily need.

16. Industrial pursuits and mining.

17. Insurance.

18. Navigation, fishing on the high sea and along the coasts.

19. Railways, internal navigation, communication by vehicles propelled by power on land, on sea, and in the air, construction of highways, in so far as general communications and national defense are concerned.

20. Theatres and cinematographs.

Art. 8.—The Government further possesses legislative power over taxes and other sources of income, in so far as they may be claimed in whole or in part for its purposes. In the event that the Government claims taxes or other forms of income which formerly belonged to its confederated States, it will be bound to consider the maintenance of such States' vital means of support.

Art. 9.—Whenever a need for centralized control occurs the Government has a right of legislation over:

1. Community welfare.

2. Protection of public order and security.

Art. 10.—The Government in respect to legislation may lay down principles for:

1. The rights and duties of religious associations.

2. Schools, high schools, and scientific publications.

3. The official rights of all public bodies.

4. Land rights, land divisions, settlements and homesteads, title or landed property, habitations, and distribution of inhabitants.

5. Interments.

Art. 11.—The Government in respect to legislation may lay down principles for the permissibility and mode of collection of taxes, in order to prevent:

1. Injury to income or to trade relations of the nation.

2. Double taxation.

3. Excessive and burdensome taxes on the use of public ways of communication which hinder traffic, and of tollways.

4. Tax disadvantages of imported wares as compared with domestic products in trade between the various States and State districts, or,

5. To exclude or to conserve important communal interests.

Art. 12.—So long and in so far as the Government makes no use of its right of legislation, the confederated States possess the right of legislation. This does not apply to the exclusive legislation of the Government.

The Government has the right, wherever the welfare of the community is involved, to veto law of confederated States related to the objects of article 7, Section 13.

Art. 13.—Government law transcends States' law. In case there should arise doubt or difference of opinion as to whether State legislation is in harmony with Government legislation, the proper officials of the Government or the central State officials, according to the specific prescription of a Government law, may resort to the decision of a highest national court.

Art. 14.—The laws of the Government will be

exercised through the State officials, unless the national laws provide otherwise.

Art. 15.—The Government administration exercises supervision in matters over which the nation has the right of legislation.

In so far as the laws of the Government are to be exercised by State officials, the Government Administration may issue general directions. It has the power to send commissioners to the central State authorities, and, with their approval, also to subordinate officials, to supervise the fulfillment of the Government laws.

The State Administrations are charged, at the request of the Government Administration, to eliminate defects in the execution of the national laws. In case of differences of opinion, the Government Administration, as well as the State Administration, may resort to the decision of the Supreme Court, in case another court is not prescribed by Government law.

Art. 16.—Those officials charged with the direct administration of Government in the different States shall, as a rule, be appointed from citizens of the given State. The officials, employes, and workmen of the Government Administration will, when desired, be employed in their home districts as far as proves possible, and whenever consideration of their training or of the demands of the service present no objection.

Art. 17.—Every State must have a republican Constitution. The people's representatives must be chosen in universal, equal, direct and secret vote cast by all German men and women citizens on the basis of proportional representation. The State Administration shall require the confidence of the people's representatives.

The election basis for popular representation applies also for the community elections. Through State law, however, the right to vote may be made to depend on the length of residence in the community to the extent of one year.

Art. 18.—The division of the Government into States shall serve the highest economic and cultural interests of the people after most thorough consideration of the will of the population involved. Changes in State boundaries and the reconstruction of States within the nation may occur on the passing of a national law changing the Constitution.

If the States directly involved agree, a simple Government law will suffice.

A simple Government law will be sufficient, further, if one of the States involved does not agree but the territorial change or reconstruction is demanded by the will of the population and a predominating national interest requires it.

The will of the population is to be determined by referendum. The National Administration will sanction such a vote when a third of the inhabitants qualified to vote for the Reichstag, and who belong to the territory whose separation is opposed, demand it.

To determine a territorial change or reconstruction three-fifths of the votes cast, or at least a majority of votes cast by qualified voters, shall be required. Even when a separation of only a part of a Prussian administrative district, a Bavarian circle, or, in other States, a corresponding administrative district, is involved, the will of the population of the whole district under consideration must be determined. If a considerable dependence of the district to be separated on the whole region does not exist, the will of the population of the district to be separated may be pronounced sufficient on the basis of a special Government law.

After the consent of the population has been manifested by vote, the Government Administration must lay before the Reichstag a corresponding law for enactment.

In case dispute arises over financial or property details when such union or separation is accomplished, the Supreme Court of Germany, if charged therewith by one of the parties may give a decision.

Art. 19.—In the case of constitutional disputes within a State in which no court exists that may resolve them, as well as in the case of disputes of a non-private nature between different States or between the Government and a State, the National Supreme Court, at the request of one of the parties in dispute, shall decide, in case another court of the Government does not have jurisdiction.

The National President executes the decision of the Supreme Court.

### The Reichstag

Art. 20.—The Reichstag shall consist of the deputies of the German people.

Art. 21.—The delegates are representatives of the whole people. They are subject only to their own conscience and shall not be bound by any orders.

Art. 22.—The delegates shall be chosen on the basis of universal, equal, direct and secret vote by all men and women over the age of 20, in accordance with the principles of proportional representation. The day for elections must be a Sunday or a public day of rest.

Other details will be determined by the Government election law.

Art. 23.—The Reichstag will be elected for four years. New elections must occur at latest after the expiration of sixty days following its expiration.

The Reichstag will convene at latest on the thirtieth day after election.

Art. 24.—The Reichstag will meet each year on the first Wednesday in November at the seat of the National Government. The President of the Reichstag must call it earlier, if the President of the Republic, or at least a third of the members of the Reichstag demand it.

The Reichstag shall determine the close of session and the day of reconvention.

Art. 25.—The President of the Republic may dissolve the Reichstag, but only once for the same cause.

New elections shall occur at latest on the sixtieth day after such dissolution.

Art. 26.—The Reichstag shall choose its President, as well as his representative, and its secretary. It shall determine its own order of business.

Art. 27.—Between two adjournments or election periods the President and his representative of the last session shall continue all necessary business.

Art. 28.—The President shall exercise the power of law and police duty in the Reichstag building. The management of the House is subject to him; he shall have power over the incomes and disbursements of the House, in accordance with the standard of Government economy, and shall represent the Government in all legal business and litigation arising in his administration.

Art. 29.—The Reichstag's proceedings will be public. At the request of fifty members the public may be excluded on a two-thirds majority vote.

Art. 30.—Truthful reports of the proceedings in open sessions of the Reichstag, of a Provincial

Parliament or of their committees shall carry no responsibility.

Art. 31.—A Court of Election Control shall be formed in the Reichstag. This court shall decide the question whether a delegate shall lose membership or not.

This Court of Election Control shall consist of members of the Reichstag, which the latter chooses for the election period, and of members of the Government Court of Administration, to be appointed by the President of the Republic at the suggestion of the President of this court.

This Court of Election Control shall form its decisions on the basis of public oral discussions conducted by three members of the Reichstag and two judicial members.

Besides the proceedings of the Court of Election Control, other proceedings will be instituted by a Government Commissioner appointed by the President of the Republic. These proceedings, however, shall be regulated by the Court of Election Control.

Art. 32.—To make any decision of the Reichstag valid, a simple majority vote shall be required, in so far as the Constitution does not prescribe a different ratio of voting. For elections to be undertaken by the Reichstag the Committee on Rules may admit exceptions.

The determination of a decision will be regulated by the Committee on Rules.

Art. 33.—The Reichstag and its committee may demand the presence of the National Chancellor and of any other Government Minister.

The Chancellor, the Government Ministers, and their duly appointed representatives shall have access to the sessions of the Reichstag and of its committees. The confederated States shall possess the right to send their plenipotentiaries to these sessions to interpret the views of their State Governments regarding the object of discussion.

At their request the representatives of the State Government must receive a hearing during the discussion, and the representatives of the National Government must be heard also outside the order of the day.

They shall, however, be subject to the control of the Chairman in matters of order.

Art. 34.—The Reichstag has the right and, at the request of one-fifth of its members, the duty of appointing committees of investigation. These committees in open session shall bring to light the evidence which they, or the members proffering the request, shall consider required. Publicity may be excluded by the committee of investigation by a two-thirds majority vote. The Committee on Rules shall regulate the proceedings of the committee and determine the number of its members.

The judicial and administrative officials shall comply with requests made by these committees for information evidence, and the records of these officials shall on request be laid before them. The prescriptions of the penal code shall have application to the investigations of these committees and of the officials by them petitioned, but the secrecy of letter and parcel post, telegraph, and telephone services shall be undisturbed.

Art. 35.—The Reichstag shall appoint a standing committee for outside matters, whose activity shall exist also outside the session and after the close of the election period until the reconvention of the new Reichstag. The sittings of this committee shall not be public, unless the committee by a two-thirds majority vote decides for publicity.

The Reichstag further shall appoint a standing committee to maintain the rights of the popular representatives as against the Government Admin-

istration outside of session and after the close of the election period.

These committees shall have the rights of investigating committees.

Art. 36.—No member of the Reichstag or of a Provincial Parliament shall at any time, because of his vote or because of any opinions expressed in the fulfillment of his duty, be judicially or officially prosecuted or in any way be held for responsibility outside the Assembly.

Art. 37.—No member of the Reichstag or of a Provincial Parliament shall, without approval of the house to which the delegate belongs, be subjected to investigation or arrest during the session on account of any action involving penalty, unless the member is arrested in the act, or, at latest, on the following day.

The same approval is required in the case of every other limitation of personal freedom which hinders the fulfillment of the delegate's legislative duties.

Every criminal proceeding against a member of the Reichstag or of a Provincial Parliament and every arrest or other limitation of his personal freedom shall, at the demand of the house to which the delegate belongs, be revoked for the period of the session.

Art. 38.—The members of the Reichstag and the Provincial Parliaments are empowered to refuse evidence concerning persons who have given them information in their capacity as delegates, or to whom, in the fulfillment of their duties as delegates, they have given such information, as well as to testify concerning such information. In regard also to the seizure of documents their position shall be the same as that of all persons who by law are given the right of refusal of evidence.

A search or seizure may be undertaken in the precincts of the Reichstag or of a Provincial Parliament only with the consent of the President.

Art. 39.—Officials and members of the army need no leave to fulfill their office as members of the Reichstag or of a Provincial Parliament.

If they become candidates for a seat in these bodies the necessary leave shall be granted them to prepare for their election.

Art. 40.—The members of the Reichstag shall have the right of free transport over all German railway lines, and also compensation as prescribed by a national law.

### The National President and the government

Art. 41.—The President of the Republic shall be chosen by the whole German people. Every German who has completed his thirty-fifth year is qualified for election. Further details are determined by a national law [see also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: Germany].

Art. 42.—The National President, on assuming his office before the Reichstag, shall take the following oath:

I swear to consecrate all my energy to the welfare of the German people, to increase its advantages, to avert its injury, to preserve the Constitution and the laws of the nation, to fulfill my duties conscientiously, and to deal justly with all.

The addition of a religious declaration shall be permissible.

Art. 43.—The duration of the President's tenure of office shall be seven years. Re-election shall be permissible.

Before the expiration of his term the President may be deposed by a referendum, at the request

of the Reichstag. The decision of the Reichstag shall require a two-thirds majority vote. Through such decision the President shall be prohibited from further exercise of his office. Rejection of his deposition by a referendum shall count as a new election and entail the dissolution of the Reichstag.

The National President shall not be subject to prosecution without the sanction of the Reichstag.

Art. 44.—The President may not at the same time be a member of the Reichstag.

Art. 45.—The President shall represent the nation in matters of international law. He shall in the nation's name conclude alliances and other treaties with foreign powers. He shall accredit and receive Ambassadors.

Declaration of war and conclusion of peace shall be subject to national law.

Alliances and treaties with foreign States, related to subjects covered by national law, shall require the approval of the Reichstag.

Art. 46.—The President shall appoint and dismiss Government officials and military officers, if not otherwise provided by law. He can exercise this right of appointment or dismissal through other officials.

Art. 47.—The President has supreme command over all the military forces of the nation.

Art. 48.—If any State shall not fulfill the duties prescribed for it by the Constitution or by Government laws the President of the Republic may hold it to such fulfillment with the aid of armed power.

The President, in the event that public security and order in the German Nation should be considerably disturbed or endangered, may take all necessary measures to re-establish such public security and order, and, if required, to intervene with the aid of armed power. To this end he may provisionally abrogate, in whole or in part, the fundamental laws established in Articles 114, 115, 117, 118, 123, 124, and 153.

The President must immediately inform the Reichstag of all measures provided for by Paragraphs 1 or 2 of this article. These measures may be revoked at the demand of the Reichstag.

In case of danger from delay the Provincial Government may take provisional measures of the kind mentioned in Paragraph 2 for its own territory. These measures may be revoked at the demand of the President of the republic or of the Reichstag. Details are provided by a Government law.

Art. 49.—The President of the Republic shall exercise for the Government the right of pardon. Government amnesties require a national law.

Art. 50.—All arrangements and dispositions of the President of the Republic, including those concerning the army, to become valid must be countersigned by the Prime Minister or by duly qualified Government Ministers. Responsibility shall ensue upon this countersigning.

Art. 51.—The President of the Republic, in case he is incapacitated, shall be represented by the National Chancellor. If such incapacity last for any considerable time, this representation shall be regulated by a Government law. The same provision shall apply in case of a premature vacancy of the Presidency until the new elections are completed.

Art. 52.—The administration of the Government shall consist of the National Chancellor and the Government Ministers.

Art. 53.—The Chancellor, and at his suggestion the Ministers of the Government, shall be appointed and dismissed by the President of the republic.

Art. 54.—The Chancellor and the Government Ministers shall require the confidence of the Reichstag for the fulfillment of their office. Any of them must withdraw in the event that the Reichstag by explicit resolution withholds its confidence.

Art. 55.—The Chancellor shall preside in the Government Administration and shall conduct its affairs in accordance with an order of business, which shall be determined by the Administration and approved by the President of the Republic.

Art. 56.—The Prime Minister shall determine the line of policy and shall assume responsibility therefor to the Reichstag. Within this line each and every Government Minister shall conduct independently the field of activity allotted to him, assuming his own responsibility to the Reichstag.

Art. 57.—The Ministers of Government are charged to lay before the Government Administration for discussion and decision all drafts of law, all matters so prescribed by Constitution or law, and all differences of opinion over various questions which concern the functions of several Government Ministers.

Art. 58.—The Government Administration shall ratify its decisions on the basis of majority vote. In case of a tie the vote of the presiding officer shall be decisive.

Art. 59.—The Reichstag is empowered to enter a complaint before the Supreme Court of the German Nation against the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister and the Government Ministers, on the ground of their having violated the Constitution or a Government law. The proposal to initiate this complaint must be signed by at least 100 members of the Reichstag and requires the approval of the majority prescribed for alteration of the Constitution. Other details will be regulated by the Government law applying to the National Supreme Court.

### The National Council

Art. 60.—A National Council [Reichsrat] shall be formed for representation of the German States in national legislation and administration.

Art. 61.—In the National Council every State shall have at least one vote. In the case of the larger States one vote will be accorded to every million inhabitants. Any excess equal at least to the population of the smallest State will be estimated as equal to a full million. No State shall be represented by more than two-fifths of all votes.

German-Austria, after its union with the German Nation, shall receive the right of participation in the National Council with the number of votes corresponding to its population. Until that time the representatives of German-Austria shall have a deliberative voice. [The Allied Supreme Council demanded a revision of the clause referring to German-Austria.]

The number of votes shall be newly determined through the National Council after every general census.

Art. 62.—In committees formed by the National Council from its own members, no State shall have more than one voice.

Art. 63.—The States shall be represented in the National Council through members of their respective Governments. But half of the Prussian votes will be disposed of according to a State law, by the Prussian Provincial Administrations.

The States shall have the right to send as many representatives to the National Council as they have votes.

Art. 64.—The Government Administration shall

be bound to summon the National Council at the demand of one-third of its members.

Art. 65.—The Presidency of the National Council and of its committees shall be filled by a member of the Government Administration. The members of the Government Administration shall have the right, and, on demand, the duty, to participate in the dealings of the National Council and its committees. During its sittings they shall, if they so desire, be given a hearing at any time.

Art. 66.—The Government Administration, as well as every member of the State Council, are authorized to make proposals in the National Council. The National Council shall regulate the conduct of its proceedings through an order of business. The plenary sessions of the National Council shall be public. According to the order of business, the public may be excluded for special objects of discussion. A simple majority of the voters shall be decisive in voting.

Art. 67.—The National Council shall be kept informed by the National Ministries of the conduct of national business. The proper committees of the National Council shall be summoned by the National Ministries for deliberations over important subjects.

### National legislation

Art. 68.—Projects of legislation shall be introduced by the Government or from the body of the Reichstag. The laws of the nation shall be determined by the Reichstag.

Art. 69.—The introduction of legislative projects by the Government Administration shall require the assent of the National Council. In the event that the Government Administration and the National Council shall not agree, the Government Administration may nevertheless introduce the project, but shall be bound to record the dissent of the National Council.

In case the National Council approve a project of legislation and the Government Administration disapprove it, the latter shall introduce the project in the Reichstag with an exposition of its own standpoint.

Art. 70.—The National President shall make a compilation of all laws created according to the Constitution and within one month publish it in the Government Legislative Record.

Art. 71.—All Government laws shall come into force, unless otherwise specified, on the fourteenth day following the date of the issue of the Government Legislative Record in the nation's capital.

Art. 72.—The publication of a Government law may be deferred for two months, if so demanded by one-third of the Reichstag. Laws which the Reichstag and the National Council declare as urgent may be published by the President of the Republic without regard to such demand.

Art. 73.—A law approved by the Reichstag must be referred to the people before its publication if the President of the Republic so decrees within a month. A law whose publication is deferred at the demand of at least one-third of the Reichstag must be laid before the people for decision, if one-twentieth of qualified voters make such proposal.

A referendum shall further be resorted to if one-tenth of qualified voters express the desire that a project of law shall be proposed. A fully elaborated project of law must be the basis of such desire. The Government must lay this project of law before the Reichstag and explain its own stand regarding it. The referendum shall not occur if the desired project of law is accepted by the Reichstag without alteration. Only the President

of the Republic may call a referendum for matters concerning the budget, tax laws, and salary payments. A national law shall regulate the procedure to be followed in a referendum or a project of law desired by the people.

Art. 74.—The National Council shall have the right of veto against laws approved by the Reichstag. This veto must be entered before the Reichstag by the Government within two weeks after ratification, and within two further weeks at the latest must be circumstantiated.

In the event of such veto the law shall be laid before the Reichstag for a second decision. If the Reichstag and the National Council do not agree, the President of the Republic may within three months refer the subject of dispute to a referendum. In case the President does not avail himself of this right, the law will be considered not to have been passed. If the Reichstag rejects the protest of the National Council on the basis of a two-thirds majority vote, the President shall publish the law in the form accepted by the Reichstag within three months, or else decree a referendum.

Art. 75.—Through a referendum a Reichstag decision may be nullified only when a majority of the qualified voters participate in the voting.

Art. 76.—In respect to legislation the Constitution may be altered. But decisions of the Reichstag on alteration of the Constitution shall be valid only when two-thirds of the lawful membership are present, and at least two-thirds of those present give their assent. Decisions of the National Council on alteration shall also require a two-thirds majority of all votes cast. In case a change of Constitution is determined by popular desire through a referendum, the assent of a majority of qualified voters shall be required.

In the event that the Reichstag determine on an alteration of the Constitution against the protest of the National Council the President of the Republic need not publish this law, if the National Council demand a referendum within two weeks.

Art. 77.—The Government shall issue the general administrative decrees required for the execution of the national laws where no other provision is made by law. The assent of the National Council is necessary when the execution of the laws is incumbent on State officials.

### National administration

Art. 78.—Relations with foreign States concern the nation exclusively.

In matters regulated by provincial law the confederated States may conclude treaties with foreign States. These treaties require the consent of the nation.

Agreements with foreign States regarding change of national boundaries may be concluded by the nation on consent of the State involved. Alterations of the boundaries may occur only on the basis of a Government law, except in cases where mere correction of the boundaries of uninhabited districts is in question.

To assure the representation of interests arising for special States through their special economic relations or their proximity to foreign countries, the Government shall decide on the measures and arrangements required in concert with the States involved.

Art. 79.—The defense of the nation concerns the nation. The military organization of the German people shall be placed under unified control by a Government law in which the special provincial institutions shall be given due consideration.

Art. 80.—Colonial administration concerns the nation exclusively.

Art. 81.—All German merchant ships shall constitute a unified trade fleet.

Art. 82.—Germany forms a customs and trade territory surrounded by a common customs boundary. This customs boundary shall be identical with the frontier boundary. On the coast the shore line of the mainland and of the islands belonging to the national territory constitute the customs boundary. Exceptions may be determined for the customs line running along the seacoast and other waters. Foreign territories or parts of territories may be annexed to the customs territory by national treaties or agreements.

Parts of the customs territory may be excluded on special request. In the case of free ports this exclusion may occur only through a law altering the Constitution. Customs districts excluded may be annexed to a foreign customs district through national treaties or agreements.

All natural products, as well as arts and crafts products, may in the free intercourse of the nation be transported into, out of, or across the boundaries of the various States and communities. Exceptions may be permitted by a Government law.

Art. 83.—Customs and excise of articles of consumption shall be administered through Government officials. Measures shall be provided for the administration of Government taxes through Government officials which shall enable the confederated States to maintain special State interests in the spheres of agriculture, trade, crafts, and industry.

Art. 84.—The Government shall provide by law for:

1. The organization of the administration of taxes in the different States so far as shall be required for the unified and regular fulfillment of the national tax laws.

2. The organization and functions of the officials charged with supervision of the execution of the national tax laws.

3. Balance accounts with the confederated States.

4. The reimbursement of the costs of administration in the execution of the national tax laws.

Art. 85.—All revenues and disbursements of the nation must be computed for every fiscal year and entered in the budget. The budget shall be confirmed before the beginning of the fiscal year by law. The expenses shall regularly be appropriated for one year; in special cases they may be approved for a longer period. In other cases provision in the budget law extending beyond the fiscal year or not relating to the revenues and expenses of the nation or its administration shall be prohibited.

The Reichstag, in the drawing up of the budget, may not increase or add new expenses without the consent of the National Council. The consent of the National Council may be replaced according to the provisions of Article 74.

Art. 86.—For the employment of all national revenue the Minister of Finance shall in the following fiscal year, to cover the responsibility of the administration, submit an account of reckoning to the National Council and to the Reichstag. The auditing of this account shall be regulated by national law.

Art. 87.—In the matter of credit, moneys shall be procured only in case of extraordinary need and regularly only for expenses connected with promotion. Such procuring of moneys, as well as the assumption by the Government of a security obli-

gation, may occur on the strength of a Government law.

Art. 88.—The post and telegraph services, together with the telephone service, concern the nation exclusively. The postage stamp symbols shall be the same for the whole nation.

The Government Administration shall, with the consent of the National Council, issue decrees laying down principles and duties in the use of means of communication. With the consent of the National Council it may extend this authority to the Postmaster General.

The Government Administration, with the consent of the State Council, shall appoint a supplementary council for advisory co-operation in postal, telegraph, telephone communications, and the regulation of prices.

Only the Government shall conclude treaties dealing with communications with foreign countries.

Art. 89.—It is the nation's duty to take over railroads serving general traffic, with all their property, and to manage them as a unified system of communication.

Art. 90.—With the taking over of the railroads the Government shall also take over the right of property alienation and the supreme State rights relating to railway organization. The National Supreme Court shall decide the scope of such rights in case of disputes.

Art. 91.—The Government Administration, with the consent of the State Council, shall issue decrees regulating the construction, the management, and the traffic of railways. With the consent of the National Council it may extend this authority to the proper Government Minister.

Art. 92.—The Government railways, irrespective of their budget and their accounts in the general budget and general accounts of the nation, shall be administered as an independent economic undertaking, which shall defray its own expenses, including interest and cancellation of the railway debt, and shall set aside a railway sinking fund. The amount of the cancellation and of the sinking fund, as well as the objects for which money shall be applied, shall be regulated by special laws.

Art. 93.—Acting for the Government railways, with the consent of the National Council, the Government Administration shall appoint supplementary councils for advisory co-operation in matters of railway traffic and transportation charges.

Art. 94.—In the event that the Government has taken over into its administration the railways of a certain district which serve general transport needs, within that district new railways serving such general transportation needs may be built only by the Government or by its consent. In case such construction of new railways, or alterations of existing railway organizations, concern the sphere of authority of the State police, the Railway Administration, before decision, must grant a hearing to the State officials.

In case the Government has not yet taken over the railways, it may administer on its own account railways considered essential for general transportation, or for national defense, by virtue of Government laws and despite the opposition of the States which they traverse, yet without infringing sovereign State rights, or it may give over construction rights to another, if necessary, also according right of alienation.

Every Railway Administration must consent to connection with other railway lines at the latter's expense.

Art. 95.—Railways for general traffic not admin-

istered by the Government are subject to the supervision of the Government.

The railways thus subjected to Government supervision are to be controlled and equipped according to the same principles, to be determined by the Government. They shall be maintained in safe condition and to be extended as necessity demands. Transportation of persons and goods shall, as need arises, be provided for and equipment furnished.

In the supervision of the cost of transportation, the supervisors shall work toward a uniform and a low railway rate.

Art. 96.—All railways, including those not serving general traffic needs, must comply with the demands of the Government for use of the railways for the purpose of national defense.

Art. 97.—It is the duty of the Government to take over for administration all waterways serving general communications. After such taking over, such waterways serving general communications may be applied or extended only by the Government or with its consent. In administering, extending, or reconstructing such waterways the needs of agriculture and irrigation shall be preserved in co-operation with the States affected. The claims of the latter shall also be regarded.

Every administration of waterways must agree to amalgamation with other inner waterways at the cost of the undertakers. The same obligation exists for the construction of a connecting way between inner waterways and railways.

In taking over the waterways the Government shall assume the right of alienation and authority over transportation cost and the policing of waters and navigation.

The task of bunding water communications in connection with the extension of natural waterways in the Rhine, Weser, and Elbe regions is to be undertaken by the Government.

Art. 98.—Supplementary councils shall be formed with the consent of the National Council by specific decree of the Government Administration for co-operation in matters affecting waterways and national waterways.

Art. 99.—Expenses on natural waterways shall be incurred only for such works, establishments, and other institutions as are destined to facilitate communication. In the case of State and community institutions they must not exceed the expenses required for repair and maintenance. The costs of repair and maintenance for institutions not intended exclusively to facilitate communication, but also to further other purposes, may be increased by navigation expenses only to a relative degree. Sums paid for interest and debt cancellation shall be included in costs for maintenance.

The provisions of the preceding clause apply to the disbursements incurred for artificial waterways as well as for constructions on such and in harbors.

The total costs of a waterway, a river district, or a system of waterways may be reckoned as fundamental in matters of inner navigation for the estimation of navigation expenses.

These provisions apply also to timber floating on navigable waterways.

Only the Government may impose other or higher taxes on foreign ships and their cargoes than on German ships and their cargoes.

For the procuring of means for the maintenance and equipment of the German system of waterways the Government may call on the participators in navigation for contributions in other ways.

Art. 100.—To cover the cost of maintenance and construction of inner navigation routes any person who in any other way than through navigation



derives profit from the construction of dams that shut off valleys may also be called upon for contribution, whenever several States are involved, or the Government bears the cost of the outlay.

Art. 101.—It is the duty of the Government to take over as its own property and into its own administration all sea signals, especially lighthouses, lightships, buoys, floats, and beacons. After such taking over sea signals may be repaired or improved only by the Government or with its consent.

#### Administration of justice

Art. 102.—Judges shall be independent and subject only to the law.

Art. 103.—Regular justice shall be administered through the national courts and through the State courts.

Art. 104.—Judges administering regular justice shall be appointed for life. They may be permanently or temporarily removed from office, or transferred to another office, or retired against their will, only by virtue of judicial decision and for the grounds and in the forms provided by law. The law code may fix age limitations, on reaching which Judges may be retired. The temporary relief from office consequent on law is not affected by this article.

In case of a change in the organization of the courts or their jurisdiction districts the administration of justice in the provinces may decree transfer against desire to another court or removals from office, but only under allowances of full salary.

These provisions have no application to commercial Judges, rural Justices, and jurymen.

Art. 105.—Extraordinary courts are illegal. No one shall be removed from the jurisdiction of his legal Judge. Provisions made by law for martial courts and military courts are not affected hereby. Military courts of honor are suspended.

Art. 106.—Military justice is to be suspended, except in time of war or on board warships. Further details are regulated by national law.

Art. 107.—Administrative courts both of the nation and the States must, according to law, protect the individual against dispositions and provisions of administrative officials.

Art. 108.—According to national law a National Supreme Court is established for the German Nation.

#### Fundamental rights and duties of the Germans—The individual

Art. 109.—All Germans are equal before the law. Men and women have fundamentally the same civil rights and duties. Public advantages or disadvantages of birth or rank are to be suspended. Titles of nobility shall be accepted only as part of a name and may not be conferred any longer. Titles may be conferred only when they designate an office or a profession; academic degrees are not affected by this provision. Orders and insignias of orders may not be conferred by the State. No German may accept a title or order from a foreign Government.

Art. 110.—Citizenship in the nation and the States may be acquired or lost, according to the provisions of national law. Every citizen of a State is at the same time a citizen of the nation. Every German in every State of the nation has the same rights and duties as the citizens of the State itself.

Art. 111.—All Germans enjoy the right of free travel throughout the whole nation. Every one

has the right of sojourn and settlement in any place within the nation, the right to acquire real estate and to pursue every means of livelihood. Limitations require the issuance of a Government decree.

Art. 112.—Every German has the right to emigrate to countries outside Germany. Emigration may be limited only by national law. All citizens of the nation have right of protection by the Government both within and without the national boundaries as against foreign countries. No German may be delivered over to a foreign Government for prosecution or punishment.

Art. 113.—Those elements of the nation speaking a foreign language may not be impaired judicially or administratively in their free and popular development, especially in the use of their mother tongue for instruction, or in matters of internal administration and the administration of justice.

Art. 114.—Freedom of the person cannot be impaired. An impairment or withdrawal of personal liberty through public power is admissible only as prescribed by law. Persons, whose freedom is taken from them, are to be informed at latest on the following day by what official and on what grounds their liberty was taken from them, and they shall immediately receive an opportunity to present objections against this loss of freedom.

Art. 115.—The home of every German is his place of refuge and cannot be violated. Exceptions are admissible only as prescribed by law.

Art. 116.—No action can be penalized, if penalty is provided by law, before the action has been committed.

Art. 117.—Secrecy of letters and of postal, telegraph and telephone services cannot be impaired. Exceptions may be admissible only as prescribed by national law.

Art. 118.—Every German has the right within the limits of the general laws to express his opinion by word, in writing, printing, by picture, or in any other way. No connection with his labor or employment shall hinder him in the exercise of this right, and no one may injure him if he makes use of this right.

No censorship exists, though different provisions may be passed by law in the case of moving pictures. Legal measures are also permissible for combating obscene and indecent literature, as well as for the protection of youth at public plays and spectacles.

#### The social life

Art. 119.—Marriage, as the foundation of family life and of the maintenance and increasing of the nation, is under the particular protection of the Constitution. It is based upon the equal rights of both sexes. The maintaining of the purity, the health, and the social advancement of the family is the task of the State and the communities. Families with numerous children have a claim for compensating care. Motherhood has a claim upon the protection and care of the State.

Art. 120.—The education of offspring to physical, mental, and social efficiency is the highest duty and natural right of parents, whose activities are watched over by the political community.

Art. 121.—Illegitimate children are to be provided by legislation with the same conditions for their physical, mental, and social development as those of legitimate children.

Art. 122.—Youth is to be protected against exploitation, as well as against a lack of moral, mental, or physical guarantees. The State and the communities are to take the necessary steps to

this end. Compulsory measures for welfare can be ordered only on the basis of the law.

Art. 123.—All Germans have the right to gather in meetings peaceably and unarmed without announcement or particular permission. Meetings in the open may be made liable to previous announcement by a national law and, in the presence of immediate danger to the public order, may be forbidden.

Art. 124.—All Germans have the right to form societies or associations for purposes not contrary to the penal law. This right cannot be limited through preventive measures. The same provisions apply to religious societies and unions.

Every association has the right to acquire legal character in accordance with the civil law. No society may be refused this right because it pursues a political, social-political, or religious object.

Art. 125.—Liberty of the suffrage and its secrecy are guaranteed. Details will be laid down by the election laws.

Art. 126.—Every German has the right to appeal to the competent authorities or to the representatives of the people with written requests or grievances. This right may be exercised by individuals as well as by several persons together.

Art. 127.—Communities and community associations have the right of self-administration within the limits of the law.

Art. 128.—All citizens of the State, without distinction, are to be admitted to public office according to the provisions of the law and their abilities. All exceptional regulations against female officials and employes are set aside. The principles of official relations are to be regulated by a national law.

Art. 129.—The employment of State officials is for life, in so far as it is not provided differently by law. Pension-salaries and pensions for relatives and dependents are regulated by law. The legally acquired rights of the officials are inviolable. The legal way is open to officials for their property claims. The officials can be suspended, either temporarily or definitely, or transferred to another position with smaller salary, only under legal provisions.

Against every demand for punishment in the service a form of appeal and the possibility for a reopening of the trial are to be provided. In the investigation of the person of an official, facts against the official are to be recorded only when the official has had the opportunity to express himself as to the complaint. The official is to be permitted to inspect the complaint.

The inviolability of the acquired rights and the maintenance of the legal way for property complaints are especially assured to the professional soldier. For the rest, their position is regulated by national law.

Art. 130.—The officials are servants of the whole community, not of a party. To all officials freedom of their political beliefs and right of association is assured. The officials receive, according to special provisions in the national law, special representation as officials.

Art. 131.—In case an official during the exercise of his public duties violates the duties which he owes to a third person, the responsibility comes upon the State or the authority in whose services the official is. The right to take counteraction against the official is reserved by the State. The regular lawful way shall not be excluded. The detail regulation comes under the apportioning legislation.

Art. 132.—Every German, according to the pro-

vision of the law, has the duty to accept honorary offices.

Art. 133.—All citizens are obliged, according to law, to perform personal service for the State and the community. The duty of military service is regulated according to the National Army law. This determines also how far certain fundamental provisions are to be restricted for the members of the army in order that they may fulfill their duties and that military discipline may be preserved.

Art. 134.—All citizens, without any distinction, shall contribute according to their means to carrying all public burdens, according to the provisions of the law.

#### Religion and religious societies

Art. 135.—All inhabitants of the nation shall enjoy complete liberty of worship and conscience. Undisturbed enjoyment of religious liberties is assured by the Constitution and is under national protection. This provision leaves the general national laws untouched.

Art. 136.—Civic rights, State rights and duties are neither conditioned nor limited by the enjoyment of religious liberties. The enjoyment of civic and State rights as well as admission to public office are independent of religious beliefs. No one is bound to reveal his religious belief. The authorities have the right to ask for the affiliation to a religious society in so far as rights and duties depend thereon, or in case a lawfully organized census demands such information.

No one is to be forced to participate in church duties or church festivities, or to take part in religious exercises, or be compelled to give a religious oath.

Art. 137.—No State Church is recognized. Freedom of organization for religious purposes is assured. The union of religious societies within the nation is not restricted. Every religious society regulates and administers its affairs independently within the limits of the law. It appoints its officers without the co-operation of the State or the municipality. Religious societies acquire legality according to the prescriptions of the civic laws. The religious societies remain organizations of public law, in so far as they were such before. To other religious societies at their request the same rights are to be accorded, if by their constitution and the number of their members they give the guarantee of permanency. An amalgamation into a federation of a number of such public religious societies makes of such federation a public corporation.

Religious societies, which are recognized public corporations, are entitled, on the basis of the civic tax lists, to raise taxes according to the provisions of the respective State laws.

Societies which have as their aim the cultivation of a world conception of life are put on an equal footing with religious societies.

In so far as the carrying out of this provision requires a further regulation, it comes under the respective State laws.

Art. 138.—State contributions to religious societies based on public law, contract or special legal titles are abrogated by State legislation. The fundamental laws pertaining to this come under national laws.

The right of property and other rights of public religious societies and religious assemblies in connection with institutions devoted to purposes of worship, teaching and charity purpose, as well as

religious foundations and other forms of property, are guaranteed.

Art. 139.—Sunday and national holidays remain lawfully protected as days of rest and spiritual elevation.

Art. 140.—To the members of the army is given the necessary time for the fulfilling of their religious duties.

Art. 141.—In so far as the need of worship and spiritual advice exists in hospitals, Houses of Correction, or other public institutions, religious societies are permitted to hold religious meetings. No compulsion shall obtain.

### Education and schools

Art. 142.—Art, science, and their teachings are free. The State accords them protection and takes part in their promotion.

Art. 143.—The education of the young is to be provided for through public institutions. In their establishment the nation, States, and communities work together.

The instruction of teachers is to be regulated on a uniform basis for the nation according to the generally recognized principles of higher education.

The teachers in the public schools have the rights and duties of State officials.

Art. 144.—The entire school system is under the supervision of the State; it can accord participation therein to the communities. The school supervision will be exercised by technically trained central officials.

Art. 145.—There shall be general compulsory attendance at school. This duty will be principally attended to by the popular school with at least eight years of instruction, and the following continuation schools up to the completion of the eighteenth year. Instruction books and other apparatus in the popular and continuation schools are free.

Art. 146.—The public school system is to be organically constructed. Upon a basic school for every one is erected the intermediate and high school system. For this superstructure the rule for guidance is the multiplicity of life's callings, and the acceptance of a child in a particular school depends upon his qualifications and inclinations, not upon the economic and social position or the religion of his parents.

Nevertheless, within the communities, upon the proposal of those entitled to instruction, there shall be erected popular schools of their faith or view of the universe, in so far as this does not interfere with a regulated conduct of the schools in the sense of Paragraph 1. Details will be laid down in the State legislation, according to the principles of a national law.

For the attendance of those in poor circumstances at the intermediate and higher schools, public means are to be supplied by the nation, States, and communities, with especial assistance to the parents of children regarded as adapted for education in the intermediate and higher schools, until the instruction period is ended.

Art. 147.—Private schools as a substitute for public schools require the approval of the State and are subject to the provincial laws. Approval is to be given if the private schools are not inferior to the public schools in their objects, their equipment, and the scientific competency of their teaching staffs; and when a division of the pupils according to the amount of property possessed by their parents is not demanded. Approval is

to be withheld when the economic and legal status of the teachers is not sufficiently guaranteed.

Private popular schools are to be allowed only when, for a minority entitled to instruction, whose desires must be considered according to Article 146, Paragraph 2, there exists in a community no public school of a given faith or world conception; or when the educational administration recognizes a particular pedagogical interest. Private preparatory schools are to be abolished. The existing law for private schools that do not serve as substitutes for the public schools remains in force.

Art. 148.—Moral education, civic sentiment, and personal and professional ability in the spirit of popular Germanism and of international reconciliation are to be striven for in all the schools. In giving instruction in public schools care must be taken not to hurt the feelings of those who think differently. Civics and labor instruction are branches of instruction in the schools. Every pupil will receive a copy of the Constitution upon completing his school duties. The system of popular education, inclusive of the popular high schools, is to be promoted by nation, States, and communities.

Art. 149.—Religious instruction is a regular branch of school instruction, except in the case of schools acknowledging no creed, or worldly schools. The imparting of religious instruction will be regulated by school legislation. It will be given in accord with the principles of the religious societies concerned, without prejudice to the State's right of supervision.

The imparting of religious instruction and the using of church forms are left to the desire of the teachers, and the participation of the pupils in religious studies and in church solemnities and acts is left to those who have the right of determining the child's religious education.

The theological Faculties of the colleges are maintained.

Art. 150.—The monuments of art, history, and nature, as well as the landscape, enjoy the protection and care of the State. It is the affair of the nation to prevent the removal of German art possessions to foreign lands.

### Economic life

Art. 151.—The regulation of economic life must correspond to the principles of justice, with the object of assuring to all a life worth living. Within these bounds the economic liberty of the individual is to be assured.

Legal compulsion is admissible only for the safeguarding of threatened rights or in the service of predominant demands of the public good.

The freedom of trade and industry is safeguarded according to the national laws.

Art. 152.—There is freedom of contract in economic relations within the limits of the law. Usury is forbidden. Legal arrangements that are in conflict with decent customs are null and void.

Art. 153.—Property is safeguarded by the Constitution. Its composition and limits are defined by the laws.

Confiscation can be carried out only for the benefit of the community as a whole and with due process of law. There will be appropriate compensation, as far as a national law may not otherwise prescribe. In the case of dispute as to the amount of the compensation the ordinary courts may be appealed to in so far as national laws do not provide otherwise. Confiscation by the nation from States, communities, and societies organized for the public welfare may be effected only

with compensation. Property implies a duty. Its use should at the same time be a service to the general welfare.

Art. 154.—The right of inheritance is safeguarded according to the civil law.

The State's part in the inheritance will be provided for by law.

Art. 155.—The division and use of the land will be watched over by the State in such a way as to prevent its misuse and to promote the object of insuring to every German a healthful dwelling and to all German families, especially those with numerous children, a dwelling and economic homestead corresponding to their needs. War veterans are to be specially considered in the homestead law to be created.

Real estate, the acquisition of which is necessary to meet housing needs, to encourage settling and bringing of land under cultivation, or to promote agriculture, may be expropriated. Entailments are to be dissolved.

The working and exploitation of the land is a duty of the land owner toward the community. An increase of value of land arising without the applying of labor or capital to the property is to be made to serve the community as a whole.

All mineral treasures and all economically useful forces of nature are under the control of the State. Private rights are to be turned over to the State through legislation.

Art. 156.—The nation may through law, without detriment to compensation, and with a proper application of the regulations covering expropriation, transfer to public ownership private economic enterprises adapted for socialization. The nation may itself take part in the administration of economic undertakings and societies, or transfer such right to States or communities, or insure itself a dominating influence in some other way.

Furthermore, the nation, in case of pressing necessity for the purpose of public business, may combine through law economic enterprises and societies on the basis of self-administration, with the object of insuring the co-operation of all the working sections of the people, of allowing employers and employees to participate in the administration, and of regulating the production, preparation, distribution, use and prices, as well as the import and export of economic goods, according to general economic principles.

The co-operatives of industry and husbandry and their associations, upon their request and with consideration for their composition and peculiarities, may be embodied in the common system of economics.

Art. 157.—Labor power is under the special protection of the nation. The nation will create uniform labor laws.

Art. 158.—Intellectual labor, the rights of the discoverer, the inventor and the artist, enjoy the protection and care of the nation.

The creations of German science, art and technique are to be protected and promoted abroad through international agreement.

Art. 159.—The right of combination for the defense and promotion of labor and economic conditions is guaranteed to everybody and to all professions. All agreements and measures which attempt to limit or impede this liberty are illegal.

Art. 160.—Any one employed as an office employe or a worker has the right to the time off necessary to exercise his civic rights and, so far as it does not materially injure the business, to fill public honorary offices conferred upon him. The law will define how far he may demand compensation,

Art. 161.—For the purpose of conserving health and the ability to work, of protecting motherhood and of guarding against the economic effects of age, debilities and the vicissitudes of life, the nation will create a comprehensive system of insurance, with the authoritative co-operation of the insured.

Art. 162.—The nation favors an international regulation of the legal status of the workers that strives for a general minimum measure of social rights for the whole working class of the world.

Art. 163.—It is the moral duty of every German, without prejudice to his personal liberty, so to use his intellectual and physical powers as is demanded by the welfare of the community.

Every German shall receive the possibility of earning his living through economic labor. In so far as the appropriate opportunity to work cannot be given to him his necessary maintenance will be looked after. Details will be arranged through special national laws.

Art. 164.—The independent middle class in agriculture, industry, and trade is to be favored in legislation and administration, and is to be protected against being overburdened and made victims of extortion.

Art. 165.—The workers and office employes are qualified to take part with equal rights and in co-operation with the employers in the regulation of wage and labor conditions, as well as in the entire economic development of the productive forces. The organizations on both sides and their unions are recognized.

The workers and office employes receive legal representation in the Factory Workers' Councils, as well as in the District Workers' Councils grouped according to economic districts, and in a National Workers' Council, for the purpose of looking after their social and economic interests.

The District Workers' Councils and the National Workers' Council meet together with the representatives of the employers and of other interested circles of people in District Economic Councils and a National Economic Council for the purpose of carrying out the joint economic tasks and for co-operating in the putting into effect of the laws of socialization. The District Economic Councils and the National Economic Council are to be formed so as to provide for the proper representation therein of all the important trade groups according to their economic and social importance.

Social political and economic political drafts of laws of fundamental importance are to be submitted by the National Government to the National Economic Council for its opinion before presentation. The National Economic Council has the right itself to propose such plans of laws. If the National Government does not agree with it, it has the right, nevertheless, to present the proposal to the Reichstag with an exposition of its standpoint. The National Economic Council may have its proposal represented by one of its members before the Reichstag.

The Workers' and Economic Councils may have conferred upon them the powers of control and administration in the fields turned over to them.

The building up of the Workers' and Economic Councils and the defining of their duties, as well as their relations to other social self-administrative bodies, are exclusively matters of the nation

#### Transitory and final regulations

Art. 166.—Until the establishment of the National Administrative Court the National Court will take its place in forming the Court for Examining Elections.

Art. 167.—The regulations of Article 18, Paragraphs 3 to 6, become effective two years after the announcement that the Constitution has gone into force.

Art. 168.—Until the promulgation of the State law provided for in Article 63, but at the most for only one year, all the Prussian votes in the National Council may be cast by members of the Government.

Art. 169.—The National Government will determine when the regulation laid down in Article 83, Paragraph 1, is to become effective.

Art. 170.—The Postal and Telegraph Administrations of Bavaria and Württemberg will be taken over by the nation not later than April 1, 1921.

If no understanding has been reached over the terms of their taking over by Oct. 1, 1920, the matter will be decided by the Supreme Court.

The former rights and duties of Bavaria and Württemberg remain in force until the act of taking over. Nevertheless, the postal and telegraph traffic with neighboring foreign countries will be regulated exclusively by the nation.

Art. 171.—The State railroads, waterways, and ocean signal systems are to be taken over by the nation not later than April 1, 1921.

If no understanding has been reached over the terms of their taking over by Oct. 1, 1920, the matter will be decided by the Supreme Court.

Art. 172.—Until the national law regarding the Supreme Court becomes effective its powers will be exercised by a Senate of seven members, four of whom are to be elected from among its members by the Reichstag and three by the National High Court. This Senate will arrange its own methods of procedure.

Art. 173.—Until the enactment of a national law according to Article 138, the existing State contributions to the religious societies based upon law, agreement, or special legal titles will continue.

Art. 174.—Until the enactment of the national law provided for in Article 146, Paragraph 2, the legal status existing will continue. The law will pay special attention to districts of the nation where a system of schools not separated according to faiths legally exists.

Art. 175.—The regulations of Article 100 do not apply to orders and decorations conferred for services in the war years of 1914-1919.

Art. 176.—All public officials and members of the army are to be sworn upon this Constitution. The details will be fixed by an order of the national President.

Art. 177.—Where in the existing laws it is provided that the oath be taken in connection with a religious form, the taking of the oath can be made legal by having the swearer say, leaving out the religious form, "I swear." For the rest the contents of the oath provided for in the laws remains undisturbed.

Art. 178.—The Constitution of the German Empire of April 16, 1871, and the law covering the temporary exercise of the national authority of Feb. 10, 1919, are annulled.

The other laws and regulations of the nation remain in force, in so far as they are not in contradiction with this Constitution. The arrangements contained in the Peace Treaty signed on June 28, 1919, at Versailles, are not affected by the Constitution.

Ordinances of the authorities legally issued on the strength of previously existing laws retain their power until annulled through other ordinances or legislation.

Art. 179.—In so far as reference is made in laws or ordinances to regulations and institutions which

are abolished by this Constitution their places will be taken by the corresponding regulations and institutions of this Constitution. In particular the place of the National Assembly will be taken by the Reichstag, that of the Committee of States by the National Council, and the place of national President elected on the strength of the law covering the temporary exercise of the national authority, by the national President elected under the authority of this Constitution.

The power to issue ordinances conferred upon the Committee of States through the former provisions is transferred to the national Government; the Government in issuing ordinances requires the approval of the National Council as laid down in this Constitution.

Art. 180.—Until the convening of the first Reichstag the National Assembly will function as the Reichstag. Until the installing of the first national President his office will be filled by the national President elected on the strength of the law covering the temporary exercise of the national authority.

Art. 181.—The German people have adopted and decreed this Constitution through its National Assembly. It goes into effect upon the day of its publication.

Weimar, July 31, 1919.

ALSO IN: R. Brunet, *New German constitution*.—M. R. Brunet, *La Constitution allemande du 11 Août, 1919*.—H. von Jan, *Die Wahl des Reichspräsidenten, Reichsgesetz, Wahlordnung*.

GERMINAL MONTH, seventh month of the year in the French revolutionary calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era and calendar.

GEROEFA. See GEREFA.

GERÔME, Lean-Leon (1824-1904), French painter and sculptor. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

GERONA, Siege of. See SPAIN: 1809 (February-June).

GERONIMO (c. 1834-1909), Apache chief. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1886.

GERONTES, Spartan senators, or members of the Gerusia. See SPARTA: Constitution ascribed to Lycurgus.

GERONTIUS, (d. 411), Roman military commander. See BRITAIN: 407.

GERONTOCRACY, name applied to the system of the Boyerists of Haiti. See HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: 1804-1880.

GEROUSIA, or Gerusia.—"There is the strongest reason to believe that among the Dorians, as in all the heroic states, there was, from time immemorial, a council of elders. Not only is it utterly incredible that the Spartan council (called the gerusia, or senate) was first instituted by Lycurgus, it is not even clear that he introduced any important alteration in its constitution or functions. It was composed of thirty members, corresponding to the number of the 'obes,' a division as ancient as that of the tribes. . . . The mode of election breathes a spirit of primitive simplicity: the candidates, who were required to have reached the age of sixty, presented themselves in succession to the assembly, and were received with applause proportioned to the esteem in which they were held by their fellow-citizens. These manifestations of popular feeling were noted by persons appointed for the purpose, who were shut up in an adjacent room, where they could hear the shouts, but could not see the competitors. He who in their judgment had been greeted with the loudest plaudits, won the prize—the highest dignity in the

commonwealth next to the throne."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 8.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 7; EPHORS; GREECE: B.C. 8th-5th centuries; SPARTA: Constitution ascribed to Lycurgus.

**GERRY**, Elbridge (1744-1814), American statesman. Member of Continental Congress, 1776-1780 and 1783-1785; at Constitutional convention, 1787; Congressman from Massachusetts, 1789-1793; sent on a mission to France with Marshall and Pinckney which resulted in what became known as the "X Y Z" affair; governor of Massachusetts, 1810-1812; vice president of the United States, 1813-1814. See GERRYMANDER; CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House: Gerrymander; U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence; 1787; 1797-1799.

**GERRYMANDER**.—"The word gerrymander was coined in Massachusetts in the spring of 1812. The apportionment which divided the state into districts that suggested the name was enacted February 11th of that year. Some of the districts were formed into fantastic shapes. Towns were separated and single towns were isolated from their proper counties. . . . Governor Gerry's name was used, since he had allowed the bill to become a law. . . . The word was immediately picked up by the Federalist press and widely used . . . for campaign purposes. But the Democratic newspapers were loath to apply their governor's name, thus modified to a partisan division of the state into districts."—E. C. Griffith, *Rise and development of the gerrymander*, pp. 16-19.—"The aim of gerrymandering is to so lay out the [electoral] districts as to secure in the greatest possible number of them a majority for the party which conducts the operation. This is done sometimes by throwing the greatest possible number of votes into a district which is anyhow certain to be hostile, sometimes by adding to a district where parties are equally divided some place in which the majority of friendly voters is sufficient to turn the scale."—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, pt. i, p. 165.—J. R. Commons states in "Proportional Representation" that "the gerrymander is an inevitable result of the district system," and that "the inequalities of the district system are not confined to the United States. They appear in all parliamentary countries." "The gerrymander came to be so successful a factor in the politics of the United States that it was exported and adopted by foreign countries. By 1871 the gerrymander was generally practiced in Switzerland and France."—E. C. Griffith, *Rise and development of the gerrymander*, p. 10.—The evil of the gerrymander in England is well illustrated in the following quotation: "If we draw a line across England from Lincolnshire to Devonshire, there were in 1880, on the south-east side, 99 county seats. In many of these the Conservatives had no contest, but the majority of the seats were fought, and the Liberals polled 96,000 votes against 116,000 given to the Tories. On this basis therefore the Liberals ought to have had, say, 40 seats and the Conservatives 59. As a matter of fact, however, they only secured 15 against 84. Moreover of this 15, five were minority seats; so that, but for the introduction of the principle of proportional representation, limited though it was, they would have only had 10 seats in the whole district, though fairly entitled to 40. Out of 60 members from Scotland and 28 from Wales, only 9 and 2 respectively are Conservatives."—J. Lubbock, *Representation*, pp. 17-18.—See also CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House: Gerrymander; INDIANA:

1897-1909; MICHIGAN: 1885-1895; 1913; APPORTIONMENT.

**GERSCHHEIM**, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1866.

**GERTRUYDENBERG**: Prince Maurice's siege and capture of (1593). See NETHERLANDS: 1588-1593.

Conferences at. See FRANCE: 1710.

**GERUSIA**. See GEROUSIA.

**GES NATIONS**, or **Crans**, aboriginal tribe of Brazil. See GUCK OR COCO GROUP; TUPI.

**GESITHCUND**. See GESITHS.

**GESITHS**, or **Gesithcund**, guard and private council of the early Anglo-Saxon kings. Apparently the gesith differed from the thegn only by a more strictly warlike character. See COMITATUS; ENGLAND: End of the 6th century.

**GESNER**, Johann Matthias (1691-1761), German scholar and teacher of the classics. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1906.

**GESNER**, Konrad von (1516-1565), Swiss naturalist. Author of "Bibliotheca universalis," "Historia animalium," and many others. See SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.

**GESOCRIBATE**. See BREST.

**GESORIACUM**, principal Roman port and naval station on the Gallic side of the English channel—afterwards called Bononia—modern Boulogne. "Gesoriacum was the terminus of the great highway, or military marching road, which had been constructed by Agrippa across Gaul."—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 4.

**GESSI**, Romolo (1831-1881), Italian explorer and governor of the province of Bahr-el-Ghazal. See EGYPT: 1870-1883.

**GETA**, Publius Septimius (189-212), Roman emperor, 211-212. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

**GETÆ**, ancient Thracian people. See THRACE: People; GOTHs: Origin; DACIA; SARMATIA.

**GETHSEMANE**, in the New Testament, an orchard east of Jerusalem where Jesus and His disciples went on the eve of the crucifixion. See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Jerusalem.

**GETTYSBURG**, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania).

**GETTYSBURG ADDRESS**, delivered by President Lincoln, November 19, 1863. See U. S. A.: 1863 (November).

**GETULIANS**, race of northern Africa. See LIBYANS.

**GEVAERT**, François Auguste (1828-1908), Belgian musician and historian of music. See MUSIC: Modern: 1800-1908.

**GEWISSAS**, earlier name of the West Saxons.

**GEYER ACT**, Missouri (1839). See MISSOURI: 1865-1920.

**GHAGS**. See ALBANIA: Early history.

**GHAZAN KHAN** (1271-1304), Mongol ruler of Persia, 1295-1304. See CRUSADES: 1209.

**GHAZNEVIDES**, Mohammedan dynasty of twenty-one consecutive rulers, which at the height of its power possessed an empire stretching from the Tigris to the Ganges. It was founded in the latter part of the 10th century and overthrown in 1186. See INDIA: 977-1290; TURKEY: 999-1183.

**GHAZNI**, or **Ghuznee**, ancient city in Afghanistan, now largely in ruins, with a population of about 4,000. It was formerly the capital of the great empire of the Ghaznevides; was captured by the British in their Afghan wars in 1839 and 1842. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842; 1842-1860.

**GHELUVELT**, village about five miles east of Ypres, Belgium. It was the scene of stubborn fighting between the Allies and Germans in 1914, and again in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I.

Western front: u, 8; w, 12; 1917: II. Western front: d, 23.

**GHENGHIS KHAN.** See JENGHIZ KHAN.

**GHENT**, city of Belgium at the confluence of the Lys with the Scheldt, capital of East Flanders. Population in 1920 was 105,910. See NETHERLANDS: Map.

1337.—Revolt under Jacques van Artevelde. See FLANDERS: 1335-1337.

1345.—End of Jacques van Artevelde. See FLANDERS: 1345.

1379-1381.—Revolt of the White-Hoods.—Captaincy of Philip van Artevelde. See FLANDERS: 1379-1381.

1382-1384.—Resistance to the duke of Burgundy. See FLANDERS: 1382.

1451-1453.—Revolt against the taxes of Philip of Burgundy.—In 1450, Philip, duke of Burgundy, having exhausted his usual revenues, rich as they were, by the unbounded extravagance of his court, laid a heavy tax on salt in Flanders. The sturdy men of Ghent were little disposed to submit to an imposition so hateful as the French "gabelle"; still less when, the next year, a new duty on grain was demanded from them. They rose in revolt, put on their white hoods, and prepared for war. It was an unfortunate contest for them. They were defeated in nearly every engagement; each encounter was a massacre, with no quarter given on either side; the surrounding country was laid waste and depopulated. A final battle, fought at Gavre, or Gaveren, July 22, 1453, went against them so murderously that they submitted and went on their knees to the duke—not metaphorically, but actually. "The citizens were deprived of the banners of their guilds; and the duke was henceforward to have an equal voice with them in the appointment of their magistrates, whose judicial authority was considerably abridged; the inhabitants likewise bound themselves to liquidate the expenses of the war, and to pay the gabelle for the future." The Hollanders and Zealanders lent their assistance to the duke against Ghent, and were rewarded by some important concessions.—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 1.—"The city lost her jurisdiction, her dominion over the surrounding country. She had no longer any subjects, was reduced to a commune, and a commune, too, in which two gates, walled up forever, were to remind her of this grave change of state. The sovereign banner of Ghent, and the trades' banners, were handed over to Toison d'Or, who unceremoniously thrust them into a sack and carried them off."—J. Michelet, *History of France*, v. 2, bk. 12, ch. 1.

1482-1488.—Trouble with the Austrian ducal guardian. See NETHERLANDS: 1482-1493.

1539-1540.—Unsuccessful revolt and submission to Charles V.—Status of city.—Price of insurrection.—Once more, in 1539, Ghent became the scene of a memorable rising of the people against the oppressive exactions of their foreign masters. "The origin of the present dispute between the Ghensters and the court was the subsidy of 1,200,000 guilders, demanded by the governess [sister of the emperor Charles V] in 1536, which . . . it was found impossible to levy by a general tax throughout the provinces. It was therefore divided in proportional shares to each; that of Flanders being fixed at 400,000 guilders, or one-third of the whole. . . . The citizens of Ghent . . . persisted in refusing the demand, offering, instead, to serve the emperor as of old time, with their own troops assembled under the great standard of the town. . . . The other cities

of Flanders showed themselves unwilling to espouse the cause of the Ghensters, who, finding they had no hope of support from them, or of redress from the emperor, took up arms, possessed themselves of the forts in the vicinity of Ghent, and despatched an embassy to Paris to offer the sovereignty of their city to the king." The French king, Francis I., not only gave them no encouragement, but permitted the emperor, then in Spain, to pass through France, in order to reach the scene of disturbance more promptly. (See FRANCE: 1532-1547.) In the winter of 1540, the latter presented himself before Ghent, at the head of a German army, and the unhappy city could do nothing but yield itself to him.—C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, v. 1, pt. 2, ch. 5.—At the time of this unsuccessful revolt and the submission of the city to Charles V, "Ghent was, in all respects, one of the most important cities in Europe. Erasmus, who, as a Hollander and a courtier, was not likely to be partial to the turbulent Flemings, asserted that there was no town in all Christendom to be compared to it for size, power, political constitution, or the culture of its inhabitants. It was, said one of its inhabitants at the epoch of the insurrection, rather a country than a city. . . . Its streets and squares were spacious and elegant, its churches and other public buildings numerous and splendid. The sumptuous church of Saint John or Saint Bavon, where Charles V had been baptized, the ancient castle whither Baldwin Bras de Fer had brought the daughter of Charles the Bald [see FLANDERS: 863], the city hall with its graceful Moorish front, the well-known belfry, where for three centuries had perched the dragon sent by the Emperor Baldwin of Flanders from Constantinople, and where swung the famous Roland, whose iron tongue had called the citizens, generation after generation, to arms, whether to win battles over foreign kings at the head of their chivalry, or to plunge their swords in each others' breasts, were all conspicuous in the city and celebrated in the land. Especially the great bell was the object of the burghers' affection, and, generally, of the sovereign's hatred; while to all it seemed, as it were, a living historical personage, endowed with the human powers and passions which it had so long directed and inflamed. . . . Charles allowed a month of awful suspense to intervene between his arrival and his vengeance. Despair and hope alternated during the interval. On the 17th of March, the spell was broken by the execution of 19 persons, who were beheaded as ringleaders. On the 29th of April, he pronounced sentence upon the city. . . . It annulled all the charters, privileges, and laws of Ghent. It confiscated all its public property, rents, revenues, houses, artillery, munitions of war, and in general everything which the corporation, or the traders, each and all, possessed in common. In particular, the great bell Roland was condemned and sentenced to immediate removal. It was decreed that the 400,000 florins, which had caused the revolt, should forthwith be paid, together with an additional fine by Ghent of 150,000, besides 6,000 a year, forever after."—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, introduction, sect. 11.

1576.—Spanish fury.—Treaty of the "Pacification of Ghent." See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

1584.—Disgraceful surrender to the Spaniards.—Decline of the city. See NETHERLANDS: 1584-1585.

1678.—Siege and capture by the French. See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

1678.—Restored to Spain. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1706.—Occupied by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1708-1709.—Taken by the French and retaken by the Allies. See NETHERLANDS: 1708-1709.

1745-1748.—Surrendered to the French, and restored to Austria. See BELGIUM: 1745; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2.

1814.—Negotiation of the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States.—Text of treaty. See U. S. A.: 1814: Treaty of peace; also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1814.

1900.—Municipal organization of insurance against unemployment. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Belgium: 1900-1904.

1913.—Modern commercial importance.—Though not so important commercially as it was in the fifteenth century, Ghent still had, before the World War, a large number of textile works, sugar refineries, tanneries, breweries, and other manufacturing establishments.

1914-1918.—German occupation.—On October 13, 1914, the Germans occupied Ghent. The occupation was comparatively uneventful. Four years later (November 13, 1918), King Albert made his triumphant entry following the German defeat in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: b; 1918: II. Western front: m; XI. End of the war: d, 1; BELGIUM: 1918.

1920.—Van Eyck panels restored.—In accordance with the terms of the Versailles Treaty the original panels of the "Worship of the Lamb" by Hubert and Jan van Eyck were brought together again.

ALSO IN: G. Allen, *Belgium: Its cities.—Bibliographie de l'histoire de Gand.*

GHENT, Treaty of. See U. S. A.: 1814 (December): Treaty of peace; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1814.

GHENT, University of, university in Belgium founded in 1816 by King William I of Holland. "In an effort to divide public opinion in Belgium by setting the Flemish part against the Walloon (French), the German governor general, von Bissing, decreed that the University of Ghent should (1915) become a Flemish institution, offering great favors to those who would retain their professorships after such a change and punishing those who resisted coercion, notably the distinguished scholars Paul Fredericq and Henri Pirenne, who were sent to prison and then exiled to Germany. The experiment has met with little success."—*War cyclopaedia*, p. 122.—"Close voting marked the end of the debate on the question [of making the university a Flemish institution], the bill being adopted by 85 votes to 83. After the Chamber voted to make the University Flemish it voted on a proposal that the institution should be bilingual, using the French and Flemish languages, but this was rejected."—*New York Times*, Dec. 20, 1922.

GHERIAH, Battle of (1763). See INDIA: 1757-1772.

GHIBELLINES. See GUELFs AND GHIBELLINES.

GHIBERTI, Lorenzo (1378-1455), Florentine sculptor, goldsmith, and painter. He won the famous competition for the bronze doors of the Baptistery in Florence against Donatello and Brunelleschi. See SCULPTURE: Early Renaissance.

GHILDE. See GUILDS OF FLANDERS.

GHIRLANDAIO, Domenico (1449-1494), Florentine painter. See PAINTING: Italian: Early Renaissance.

GHIZEH. See GIZEH.

GHOR, or Ghur, ancient kingdom of Afghanistan. See INDIA: 977-1290.

GHORKAS, Goorkas, or Gurkhas. See GURKHAS.

"GHOULS." See KU KLUX KLAN.

GHULAT, or Ghulut, group of Babi's sects. See BAHAIISM: Progress of Bahai cause.

GIACOMETTI, Paolo (1816-1882), Italian dramatist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1710-1800.

GIACOSA, Giuseppe (1847-1906), Italian dramatist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1860-1920.

GIAFFERI, Luigi, leader of a revolt in Corsica, 1729. See CORSICA: 1729-1769.

GIA-LONG, Chinese member of the Nguyen family, acquired control over the whole of Annam, Tongking and Cochin, China, at the end of the 18th century. See INDO-CHINA: B. C. 218-A. D. 1886.

GIAO-SHI, or Giao-kii, ancient tribe of southern China, the ancestors of the Annamese. See INDO-CHINA: Geography.

GIARDINO, General (1865- ), Italian commander in World War. His army took part in the final Italian offensive against the Austrians, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 2.

GIBBON, Edward (1737-1794), English historian. His fame rests on his history, "The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" which was published in three parts, 1776, 1781, 1788. See HISTORY: 25.

GIBBON, John (1827-1896), American general. Fought in the battles of Antietam, 1862, Gettysburg, 1863, Wilderness, Cold Harbor, and others; commanded an expedition against Sitting Bull, 1876. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Pennsylvania); 1866-1876.

GIBBONS, James (1834-1921), American Roman Catholic cardinal and archbishop. Ordained bishop of North Carolina, 1868; became archbishop of Baltimore, 1877; presided over Third Plenary Council in Baltimore, 1884; became first chancellor of the newly established Catholic University at Washington; created cardinal, 1886; author of "Faith of our Fathers," 1871, "Our Christian Heritage," 1889, and "The Ambassador of Christ," 1896.

GIBBONS VS. OGDEN (1824).—The decision in this case was rendered by Chief Justice Marshall and Justice Story. "In this decision the power of Congress over interstate commerce was declared to be full and complete, extending not only to the commodities exchanged and to the agencies of transportation but to the movements of persons as well."—S. E. Forman, *Advanced American history*, p. 296.—See also U. S. A.: 1801: Appointment of John Marshall; SUPREME COURT: 1789-1835.

GIBBORIM, King David's chosen band of six hundred, his heroes, his "mighty men," his standing army.

GIBEON, Battle of. See BETH-HORON.

GIBEONITES.—The Gibeonites were a "remnant of the Amorites, and the children of Israel had sworn unto them" (ii Samuel, 21: 2). Saul violated the pledged faith of his nation to these people and "sought to slay them." After Saul's death there came a famine which was attributed to his crime against the Gibeonites; whereupon David sought to make atonement to them. They would accept nothing but the execution of vengeance upon seven of Saul's family, and David gave up to them two sons of Saul's concubine, Rizpah, and five sons of Michal, the daughter of Saul, whom they hanged.—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, bk. 3.



**GIBLITES**, aboriginal race from Lebanon. See SYRIA: B. C. 64-63.

**GIBRALTAR**, British island fortress and crown colony, at the western entrance to the Mediterranean; an important naval base. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

Origin of name. See SPAIN: 711-713.

1309-1460.—Taken by the Christians, recovered by the Moors, and finally wrested from them, after several sieges. See SPAIN: 1273-1460.

1704.—Capture by the English. See SPAIN: 1703-1704.

1713.—Ceded by Spain to England. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1727.—Abortive siege by the Spaniards.—Construction of the lines of San Roque. See SPAIN: 1726-1731.

1780-1783.—Unsuccessful siege by the Spaniards and French. See ENGLAND: 1780-1782; SPAIN: 1779-1783.

1900-1920.—Military and naval improvements.—During the first part of the twentieth century numerous improvements were made in the military defences of Gibraltar; guns of the most modern description were set up, particularly on the higher parts of the Rock, and an elaborate system of range finding was installed. New dockyard works were also completed. Three moles make a harbor which covers 440 acres.

ALSO IN: J. H. Mann, *Gibraltar and its sieges*.—G. H. Gilbard, *Popular history of Gibraltar*.—A. Macmillan, ed., *Malta and Gibraltar: Historical and descriptive*.

**GIBRALTAR OF THE EAST**. See HONG KONG.

**GIBSON**, Fort, established April, 1824. See OKLAHOMA: 1806-1824.

**GIBSON**, Hugh (1883- ), American diplomat. Secretary to American legation in Brussels, 1914-1916; issued a report of the Cavell murder (see CAVELL, EDITH); appointed first envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Poland, April 16, 1919.

**GIBSON**, Wilfrid Wilson (1878- ), English poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

**GIDDINGS**, Franklin Henry (1855- ), American sociologist and economist. See HISTORY: 33.

**GIDDINGS**, Joshua Reed (1705-1864), American statesman. Served in the War of 1812; member of Ohio legislature, 1826-1828; member of national House of Representatives, 1838-1850; consul-general in Canada, 1861-1864. See U. S. A.: 1855-1856.

**GIDEON**, or Jerubbaal, (c. 13th century B.C.), Hebrew liberator and religious reformer. Judge in Israel for forty years. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

**GIESEBRECHT**, Friedrich Wilhelm Benjamin von (1814-1889), German historian. See HISTORY: 26.

**GIESL**, Baron von, Austrian minister to Serbia in 1914. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 25; 32.

**GIFTS AND BEQUESTS**.—In all ages, and in many countries, numbers of men and women have given largely of their wealth, to be expended for the public good by religious bodies, educational foundations, charitable institutions or otherwise. The United States and Canada have been so especially favored in this respect during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, that it is impossible to indicate more than a small proportion of the sums devoted in this manner, but a few of the notable gifts and bequests in which great interest

is taken by reason of their large amount or because of their special nature, are here set out.

**Altman, Benjamin**.—Gift of a collection of art treasures, whose estimated value is \$15,150,000 to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York; willed to Academy of Design, \$100,000 and to employees, \$30,000,000.

**Anderson, Mrs. A. A.**—Gift of \$1,200,000 to Barnard College, Columbia University. Mrs. Anderson also cooperated with her brother, Joseph Milbank, in making other large gifts.

**Armour, J. Ogden**.—Gift to Armour Institute, \$6,000,000.

**Armour, Philip D.**—Endowed Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago.

**Astor, John Jacob**.—Gave \$4,000,000 to found and endow Astor library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public library.

**Astor, John Jacob, Jr.**—Gave \$850,000 to found and endow Astor library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public library.

**Astor, William B.**—Gave \$550,000 to found and endow Astor library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public library.

**Avery, Samuel P.**—With his wife and son gave \$480,000 to build and equip an architectural library for Columbia University in memory of Henry Ogden Avery, whose choice collection of books on art and architecture was presented to form the nucleus of the library. This library has become an important factor in the education of architects in the United States.

**Barbour, Levi H.**—\$2,000,000 to the University of Michigan for the endowment fund for the education of women of the Far East.

**Bourne, Commodore Frederick G.**—Gift of \$700,000 to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York.

**Brooking, R. S.** See below: Cupples, S.

**Bussey, Benjamin**.—Bequeathed to Harvard University about \$413,000, one-half of which was to be devoted to the law and divinity school, and the other half to the formation of Bussey Institute, a school of agriculture and horticulture.

**Carnegie, Andrew**.—The total of his gifts and endowments during his life amounted to about \$620,439,000, besides his residuary estate which amounted to about five million dollars. They were distributed among the following:

Building for Bureau of American Republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906-1908.

Court house and library for permanent court of arbitration at The Hague.

Dumfermline, Scotland. See RECREATION: 1014.

Foundation for the improvement of teaching. See FOUNDATIONS: Carnegie foundations.

Hero funds. See CARNEGIE HERO FUNDS: U. S. A.: 1909 (May 25).

Institute at Pittsburgh. See CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, PITTSBURGH.

Institution of Washington. See CARNEGIE INSTITUTION, WASHINGTON.

Libraries. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Carnegie library gifts.

Peace fund. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

ALSO IN: *Manual of public benefactions of Andrew Carnegie*.

**Coles, Elizabeth U.**—Gift of twelve priceless seventeenth century tapestries, known as the Barberini tapestries, to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York.

**Cooper, Peter**.—Gift of ground and the buildings valued at \$930,000 for the establishment of Cooper Union, New York (1857-1859).

**Corcoran, William Wilson.**—Gift of \$900,000 for the endowment of Corcoran Gallery, Washington, with his art collection. He also founded the Louise Home for Impoverished Gentlewomen, and Oak Hill Cemetery at Georgetown.

**Cornell, Ezra.**—Gave \$500,000 towards the endowment of Cornell University. He bought up all unsold New York State land scrip, which had been assigned by the legislature to the university (1862), and also deeded to it 500,000 acres of Wisconsin forest lands (1866), which ultimately realized millions of dollars.

**Crerar, John.**—Gift of \$2,500,000 to found John Crerar library, Chicago. He also contributed \$1,000,000 to various religious and charitable organizations; and \$100,000 for a statue of Abraham Lincoln.

**Crocker, George.**—Gave \$3,500,000 for cancer research.

**Cupples, S.**—With R. S. Brooking, transferred to Washington University, St. Louis, a property known as Cupples Station, thus enabling the university to be rebuilt on a new site of 100 acres.

**Doe, C. F.**—Bequeathed \$6,000,000 to the library of the University of California.

**Drexel, Anthony J.**—Founded Drexel Institute of Art, Science and Industry in Philadelphia and endowed it with \$2,000,000. The main building was also given by him.

**Durant, Henry F.**—Founded Wellesley College, to which he gave between one and two million dollars.

**Egleston, William C.**—Gave \$100,000 to endow free beds in St. Luke's Hospital, New York; \$100,000 to Yale for library; \$25,000 to Metropolitan Museum of Art, and numerous bequests to other institutions.

**Frick, Henry Clay.**—Gave to the public of the city of New York, subject to the life interest of his wife, private art gallery in New York, including land and building valued at \$50,000,000, with an endowment of \$15,000,000. To the city of Pittsburgh, a site for a park, \$2,000,000. He gave approximately \$17,400,000 to be divided as follows: \$2,000,000 to Harvard University; \$2,000,000 to Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston; \$6,000,000 to Princeton University; \$2,000,000 to the Educational Fund Commission, Pittsburgh; \$1,600,000 to Children's Hospital, Allegheny General Hospital, Home for the Friendless, Kingsley House Association, Free Dispensary, Newsboys' Home, Western Pennsylvania Hospital, Y. W. C. A., all in Pittsburgh; \$2,000,000 to Mercy Hospital, Pittsburgh; \$200,000 each to Uniontown Hospital, Cottage State Hospital, Westmoreland Hospital, Mount Pleasant-Memorial Hospital, Braddock General Hospital, Homestead Hospital, all in Pennsylvania; also \$600,000 to Lying-in-Hospital, New York; \$100,000 towards founding an American Academy of Fine Arts in Rome, Italy.

**Ginn, Edward.**—Gifts and bequest for international peace aggregating \$1,110,000.

**Ginn, Edwin.**—Bequest to world's peace fund, \$2,000,000.

**Girard, Stephen.**—Gave \$616,000 to Philadelphia charities and improvements; \$300,000 to Pennsylvania for improvements; residue of his estate valued at \$5,260,000 to Philadelphia for the foundation of Girard College.

**Gurney, Professor and wife.**—Gave \$170,000 to Harvard University.

**Hand, Daniel C.**—Gave \$1,000,804 to "Daniel C. Hand Education Fund for Colored People."

**Harkness, Mrs. Stephen V.**—Gift to Yale, \$3,000,000. Endowed Commonwealth Fund. See COMMONWEALTH FUND.

**Harriman, Mrs. E. H.**—Gift of land for a state park on the Hudson, New York. Gifts to Yale, Barnard College and other educational institutions aggregating \$330,000.

**Harvard, John.**—Bequest of about £400 in 1638, and his library of 260 volumes to Harvard University.

**Hopkins, Johns.**—Gift of \$7,000,000 to found Johns Hopkins Hospital and Johns Hopkins University.

**Huntington, Archer Milton.**—To the Hispanic Society of America, in New York, of which he was the founder, he gave a home, an endowment and rich collections. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

**Huntington, Collis Potter.**—Bequest of collection of paintings valued at \$3,000,000 to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

**Jeanes, Anna T.**—Gave \$1,000,000 for elementary education of negroes in the South. See JEANES FOUNDATION.

**Kennedy, John Stewart.**—Bequest of nearly \$30,000,000 to various educational, charitable and religious institutions.

**Lenox, James.**—Gave to the city of New York, the Lenox library and the building in which it was contained. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

**Lewisohn, Adolph.**—Numerous gifts to charitable and educational institutions, including \$300,000 to Columbia University for a School of Mines building; \$100,000 to Yale University; a German library and stadium to the College of the City of New York.

**Low, Seth.**—Gave \$1,100,000 to the great central library of Columbia University, in memory of his father.

**Lowell, John Jr.**—Gave \$250,000 to found the Lowell Institute.

**Ludlow, Mrs. Mary E.**—Gave \$178,000 to endow the department of music in Columbia University in memory of her son.

**Macdonald, Sir William Christopher.**—Besides the gift and endowment of manual-training and domestic science schools for the Ontario Agricultural College, he gave to McGill University, \$5,400,000; to Macdonald Agricultural College and Normal school at Ste. Anne de Bellevue, P. Q., \$5,000,000. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

**McGill, James.**—Gift of property and £10,000 to found a university in Montreal.

**Macy, Caroline L.**—Gave \$252,225 to Teachers College, Columbia University, in memory of her husband; also \$175,000 to endow Teachers College. In her memory, her son built Horace Mann School at a cost of \$450,000.

**Magee, C. L.**—Gave \$4,000,000 to found a hospital in memory of his mother Elizabeth Steele Magee.

**Mayo, William J. and Charles H.**—Gave the sum of \$1,650,344.79 to the University of Minnesota to found the "Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research," and agreed to support the foundation pending the raising of the fund to \$2,000,000; further gifts of \$6,250,344.

**Milbank, Joseph.**—Gift of about \$257,000 to Teachers College, Columbia University; to the Milbank Baths, New York City, \$150,000; to a clubhouse in Jersey City, called Jersey City People's Palace, \$200,000; with his sister, Mrs. A. A. Anderson, to found a social welfare bureau in New York, \$650,000; and to the Children's Aid Society, \$500,000.

**Morgan, John Pierpont.**—Gave to the Harvard Medical School approximately \$1,000,000; to the

Lying-in-Hospital, New York, about \$1,500,000; to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine \$100,000; St. George's Church and the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and to his native city of Hartford, various very large sums, and gifts of land, buildings and valuable objects of art.

Morton, Levi P.—Gave \$600,000 to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York. Gift of sanitarium to West Virginia, \$150,000.

Newberry, Walter L.—Bequeathed to Newberry Library Fund \$2,500,000.

Peabody, George.—Gave \$200,000 to the state of Maryland; \$200,000 to the Peabody Institute and Library at Peabody; \$50,000 to the Danvers Institute; \$1,200,000 to the Peabody Institute, Baltimore; \$2,500,000 to be used for lodging houses for the poor of London, England; \$150,000 to Harvard University; \$150,000 to Yale University; \$3,500,000 to the Peabody Education Fund to promote education in the southern states; \$750,000 to the Peabody Museum, Salem, Massachusetts; and \$365,000 to other institutions and charities.—See also PEABODY EDUCATIONAL FUND.

Pearsons, D. K.—Devoted a fortune made in real estate to aiding the smaller colleges throughout the West. He made gifts varying from \$50,000 to \$300,000 on condition, in nearly all cases, that a larger sum should be raised by other friends of the institution to which a donation was made. In this way he was instrumental in obtaining material assistance to forty different colleges at a cost to himself of approximately \$4,000,000.

Phipps, Henry.—Gave \$1,500,000 to Johns Hopkins University; \$150,000 for research in agriculture in India; \$15,000,000 for radium institute; \$15,000,000 to various other institutions.

Pratt, Charles.—Founded Pratt Institute, Brooklyn.

Pratt, Enoch.—Gave \$1,108,000 to found Pratt Free Library in Baltimore, with branch buildings.

Pulitzer, Joseph.—Contributed \$1,000,000 to establish the School of Journalism, Columbia University; willed to Columbia University \$2,250,000; to Barnard College, \$1,000,000 and other bequests.

Rice, William Marsh.—Bequeathed his property valued at \$10,000,000 to found Rice Institute in Houston, Texas.

Rockefeller, John D.—Gave \$43,000,000 to General Education Board (see GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD); \$32,000,000 to the University of Chicago; \$15,000,000 to the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research; \$125,000,000 to the Rockefeller Foundations; \$142,000,000 for the investigation of the hookworm disease; \$223,000 for the conservation of bird life and the purchase of bird refuge in Louisiana.

Sage, Henry W.—Gave to Cornell University \$1,175,000.

Sage, Mrs. Russell.—Gifts during her life estimated at \$40,000,000 of which \$10,000,000 went to the Russell Sage Foundation; \$175,000 for Constitution island given to the United States government; bequeathed to Russell Sage Foundation, Colleges, Museums, Hospitals, charitable institutions, Bible societies and missions about \$36,000,000.—See also RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

Schenley, Mrs. Mary E.—Gave 382 acres of land for a park in Pittsburgh, and also a Newsboys Home.

Schiff, Jacob Henry.—Bequeathed \$1,350,000 to educational and charitable institutions to most of which he had contributed largely during his life.—See also JEWS: United States: 1908-1918.

Slater, John F.—Contributed \$1,000,000 for the purpose of "uplifting the lately emancipated population of the Southern States, and their posterity,

by conferring on them the blessings of Christian education." See SLATER FUND.

Sloane, W. and wife.—Gave \$1,200,000 to found the Sloane Maternity hospital in New York.

Smith, Donald Alexander, Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal.—Gave \$1,500,000 to the Royal Victoria Hospital at Montreal; built and endowed the Royal Victoria College for women; and gave over \$1,000,000 to McGill University.

Smith, Sophia.—Bequeathed the larger part of her estate valued at \$450,000 to found Smith College for women. She also founded Smith Academy in Andover, Massachusetts.

Smithson, James.—After his nephew's death, his estate valued at \$508,318.45 was handed over to the United States. See SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

Stanford, Leland and wife.—Founded and endowed Leland Stanford, Jr., University.

Stephen, George, Lord Mount Stephen.—Gave \$500,000 to build and equip the Royal Victoria Hospital in Montreal.

Sterling, John W.—Bequest to Yale, \$20,000,000.

Tilden, Samuel Jones.—Bequeathed to New York City his valuable private library and practically his whole fortune, to establish a circulation library. Litigation reduced the library fund known as the Tilden Foundation to approximately \$2,500,000. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: New York Public Library.

Vanderbilt, Cornelius.—Contributed \$1,000,000 to found Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee.

Vassar, Matthew.—Contributed \$788,000 and 200 acres of land to found Vassar College.

Vassar, Matthew.—Nephew of the founder of Vassar College gave to Vassar College \$150,000 and to other public institutions of Poughkeepsie about \$350,000.

Williamson, I. V.—Gave, to found and endow the Williamson Free School of Mechanical Trades, Pennsylvania, \$2,500,000.

Wyman, William.—Gave 60 acres of ground for a site for new buildings for Johns Hopkins University.

GILBERT, Sir Humphrey (c. 1539-1583), English soldier and navigator; Sighted the northern shores of Newfoundland, July 30, 1583, and on August 5th planted the first English colony in America. See AMERICA: 1583.

GILBERT, or Gylberde, William (1540-1603), English physician, known as the father of electric and magnetic science. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Early experiments.

GILBERT, Sir William Schwenk (1836-1911), English playwright, famous for his comic operas. He worked with Sir Arthur Sullivan, a composer. See DRAMA: 1843-1805.

GILBERT ISLANDS, group of islands in Micronesia, Pacific ocean. See MICRONESIA; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

GILBERT'S ACT (1782), English poor law. See CHARITIES: England: 1782-1834.

GILDO, or Gildon (d. 398), Moorish chieftain. Appointed count of province of Africa, 386; transferred his allegiance to Eastern empire, 397; captured in his flight after he had been defeated by the Roman army. See ROME: Empire: 396-398.

GILDS. See GUILDS.

GILEAD, mountainous region of Palestine, east of the Jordan, lying between the Dead sea and the Sea of Galilee. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

GILENOS, tribe of North American aborigines. See APACHE GROUP.

**GILES, or GILLIS, LAND**, situated in the Arctic regions, northeast of Spitsbergen and west of Franz Josef Land. It was discovered in 1707 by the Dutch captain, Cornelis Gillis. See **SPITSBERGEN**: 1827-1808.

**GILES, William Branch** (1762-1830), American governor. Congressman from Virginia, 1790-1799 and 1801-1803; United States senator, 1804-1815; governor of Virginia, 1827-1830. See **U. S. A.**: 1804-1805.

**GILLETTE, William Hooker** (1855- ), American actor and playwright. See **DRAMA**: 1865-1913.

**GILLMORE, Quincy Adams** (1825-1888), American soldier. Chief engineer of Port Royal Expeditionary Corps, 1861-1862; president of Mississippi River Commission, 1870-1882; colonel of engineers, 1883. See **U. S. A.**: 1862 (February-April: Georgia-Florida); 1863 (July: South Carolina); (August-December: South Carolina); 1864 (January-February: Florida); (May: Virginia): Coöperative movement of Army of the James; 1865 (February: South Carolina).

**GILMAN, Charlotte Perkins** (1860- ), American lecturer. Ardent advocate of woman's rights. See **WOMAN'S RIGHTS**: 1867-1921.

**GILMORE, James Roberts** (pseudonym Edmund Kirke) (1822-1903), American writer and editor. Acting as unofficial agent of President Lincoln he served on a peace mission to the Confederate government in 1864. See **U. S. A.**: 1864 (July).

**GILOLO, or Halmahera**, one of the Moluccas or Spice islands. See **MOLUCCAS**.

**GINCHY**, village about six miles south of Bapaume, northeast France. It was captured from the Germans by Irish troops, September 9, 1916, in the battle of the Somme. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II Western front: d, 10.

**GINGILOVO, or Ginginhlovo**, Battle of (1879). See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1877-1879.

**GINKEL, Godart Van**, 1st Earl of Athlone (1630-1703), Dutch general in the English army. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1702-1704.

**GIOBERTI, Vincenzo** (1801-1852), Italian philosopher, statesman and politician. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1827-1872; **GENOA**: 1848.

**GIOLITTI, Giovanni** (1842- ), Italian statesman. Became minister of treasury, 1889; minister of finance, 1890; president of the ministry, 1892-1893; minister of interior, 1901-1903; premier of Italy, 1903-1905; 1906-1909; 1911-1914; 1920-1921. See **ITALY**: 1905-1906; 1909-1911; 1914; 1915: Giolitti's policy; 1920; 1921 (January-March); 1921-1922 (June-February); **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD**: Italy: 1908-1912; **WORLD WAR**: 1915: IV. Italy: a.

**GIORGIO BARBARELLI**. See **GIORGIONE DA CASTELFRANCO**.

**GIORGIONE DA CASTELFRANCO** (Giorgio Barbarelli) (c. 1477-1510), Venetian painter. Was a pupil of Bellini; one of the chief artists of the High Renaissance. See **PAINTING**: Italian: High Renaissance.

**GIOTTO DI BONDONE** (c. 1267-1337), Florentine painter. Attributed works uncertain but known to have executed two or three series of the frescoes in the church of St. Francis at Assisi, and the entire decorations of the Arena Chapel, Padua; designed the campanile and the west-front of the cathedral of Florence; greatest master before the Renaissance. See **PAINTING**: Italian: Early Renaissance; **ART**: Relation of art and history.

**GIPPS, Sir George** (1791-1847), English colo-

nial governor of New South Wales, 1838-1846. See **NEW SOUTH WALES**: 1831-1855.

**GIPPSLAND**, region in southeastern Victoria, Australia.

**GIPSIES**. See **GYPSIES**.

**GIRALDUS CAMBRENSIS**, or Gerald de Barri (c. 1146-1220), British chronicler and ecclesiastic. See **HISTORY**: 19.

**GIRARD, Stephen** (1750-1831), American financier and founder of Girard College, Philadelphia. See **GIFTS AND BEQUESTS**.

**GIRL GUIDES**.—"When Sir Robert [Baden-Powell] organized the Boy Scouts, he found among those seeking membership no less than six thousand girls. To organize them he called on his sister, Miss Agnes Baden-Powell, who formed them into troops after the same general plan as the Boy Scouts, and called them Girl Guides."—Mrs. T. H. Price, *Girl Scouts* (*Outlook*, Mar. 6, 1918).—A charter of incorporation was obtained in 1915. Rules of affiliation provide for coöperation with other kindred societies. The movement is, however non-political and inter-denominational. Excellent service was rendered during the World War in making bandages, providing clothes for refugees, helping at hospitals, scrubbing and washing up in canteen kitchens, etc.

"The Girl Guides' is an organization for character training. . . . Its aim is to get girls to learn how to be women—self-helpful, happy, prosperous, and capable of keeping good homes and of bringing up good children. *The Method* of training is to give the girls pursuits which appeal to them, such as games and recreative exercises, which lead them on to learn for themselves many useful crafts. Already this training has been found attractive to all classes, but more especially to those by whom it is so vitally needed—the girls of the factories and of the alleys of our great cities, who, after they leave school, get no kind of restraining influence, and who, nevertheless, may be the mothers, and should be the character trainers of the future men of our nation. The success which has . . . attended the Girl Guides movement and its wide extension, not only to most parts of the British Empire but to many foreign countries as well, speaks for the need of it."—A. Baden-Powell, *Handbook for Girl Guides*, p. vii.—See also **Y. W. C. A.**: 1918: Work for younger girls; **Boy Scouts**.

**GIRL SCOUTS**.—"This organization is an outgrowth of the Girl Guides (q. v.) of England." The founder, Mrs. Juliette Low, had assisted Miss Baden-Powell for some time in her work; and "when in 1912 Mrs. Low returned to her native city of Savannah she was urged by Miss Baden-Powell and Sir Robert [Baden-Powell] to organize Girl Guides in this country. She did so, forming the first troops in Savannah. But the girls, secure in the knowledge of the origin of the movement and reflecting the spirit of America, insisted upon being known as Girl Scouts and thus they were incorporated in Washington in 1915. Girl Scouts are now organized in 510 cities and towns in the United States in coöperation with schools and parishes and as lone troops. Only four states are without troops. The growth of the movement has been as sound as it has been rapid. Its principles and methods have the indorsement and coöperation of leaders in education and hyman affairs all over the country. . . . The pride the widely separated units feel in the recognition Girl Scouts have received from the Department of Education, the Food Administration, the Department of Agriculture, the America First Committee, and the Women's Liberty Loan Committee has

had an immediate and definite reaction on the troops and on the girls. Their purposes have steadied, their outlook has widened—they see beyond themselves and their communities.”—A. P. Leland, *Scouting education for girls* (*National Educational Association of the United States, Proceedings*, 1918, pp. 579, 582-583).

**GIRONDINS, GIRONDISTS.**—“During the first period [from September, 1792 until July, 1793] of the history of the Democratic Republic [in France]—namely, until the defeat of Federalism—the National Convention was seen to be divided into two parties, the *Gironde* and the *Mountain*; the former more numerous and more influential than the latter, and drawing in its train, as a general thing, an indefinite mass of deputies known as the *Plain*, the *Stomach*, or the *Marsh*. The leaders of the *Gironde* were expelled from the Convention by the popular insurrection of June 2, 1793. Some were imprisoned in Paris. Others repaired to the provinces, and provoked a movement which culminated in civil war against the Convention, which they declared was reduced to a state of slavery; this movement being known as Federalism. The *Mountain* eventually triumphed, with its principal leader, Robespierre. . . . Historians, rather than contemporaries, gave the collective name of the *Gironde* to the friends and followers of Brissot, Vergniaud, Mme. Roland, and Buzot. In the Legislative Assembly those deputies who sat on the left, below Chabot and Basire, called themselves the *Jacobin Patriots*; and their opponents called them derisively *Brissotins*, *Bordelais*, or the *Gaudet-Brissot gang*. In the Convention they were still *Brissotins*, but *Rolandists*, *Buzotins* as well. Marat ironically called them the *Statesmen*. By *Girondists* we understand more particularly Vergniaud, Guadet, Gensonné, Grangeneuve, Ducos, Boyer-Fonfrède, Bergoing, and Lacaze: all deputies of the department of the *Gironde*. Even at their trial the distinction was maintained between the *Brissotins* and the *Girondists*. . . . The forces of this party were not concentrated in a definite and particular district. In May, 1793, there were *Girondists* in almost all quarters. They were least numerous in the north-east, and in the ancient *Ile de France*. They were most numerous in Provence, Guyenne, Limousin, Brittany, Normandy, and Picardy—in the south and the north-west. But in none of these regions (in so far as they were represented by certain groups of departments) did they form the majority of the national representation. They were even in the minority in all the departments save eight; the *Gironde*, *Somme*, *Seine-Inférieure*, *Aisne*, *Haute-Vienne*, *Ardèche*, *Finistère*, and the *Jura*. Nowhere, not even in the *Gironde*, did they number all the representatives; this latter department sent to the Convention, together with eight ‘*Girondists*,’ two *Montagnards*—*Garrau* and *Jay* (of *Saint-Foy*); and two of indefinite colour—*Duplantier* and *Deleyre*. . . . It was at the outset that the *Girondists* passed as *Federalists*; it was afterwards that they continually declared themselves partisans of the unitarian Republic. And this is the essential difference, or rather the only real difference, between the *Montagnards* and the *Girondists*: the former wished to see Paris provisionally, during the war, at the head of the united Republic, as the ruling capital; the latter, on the contrary, did not wish Paris to exert any supremacy over the departments, even in wartime. This was the actual cause of the quarrel. . . . Not obtaining this ‘reduction of Paris,’ the *Girondists* wished to *federate* the departments against Paris, and later they attempted civil war

with this object in view. . . . To make war upon Paris; to deprive her of her character of ruling capital; this was the real policy of the *Gironde*, and this is where the *Gironde* differed from the *Mountain*.”—A. Aulard, *French Revolution*, v. 3, pp. 31-32, 42, 54-56.—On October 31, 1793, twenty-one of the *Girondist* leaders, including Brissot, were executed. Others, like Roland and Buzot, who had fled, met their fate in the provinces.—See also FRANCE: 1791 (October), to 1793 (September-December).

ALSO IN: E. Ellery, *Brissot de Warville*.—H. M. Stephens, *Orators of the French Revolution*.—Idem, *Revolutionary Europe*.

**GISSING, George Robert** (1857-1903), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920. See Gypsies.

**GIUSTI, Guisepp**e (1800-1850), Italian poet and satirist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1830-1920.

**GIVENCHY**, town of France, southwest of La Bassée. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 20; 1915: II. Western front: e, 3; h; i; 1918: II. Western front: d, 11; d, 16.

**GIZEH, or Ghizeh**, Egyptian village near Cairo. It is chiefly known from its proximity to the great Pyramids. See EGYPT: Monuments.

1921.—Agitation and riots against British. See EGYPT: 1921-1922.

**GJELLERUP, Karl Adolf** (1857- ), Danish novelist. Received the Nobel prize for literature in 1917.

**GLABRIO, Manius Acilius**, Roman statesman and general. As consul in 191 B. C. defeated and expelled the Syrians at Thermopylæ. See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

**GLABRIO, Manius Acilius**, Roman statesman and general. Presided at the trial of Verres, 70 B. C. In 67 B. C. became general of the army opposing Mithridates, but was quickly superseded by Pompey.

**GLACIAL PERIOD:** Human remains. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Cromagnon man.

**GLADIATORS, Revolt of the** (73-71 B. C.). See ROME: Republic: B. C. 78-68; SPARTACUS, RISING OF.

**GLADSTONE, William Ewart** (1809-1898), British statesman and financier. Appointed vice president of the Board of Trade, 1831; president of the Board of Trade, 1843-1844; colonial secretary, 1845-1846; chancellor of the exchequer, 1852, 1859-1866; succeeded Lord Russell as leader of Liberal party, 1867; prime minister, 1868-1874, 1880-1885, 1886, February to July, 1892-1894. See ENGLAND: 1868-1870; 1873-1880; 1883; 1884-1885; 1885; 1885-1886; 1892-1893; 1894-1895 (March-September); 1898 (May); IRELAND: 1885-1891; LIBERAL PARTY: 1866-1900; 1886-1905; RAILROADS: 1759-1881; TARIFF: 1846-1879; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1884-1894.

ALSO IN: J. Morley, *Life of Gladstone*.—G. W. E. Russell, *Right honorable William Ewart Gladstone*.—J. Bryce, *Recollections of Gladstone*.

**GLAISHER, James** (1809-1903), British aviator and meteorologist, founder of the Meteorological Society. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1870-1913.

**GLAMORGAN TREATY.** See ENGLAND: 1645 (June-December).

**GLASER, Eduard** (1855-1908), Austrian explorer. See ARABIA: Sabæans.

**GLASGOW**, largest city of Scotland, situated on the north side of the Clyde. Its origin is traced back to the church built on the banks of the Molendinar about 560 by the apostle of the Scots, St. Kentigern. The see of Glasgow was re-

established in 1116 by David, Prince of Cumbria, who also had the church rebuilt. It was made a burgh between 1175 and 1178; a regality in 1450; gained the right of election of magistrates in 1611; and finally became a free royal burgh in 1636. The splendid harbor and position in a rich coal and iron district are responsible for the city's industrial preëminence. It is considered the chief shipbuilding centre in the world. It has owned the gas works since 1889, and receives a large revenue from the by-products of coal. In 1894 municipality owned sludge works were commenced for the purification of the Clyde. During the same year the street railways were taken over by the city (see MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: European municipal ownership, etc.). The principal exports are machinery, cotton, linen and woolen goods, paper, coal, and whiskey; while imports consist largely of raw materials, *viz.*, metal, wheat, wool, corn, sugar, petroleum, tobacco and timber. The total net tonnage for 1910 was 4,271,000 tons. In 1921 the population of the city aggregated 1,034,069 inhabitants. (See SCOTLAND: 1750-1921.) Among her institutions must be mentioned the University founded in 1451 and the fine old cathedral, begun in 1197 and finished in the middle of the fifteenth century. The city is governed by a corporation of 77 members.—See also SCOTLAND: Land; Y. M. C. A.: 1625-1844; 1844-1851.

**Water supply.** See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Early development, etc.

**Libraries.** See LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.; Scotland.

**GLASGOW**, British cruiser. It was in the battles of Coronel and Falkland islands, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: e.

**GLASGOW MUSEUM.**—"The city's art collection was begun by the purchase in 1856 of the notable galleries of pictures brought together by Bailie M'Lellan, and for a generation the pictures remained in their original home in Sauchiehall Street. By the articles of association of the International Exhibition held in Glasgow in 1888, it was provided that any surplus should be transferred to the Town Council, to be applied in erecting and maintaining a gallery or museum of science and art, or otherwise in promoting art in the city. There was a surplus, and this, augmented by private subscription, was sufficient to enable the building of new Art Galleries in Kelvin-grove Park to be partially proceeded with. The work was continued by the Town Council under the authority of an Act of Parliament, and the buildings, having been completed, now contain the various art, science, and industrial collections, which are the finest in the country out of London."—J. Lindsay. *Municipal history and activities* (*Scottish Geographical Magazine*, v. 37, 1921, p. 32).

**GLASS**, Carter (1858- ), American senator. Member of Virginia Senate, 1899-1903; member of national House of Representatives, 1902-1918; secretary of the treasury under President Wilson, 1918-1919; United States senator, 1919. See U. S. A.: 1808 (June); 1919-1920.

**GLASS INDUSTRY.** See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; 16th-17th centuries: Industry; 19th century: Industry; 20th century: Industry.

**GLATZ**, fortified town of Germany situated about fifty miles southwest of Breslau. It was besieged during the Thirty Years' War and the Seven Years' War, and was ceded to Prussia in 1748. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 2; AUSTRIA: 1742 (January-May); (June); GERMANY: 1760.

**GLAZED POTTERY.** See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes.

**GLAZUNOV**, Alexander (1865- ), Russian composer. Studied with Rimsky-Korsakov; with Liadov and Rimsky-Korsakov conducted the Russian symphony concerts. St. Petersburg, 1896-1897; became professor of instrumentation at the St. Petersburg Conservatory, 1899; director, 1909-1912; his ballets "Raymonda," and "The Seasons" are among his most successful works.

**GLEEMAN**, or Gleoman, itinerant minstrel or musician. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: England.

**GLENCOE**, valley in Argyllshire, Scotland, northeast of Oban. It was the scene of a frightful massacre of Macdonalds by royal troops in 1602. See SCOTLAND: 1602.

**GLENDALE**, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia).

**GLENDOWER**, Owen (Owain ab Gruffydd, Lord of Glyndyrdwy) (c. 1359-1415), Welsh rebel leader. See WALES: 1402-1413.

**GLENMALURE**, Battle of (1580). See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

**GLEVUM** was a large colonial city of the Romans in Britain, represented by the modern city of Gloucester. It "was a town of great importance, as standing not only on the Severn, near the place where it opened out into the Bristol Channel, but also as being close to the great Roman iron district of the Forest of Dean."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

**GLIDING MACHINES.** See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1889-1900.

**GLINKA**, Mikhail Ivanovitch (1804-1857), first great Russian composer and the real forefather of Russian nationalism in music. Was choir master of Imperial Chapel, 1836-1830. His operas are, "Life for the Czar," and "Russlan and Ludmilla." See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Russia.

**GLOGAU**, Storming of (1642). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

**GLOSSATORS**, jurists in the school of law at Bologna. See BOLOGNA: 11th century.

**GLOUCESTER**, Sir Humphrey, Duke of (1391-1447), youngest son of Henry IV of England. Under Henry V was regent of England; lord protector until the coronation of Henry VI, 1429; married Jacqueline, heiress of Holland. See ENGLAND: 1422-1455; NETHERLANDS: 1417-1430.

**GLOUCESTER**, city, county borough, county town and port of Gloucestershire, England, situated northeast of Bristol. It was incorporated in 1483 by Richard III. In 1643 the town resisted the royal army under Charles I. Among its manufactures are engines, railway cars, agricultural implements and cutlery. It also has foundries, boat and ship building yards, flour and saw mills, match, rope, chemical, slate and marble works. Its ship canal is 17 miles long. The city carries on considerable commerce with foreign ports. The population in 1921 was 51,330.—See also GLEVUM; ENGLAND: 1643 (August-September).

**GLUCK**, Christoph Willibald (1714-1787), German composer and operatic reformer. Studied with Czernohorsky, Prague, and later with San Martini, Milan; produced his epoch making opera "Orfeo et Euridice" in Vienna, 1762; riveted attention with "Iphigénie en Aulide," Paris, 1774; challenged the Italian school and routed his opponents with "Iphigénie en Tauride," Paris, 1779. Gluck's reform of opera was his greatest service to music.—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1700-1827; 1730-1816: French.

**GLYCERIUS**, Roman emperor (Western), 473-474.

**GNEISENAU**, August Wilhelm Anton, Count Neithardt von (1760-1831), Prussian field marshal. As an officer in a mercenary regiment in English service he went to America in 1782; in the last phase of the Napoleonic Wars he served with distinction as Blücher's chief-of-staff and took a leading part at Waterloo. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 28.

**GNEISENAU**, German cruiser. Was in the battle of Coronel, 1914; sunk a month later by the British off the Falkland islands.

**GNILA LIPA**, river in Galicia, a northern tributary of the Dniester. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III, Eastern front: g, 3.

**GNOSTICS, GNOSTICISM**. — "Gnosticism was a philosophy of religion; but in what sense was it this? The name of Gnosticism—Gnosis—does not belong exclusively to the group of phenomena with whose historical explanation we are here concerned. Gnosis is a general idea; it is only as defined in one particular manner that it signifies Christian Gnosticism in a special sense: Gnosis is higher Knowledge, Knowledge that has a clear perception of the foundations on which it rests, and the manner in which its structure has been built up; a Knowledge that is completely, that which, as Knowledge, it is called to be. In this sense it forms the natural antithesis to Pistic, Faith [whence Pistics, believing Christians]; if it is desired to denote Knowledge in its specific difference from faith, no word will mark the distinction more significantly than Gnosis. But we find that, even in this general sense, the Knowledge termed Gnosis is a religious Knowledge rather than any other; for it is not speculative Knowledge in general, but only such as is concerned with religion. . . . In its form and contents Christian Gnosticism is the expansion and development of Alexandrian religious philosophy; which was itself an offshoot of Greek philosophy. . . . The fundamental character of Gnosticism in all its forms is dualistic. It is its sharply-defined, all-pervading dualism that, more than anything else, marks it directly for an offspring of paganism. . . . In Gnosticism the two principles, spirit and matter, form the great and general antithesis, within the bounds of which the systems move with all that they contain. . . . A further leading Gnostic conception is the Demiurgus. The two highest principles being spirit and matter, and the true conception of a creation of the world being thus excluded, it follows in the Gnostic systems, and is a characteristic feature of them, that they separate the creator of the world from the supreme God, and give him a position subordinate to the latter. He is therefore rather the artificer than the creator of the world. . . . The oldest Gnostic sects are without doubt those whose name is not derived from a special founder, but only stand for the general notion of Gnosticism. Such a name is that of the Ophites or Naassenes. The Gnostics are called Ophites, brethren of the Serpent, not after the serpent with which the fathers compared Gnosticism, meaning to indicate the dangerous poison of its doctrine, and to suggest that it was the hydra, which as soon as it lost one head at once put forth another; but because the serpent was the accepted symbol of their lofty Knowledge. . . . The first priests and supporters of the dogma were, according to the author of the *Philosophoumena*, the so-called Naassenes—a name derived from the Hebrew name of the serpent. They afterwards called themselves Gnostics, because they asserted that they alone knew the things that are deepest. From

this root the one heresy divided into various branches; for though these heretics all taught a like doctrine, their dogmas were various."—F. C. Baur, *Church history of the first three centuries*, v. 1, pp. 187-202.—"Bigotry has destroyed [the Gnostics'] writings so thoroughly, that we know little of them except from hostile sources. They called themselves Christians, but cared little for the authority of bishops or apostles, and borrowed freely from cabalists, Parsees, astrologers, and Greek philosophers, in building up their fantastic systems. . . . Much as we may fear that the Gnostic literature was more remarkable for boldness in speculation than for clearness of reasoning or respect for facts, it is a great pity that it should have been almost entirely destroyed by ecclesiastical bigotry."—F. M. Holland, *Rise of intellectual liberty*, ch. 3, sect. 6.—See also **AGNOSTICISM**; **ALBIGENSES**; **CERDONIANS**; **CERINTHIAN**s; **CHRISTIANITY**: 100-300: **Church in Alexandria**; **DOCE-TISM**; **ENERGITES**.

ALSO IN: J. L. von Mosheim, *Historical commentaries on the state of Christianity, century 1*, sect. 60-70, *century 2*, sect. 41-65.—C. W. King, *Gnostics and their remains*.—A. Neander, *General history of the Christian religion and church*, v. 2.

**GOA**, former capital of the Portuguese colony of the same name on the west coast of India. It is now inhabited by a handful of persons, and the mere ruin of an ancient city once distinguished by its magnificence.—See also **INDIA**: 1498-1580; **Map of India**; **COMMERCE**: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries: **Leadership of the Portuguese**; **JESUITS**: 1542-1649; **PORTUGUESE INDIA**.

**GOBAT (Charles) Albert** (1843-1914), Swiss parliamentarian. Member of Federal Council of States, 1884 and of the National Council, 1890. With Ducommun, in 1902, received the Nobel prize for international peace.

**GOBEL**, Jean Baptiste (1727-1794), French bishop. See **FRANCE**: 1793 (November).

**GO-DAIGO**, emperor of Japan. See **JAPAN**: 1199-1333; 1334-1574.

**GODEGISEL**, Burgundian king. He ruled with his brothers Hilperick and Gundobald or Gundobad. See **BURGUNDY**: 500.

**GODERICH**, Frederick John Robinson, Viscount. See **RIPON**, EARL OF.

**GODFRED** (d. 810), Danish king. He invaded Frisia in 810. See **SCANDINAVIAN STATES**: 8th-9th centuries.

**GODFREY**, Hollis (1874- ), American educator and engineer. He was one of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defence, organized, 1916. See **NATIONAL DEFENCE, COUNCIL OF**.

**GODFREY**, Michael (d. 1695), English merchant. Appointed deputy-governor of Bank of England when it was established, 1694. See **MONEY AND BANKING**: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: **Banking in Great Britain**.

**GODFREY**, Thomas (1736-1763), American writer. See **DRAMA**: 1767-1878.

**GODFREY OF BOUILLON** (c. 1060-1100), one of the leaders in the first Crusade. Made duke of lower Lotharingia, 1088; a leader in the first Crusade for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, 1096; elected Defender and Baron of Holy Sepulchre, 1099; defeated the Sultan of Egypt at Ascalon in the same year. See **CRUSADES**: 1096-1099; **Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097**; **JERUSALEM**: 1099-1131.

**GODIN**, Jean Baptiste André (1817-1888), French socialist, disciple of Fourier, founder of the

socialistic industrial union or familistère at Guise. See SOCIALISM: 1842-1913.

**GODOLLO, Battle of** (1849). See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

**GODOLPHIN, Sidney, 1st Earl of** (c. 1645-1712), English statesman. First lord of the treasury, 1690-1697; 1700-1701; head of the home government and lord high treasurer, 1702; dismissed from office, 1710. See ENGLAND: 1710-1712.

**GODOY, Alvarez de Faria, Rios Sanchez y Zarzosa, Manuel de, Duke of El Alcudia** (1767-1851), Spanish statesman. He is best known by the title of Prince of the Peace because of the part he played in the negotiation of the Treaty of Basel, concluding peace with France in 1795. A favorite of Charles IV and his wife, Maria Luisa, who showered favors on him until the whole power of the Spanish monarchy was concentrated in his hands; premier from 1792 to 1798; returned to office 1801-1807; imprisoned because of outbreak against him in 1808; sent to France by Napoleon's orders and remained with Spanish king and queen until the former's death, 1819; died in Paris, 1851. See SPAIN: 1788-1808.

**GODUNOV, Boris Fedorovitch.** See BORIS FEDOROVITCH GODUNOV.

**GODWIN, or Godwine** (d. 1053), West Saxon earl. See ENGLAND: 1042-1066.

**GODWIN, William** (1756-1836), English political and miscellaneous writer. His best known works are "The Inquiry concerning Political Justice," and the novel "Caleb William." See ANARCHISM: 1793.

**GODYN, Samuel, Dutch colonist.** See DELAWARE: 1629-1631.

**GOEBEL, William** (1856-1900), American politician. Member of Kentucky state Senate, 1887-1900; governor of Kentucky, January 31, to February 3, 1900. See KENTUCKY: 1895-1900.

**GOEBEN, German battle cruiser** which with the *Breslau* took refuge in the Dardanelles at the outbreak of the World War. Later it bombarded Russian Black sea ports, on the strength of which Russia declared war on Turkey.—See also BRESLAU.

**GOETHALS, George Washington** (1858- ), American army engineer. Appointed member of Isthmian Canal Commission, 1907; first civil governor of canal zone, 1914-1916; made major-general, 1915; state engineer of New Jersey in 1917 from which he was released to serve as manager of Emergency Fleet Corporation but resigned after three months; appointed acting quartermaster-general of the United States army, 1917; appointed chief of division of purchase, 1918; relieved from active service at his own request, March, 1919.—See also PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905; 1907-1914; 1913-1914; U. S. A.: 1914 (August); Opening of Panama canal.

**GOETHE, Johann Wolfgang von** (1749-1832), Germany's greatest poet. Among his most important works are: "Faust"; his lyrics, "Götz von Berlichingen," "Egmont," "Die Leiden des jungen Werthers," "Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre," "Iphigenie," "Tasso," "Die Metamorphose der Pflanzen" (a scientific work), and his autobiography, "Dichtung und Wahrheit." See DRAMA: 1773-1832; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1700-1832.

**GOGOL, Nikolai Vasilievich** (1809-1852), Russian novelist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1820-1848.

**GOIDEL, branch of the Celtic family.** See CELTS.

**GOLCONDA, ruined city and fortress in India.** Its name has become famous because of the immense number of diamonds found in the out-

lying territory in earlier times, and brought to the city to be cut and polished.

**GOLD COAST, section of the African coast on the Gulf of Guinea.** It was acquired by England, partly from the Danes, 1850, and partly from the Dutch, 1871. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation; Later 19th century; ASIANT: 1895-1900; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

**GOLD CURRENCY: In ancient Greece, Asia Minor and Rome.** See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient: Greece; Rome.

**GOLD DISCOVERIES.** See ALASKA: 1898-1899; ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1867-1903; AUSTRALIA: 1839-1855; CALIFORNIA: 1848-1849; IOAHO: 1834-1860; MONTANA: 1852-1864; NEW ZEALAND: 1870-1890; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1890; KLONDIKE GOLD FIELDS.

**GOLD SETTLEMENT FUND.** See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1912-1913; Federal reserve system.

**GOLD STANDARD.** See MONEY AND BANKING: Nature and origin of money; Modern: 1867-1893; 1896-1913; 1912-1913; Federal reserve system; BIMETALISM; STABILIZING THE DOLLAR; INDIA: 1893-1914.

**GOLDEN BIBLE.** See MORMONISM: 1805-1830.

**GOLDEN BOOK, contains a list of the nobility of ancient Venice.** See VENICE: 1032-1310.

**GOLDEN BOUGH.** See ARICIAN GROVE.

**GOLDEN BULL, Byzantine, document to which the emperor attached his golden seal was called by the Byzantines, for that reason, a chryso-bulum, or golden bull.** The term was adopted in the Western or Holy Roman Empire.

**GOLDEN BULL OF CHARLES IV** (1356). See GERMANY: 12th-13th centuries; 13th century; 1347-1493.

**GOLDEN BULL OF HUNGARY** (1222). See HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

**GOLDEN CHERSONESE: Origin of term.** See CHRYSE.

**GOLDEN CIRCLE, Knights of.** See KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE; AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1881-1886.

**GOLDEN FLEECE.** See ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION.

**GOLDEN FLEECE, Knights of the Order of the.**—"It was on the occasion of his marriage [1430] that Philip [Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, Count of Flanders, etc.], desirous of instituting a national order of knighthood, chose for its insignia a 'golden fleece,' with the motto, 'Pretium non vile laborum,'—not to be condemned is the reward of labour. . . . For the first time labour was given heraldic honours. The pride of the country had become laden with industrial recollections, its hope full of industrial triumphs; if feudalism would keep its hold, it must adopt or affect the national feeling. No longer despised was the recompense of toil; upon the honour of knighthood it should so be sworn; nay knighthood would henceforth wear appended to its collar of gold no other emblem than its earliest and most valued object—a golden fleece."—W. T. McCullagh, *Industrial history of free nations*, v. 2, ch. 10.—"This order of fraternity, of equality between nobles, in which the duke was admonished, 'chapered,' just the same as any other, this council, to which he pretended to communicate his affairs, was at bottom a tribunal where the haughtiest found the duke their judge; he could honour or dishonour them by a sentence of the order. Their scutcheon answered for them; hung up in St. Jean's, Ghent, it could either be erased or blackened. . . . The great easily consoled them-



selves for degradation at Paris by lawyers, when they were glorified by the duke of Burgundy in a court of chivalry in which kings took their seat."—J. Michelet, *History of France*, bk. 12, ch. 4.—"The number of the members was originally fixed at 31, including the sovereign, as the head and chief of the institution. They were to be: 'Gentilshommes de nom et d'armes sans reproche.' In 1516, Pope Leo X. consented to increase the number to 52, including the head. After the accession of Charles V., in 1556, the Austro-Spanish, or, rather, the Spanish-Dutch line of the house of Austria, remained in possession of the Order. In 1700, the Emperor Charles VI. and King Philip of Spain both laid claim to it. . . . [It] passes by the respective names of the Spanish or 'Austrian 'Order of the Golden Fleece,' according to the country where it is issued."—B. Burke, *Book of orders of knighthood*, p. 6.

ALSO IN: J. F. Kirk, *History of Charles the Bold*, bk. 1, ch. 2.

**GOLDEN GATE.**—"The Bay of San Francisco is separated from the sea by low mountain ranges. Looking from the peaks of the Sierra Nevada, the coast mountains present an apparently continuous line, with only a single gap, resembling a mountain pass. This is the entrance to the great bay. . . . On the south, the bordering mountains come down in a narrow ridge of broken hills, terminating in a precipitous point, against which the sea breaks heavily. On the northern side, the mountain presents a bold promontory, rising in a few miles to a height of two or three thousand feet. Between these points is the strait—about one mile broad in the narrowest part, and five miles long from the sea to the bay. To this Gate I gave the name of Chrysopylae, or Golden Gate; for the same reasons that the harbor of Byzantium (Constantinople afterwards), was called Chrysoceras, or Golden Horn. Passing through this gate, the bay opens to the right and left, extending in each direction about 35 miles, making a total length of more than 70, and a coast of about 275 miles."—J. C. Fremont, *Memoirs of my life*, v. 1, p. 512.

**GOLDEN HIND**, vessel in which Drake circumnavigated the globe. See AMERICA: 1572-1580.

**GOLDEN HORDE**, body of Tatars who overran Europe in the thirteenth century and founded the khanate or empire of Kipchaks in Russia. See MONGOLS: 1238-1301; MONGOLIA: 1206-1500; 1238-1301; Map of Mongolian empires; RUSSIA: 15th century.

**GOLDEN HORN**, narrow inlet of the Bosphorus, forming the harbor of Constantinople. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1203-1204; BYZANTIUM; CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of Dardanelles, etc.

**GOLDEN HORSESHOE**, Knights of the. See VIRGINIA: 1710-1716.

**GOLDEN HOUSE.**—The imperial palace at Rome, as restored by Nero after the great fire, was called the Golden House. It was destroyed by Vespasian.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans under the empire*, ch. 53 and 90.

**GOLDEN, or BORROMEAN, LEAGUE.** See SWITZERLAND: 1579-1630.

**GOLDEN SPUR**, Order of the, order of knighthood instituted in 1550 by Pope Paul III.

**GOLDEN STOOL**, King Prempeh's. See ASHANTI: 1895-1900.

**GOLDFADEN**, Abraham B. Hayyim Lippe (1840-1908), Hebrew and Yiddish poet. Founder of the Yiddish drama. See JEWS: Drama and theatre.

**GOLDMAN**, Emma (1869- ), Russian an-

archist. Emigrated to the United States in 1886; editor of the publication *Mother Earth*; deported to Russia on the *Buford* or "Soviet Ark" on December 22, 1919. See ANARCHISM: 1910; U. S. A.: 1919 (September-December).

**GOLDONI**, Carlo (1707-1793), Italian dramatist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1710-1890.

**GOLDSBORO**, city of North Carolina, situated about fifty miles southeast of Raleigh. It was occupied by the Federal army under Sherman in 1865. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March: The Carolinas).

**GOLDSMITH**, Oliver (1728-1774), English novelist, poet, dramatist and miscellaneous writer, born in Ireland. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1660-1780.

**GOLEK BOGHAZ**, or Cilician Gates, famous pass of Armenia. See ARMENIA: Physical features.

**GOLETTA**, or La Goulette, seaport of Tunis, south of the ruins of Carthage. See TURKEY: 1572-1573.

**GOLGI**, Camillo (1844-1919), Italian histologist and neurologist. With Cajal he received the Nobel prize for medicine in 1906.

**GOLGOTHA**, site on which Christ was crucified. See JESUS CHRIST: Antagonism roused against Jesus; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Jerusalem.

**GOLIATH**, Philistine giant, slain, according to the Bible, by David.

**GOLIATH**, British battleship. Part of the fleet in the Aegean sea which had been cooperating with the land forces in the attack on Gallipoli; sunk by a Turkish torpedo boat, May 15, 1915.

**GOLITZIN**, or Galitzin, Dmitry Mikhailovich (1665-1737), Russian statesman. Governor of Byelgorod, 1711-1718; appointed president of the *Kammer Kollegium*, 1718; head of Conservative party after the death of Peter the Great; as president of Supreme Privy Council attempted to limit the authority of the autocracy; forced Anne of Courland, newly elected Russian empress, to sign a constitution which he drew up; arrested on a pretext of being involved in the conspiracy of his son-in-law, Prince Constantine Cantimir, and sentenced to death; the sentence was commuted to lifelong imprisonment. See RUSSIA: 1725-1739; Attempt at a constitution.

**GLOWSTSCHIN**, Battle of (1708). See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

**GOLTZ**, Kolmar, Baron von der (1843-1916), Prussian general and military writer. Served in the Austro-Prussian War of 1866 and in the Franco-German War in 1870-1871; entered Turkish service in 1883 and spent twelve years reorganizing the Turkish army; appointed governor-general of Belgium, 1914; chief in command of the 1st Turkish Army in Mesopotamia, 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1916; X. German rule in northern France and Belgium; b, 1.

**GOLUCHOWSKI**, Count Agenor (1840-1921), Austrian statesman. As minister for foreign affairs, 1895-1906, he cultivated friendly relations with other powers; supported Germany at Algeiras, 1906; Hungarian enmity forced him to resign, October, 1906. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 8.

**GOLYMIN**, Battle of (1806). See GERMANY: 1806-1807.

**GOMEL**, or Homel, town in Russia, situated on the Soje river, in the province of Mohilev. See JEWS: Russia; Ukraine.

**GOMER**, or Omer, measure equaling one-tenth of the ephah. See EPIAH.

**GOMERISTS**. See NETHERLANDS: 1603-1619.

**GOMEZ**, José Miguel (1858-1921), Cuban leader of the Miguelista faction of the Liberal

party. President of Cuba, 1909-1913. See CUBA: 1906-1909.

**GOMEZ, Juan Vicente** (1859- ), Venezuelan politician. As vice president of Venezuela assumed charge of government during General Castro's absence, 1908; elected president, 1910. See VENEZUELA: 1907-1909; 1910-1911.

**GOMEZ Y BAEZ, Maximo** (1831-1905), Cuban soldier. Joined Cuban insurrection, 1868; influential in bringing about insurrection of 1895-1898; cooperated with the United States when that country intervened; governor of the presidency of Estrada Palma. See CUBA: 1895-1898.

**GOMMECOURT**, village in northern France, southwest of Arras. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: d, 4; d, 5; e, 6.

**GOMPERS, Samuel** (1850- ), American labor leader. Came to America from England in 1863; became first president of Cigar Makers' International Union, 1864; one of the founders of the American Federation of Labor, 1881 and its president since 1882 (except in 1894); member of advisory committee of Council of National Defence, 1917; representative of American Federation of Labor at the Peace Conference in Paris, 1918-1919; chairman of International Committee on Labor Legislation at Peace Congress, 1919; the same year chairman of labor delegates at the convention of the International Federation of Trades Unions at Amsterdam.—See also AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1917-1919; 1919; LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920.

**GOMPHI**, city on the border of Thessaly, which shut its gates against Cæsar, shortly before the battle of Pharsalia. He halted one day in his march, stormed the town and gave it up to his soldiers to be sacked.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 5, ch. 15.

**GONÇALVES, André**, Portuguese navigator, said to have discovered the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, January 1, 1502. See RIO DE JANEIRO.

**GONCHAROV, Ivan Alexandrovitch** (1812-1891), Russian novelist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1855-1880.

**GONCOURT, Edmond Louis Antoine Huot de** (1822-1896), French novelist. In accordance with his will the Goncourt Academy was founded January 19, 1903, and a prize of 5,000 francs was to be awarded annually to a work of fiction, in prose. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

**GONCOURT, Jules Alfred Huot de** (1830-1870), French novelist. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

**GONDRA, Manuel** (1872- ), elected president of Paraguay for the term, August 15, 1920, to August 14, 1924. See PARAGUAY: 1920 (June).

**GONDS**, aborigines of central India and the Deccan. See INDIA: People.

**GONFALONIERE**, standard-bearer. See CARROCCIO.

**GONNELIEU**, village in northern France southwest of Cambrai. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: g, 12; g, 15.

**GONTRAM**, or Günther of Schwartzburg, Holy Roman emperor, 1347. Was a rival of Charles IV.

**GONZAGA, Giovan Francesco II**, Duke of Mantua (d. 1444), Italian general and patron of education. Obtained possession of Mantua as fief from the emperor, Sigismund, in 1432.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center, etc.

**GONZAGA, House of**.—"The house of Gonzaga held sovereign power at Mantua, first as captains, then as marquesses, then as dukes, for

nearly 400 years [1328-1708]."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, v. 1, p. 243.

**GONZALEZ, Alfredo**, elected president of Costa Rica, 1914. See COSTA RICA: 1914-1917; Presidency of Gonzalez.

**GONZALEZ, Ignacio Maria**, several times president of Santo Domingo during the years 1874-1879. See SANTO DOMINGO: 1873-1879.

**GONZALEZ, Manuel** (1833-1893), Mexican general. Was a follower of Diaz in several revolts; president of Mexico, 1880-1884. See MEXICO: 1867-1892.

**GONZALEZ, Pablo** (1876- ), one of the leaders of the Mexican constitutionalist army. See MEXICO: 1914-1915; 1920 (July).

**GONZALO DE BERCEO** (c. 1198-1264), earliest known Castilian poet. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1200-1500.

**GOOD, John Mason** (1704-1827), English physician and author. See JUNIUS LETTERS.

**GOOD CONDUCT MEDAL: Naval and marine**. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War medals: a.

**GOOD HOPE**, British cruiser. Was sunk in battle with Admiral von Spee's squadron off Coronel, November 1, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: e.

**GOOD HOPE, Cape of**. See CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

**GOOD PARLIAMENT**. See PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: 1376.

**GOODWIN, John Noble** (b. 1824), first territorial governor of Arizona. Served, 1863-1865; delegate to Congress, 1865-1867. See ARIZONA: 1864 (November).

**GOODYEAR, Charles** (1800-1860), American inventor. Made numerous experiments to remedy the defects of India rubber. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry; CONNECTICUT: 1845.

**GOORKAS, or Ghorkas**. See GURKHAS.

**GOOSE RIDGE (Côte de l'Oie)**, position west of the Meuse near Verdun, France. It was taken by the Germans during the great battle, and later retaken by the French in 1916.

**GOOSE-STEP (German Paradeschritt)**, peculiar, exaggerated military step used in the German army. It is spectacular but exhausting, and is maintained for only a few paces, as when passing a reviewing officer.

**GOOSS, Roderich**, Austrian journalist. Edited the actual Austrian diplomatic World War documents, 1919. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 3.

**G. O. P.**, expression applied to the Republican party in the United States. Republican campaign orators about 1880 spoke of the Grand Old Party, whereupon the Democrats in derision called it the G. O. P.

**GORBAI, Alexander**, Hungarian statesman. President of the ministry formed by the Budapest Workmen's Council, March, 1919. See HUNGARY: 1919 (March).

**GORCHAKOV, or Gortchakoff, Alexander Ivanovich** (1760-1825), Russian general. Served under Suvarov in the Turkish Wars, and in the war against Napoleon in Poland, 1806-1807. See GERMANY: 1807 (February-June).

**GORCHAKOV, Alexander Mikhailovich** (1798-1883), Russian statesman. Plenipotentiary at Stuttgart, 1841; ambassador to Vienna, 1854-1856; minister of foreign affairs, 1856; vice-chancellor, 1862; chancellor, 1863. See POLAND: 1863-1869.

**GORDIAN, or Gordianus I, Marcus Antonius Gordianus Sempronianus Romanus Africanus**

(159-238), Roman emperor. See **ROME: Empire: 192-284**.

**Gordian II, Marcus Antonius** (192-238), Roman emperor. He ruled jointly with his father. See **ROME: Empire: 192-284**.

**Gordian III, Marcus Antonius Pius** (224-244), Roman emperor. See **ROME: Empire: 192-284**.

**GORDIAN KNOT**.—"It was about February or March 333 B.C., when Alexander reached Gordium; where he appears to have halted for some time, giving to the troops which had been with him in Pisidia a repose doubtless needful. While at Gordium, he performed the memorable exploit familiarly known as the cutting of the Gordian knot. There was preserved in the citadel an ancient waggon of rude structure, said by the legend to have once belonged to the peasant Gordius and his son Midas—the primitive rustic kings of Phrygia, designated as such by the Gods and chosen by the people. The cord (composed of fibres from the bark of the cornel tree), attaching the yoke of this waggon to the pole, was so twisted and entangled as to form a knot of singular complexity, which no one had ever been able to untie. An oracle had pronounced, that to the person who should untie it the empire of Asia was destined. . . . Alexander, on inspecting the knot, was as much perplexed as others had been before him, until at length, in a fit of impatience, he drew his sword and severed the cord in two. By everyone this was accepted as a solution of the problem."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 93*.

**GORDIN, Jacob M.** (1853-1900), Jewish playwright. See **JEWS: Drama and theater**.

**GORDON, Charles George** (1833-1885), British soldier. He is commonly known as "Chinese Gordon," on account of his distinguished services in the suppression of the Taiping rebellion in China, 1863; later performed notable services in Egypt, and was killed at the fall of Khartum.—See also **CHINA: 1850-1864; EGYPT: 1870-1883; 1884-1885; GREECE: 1830-1862; SLAVERY: 1860-1893**.

**GORDON MEMORIAL COLLEGE: At Khartum. See KHARTUM, AFRICA.**

**GORDON RIOTS** (1780). See **ENGLAND: 1778-1780**.

**GORDYENE, Cordyene, or Corduene**.—The tribes of the Carduchi which anciently occupied the region of northern Mesopotamia, east of the Tigris, have given their name permanently to the country, but in variously modified forms. In the Greek and Roman period it was known as Gordyene, Cordyene, Corduene; at the present day it is Kurdistan. Under the Parthian domination in Asia, Gordyene was a tributary kingdom. In the early part of the last century B.C. it was conquered by Tigranes, king of Armenia, who chose a site within it for building his vast new capital, Tigranocerta, to populate which twelve Greek cities were stripped of inhabitants. It was included among the conquests of Trajan for the Romans, but relinquished by Hadrian.—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy, ch. 10*.—See also **CARDUCHI**.

**GOREMYKIN, Ivan Logginovitch** (1830- ), Russian statesman. Minister of the interior, 1895-1899; premier, May to July, 1906 and again in 1914. See **RUSSIA: 1809**.

**GORGAS, William Crawford** (1854-1920), American army surgeon. Successful in combating yellow fever in Havana and Central America; appointed chief sanitary officer of Panama Canal, 1904; and member of Isthmian Canal Commission, 1907; retired by the government, 1918; director of

yellow fever work of the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation; undertook to carry out sanitary program in Peru, 1919. See **PANAMA CANAL: 1904-1905; U.S.A.: 1914 (August); Opening of Panama canal**.

**GORGEI, or Gorgey, Arthur** (1818-1910), Hungarian general in the revolution of 1848-1849. See **AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; HUNGARY: 1847-1849**.

**GORGES, Sir Ferdinand** (c. 1566-1647), English colonial pioneer; founder of Maine. See **MAINE: 1639; NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631; U.S.A.: 1607-1752**.

**GORHAM AND PHELPS PURCHASE**, tract of land in New York. See **NEW YORK: 1786-1799**.

**GORIZIA, or Görz**, town now belonging to Italy, on the Isonzo, thirty-five miles northwest of Trieste. It is the seat of a cathedral and an ancient castle; noted as a winter resort; was included in Italy's demands upon the Central Powers for "compensation", December, 1914; promised to Italy in case of Allies' victory by treaty of London, April 26, 1915; attacked by the Italians in the summer of 1915; taken August 1916; again occupied by Austrians, October, 1917; finally held by Italy in 1918; included in the part of Austria allotted to Italy by the Paris conference and incorporated in the St. Germain Treaty.—See also **LONDON, TREATY OF PACT OF; ADRIATIC QUESTION: Treaty of London; WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: d; 1916: I. Military situation: d, 2; IV. Austro-Italian front: b, 1; c; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d; ITALY: Geographic description**.

**GORKY, Maxim** (Alexei Maximovitch Peshkov) (1868- ), Russian writer. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1883-1905**.

**GORLICE**, town in Galicia now a part of Poland, twenty miles northeast of Neu-Sandec. Was on the battle line between the Russians and the Austro-Germans during the World War; destroyed by fire and taken May, 1915, by the Germans. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: f**.

**GORM** (fl. c. 860-935), first king of united Denmark.

**GORMOGONS, Order of. See MASONIC SOCIETIES: Anti-Masonic agitations.**

**GORRELL, James**, British lieutenant. Founder of the first English-speaking colony in Wisconsin. As his name does not appear in the British army register for 1780 it would seem that he had died prior to that date. See **WISCONSIN: 1755-1765**.

**GORRES, Johann Joseph von** (1776-1848), German scholar and publicist. See **GERMANY: 1805-1806**.

**GORRINGE, Sir George Frederick** (1868- ), British major-general. Served in the Sudan, India and South Africa; in the World War in 1915-1916 commanded in Mesopotamia; led attempt to relieve Kut el Amara. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: c, 2; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, iii**.

**GORST, Sir John Eldon** (1835-1916), English statesman. Civil commissioner of Upper Waikato, New Zealand, 1861-1863; Conservative member of Parliament, 1866-1868; 1875-1892; 1892-1906; appointed solicitor-general, 1885; under-secretary for India, 1886-1891; financial secretary to the treasury, 1891-1892; vice president of the committee of the Council on Education, 1895-1902. See **EGYPT: 1907-1911**.

**GORST, Sir J. Eldon** (1861-1911), British politician. Financial advisor to Egyptian government, 1898-1904; British agent and consul-general in Egypt, 1907-1911. See **SUDAN: 1914**.

**GORT-NA-TUBBRID**, or Springfield, Battle of (1579). See IRELAND: 1559-1603.

**GORTON**, Samuel (1592-1677), religious agitator and one of the founders of Rhode Island. See RHODE ISLAND: 1641-1647.

**GORTYN**, or Gortyna, ancient city of Crete. See CRETE: Government and social organization.

**GÖRZ**. See GORIZIA.

**GOSCHEN**, George Joachim, 1st Viscount Goschen (1831-1907), English financier and statesman. Prominent member of the Liberal Unionist party, 1886-1895; became director of Bank of England, 1856; first elected to Parliament, 1863; privy councillor and vice president of Board of Trade, 1865; president of Poor Law Board, 1868-1871; First Lord of the Admiralty, 1871, 1895-1900; special ambassador to the Porte, 1880-1881; chancellor of the exchequer, 1886-1892.—See also EGYPT: 1875-1882.

**GOSCHEN**, Sir William Edward (1847- ), British diplomat. Held important posts in various countries; ambassador to Austria-Hungary, 1905-1908; ambassador to Germany, 1908-1914; in 1914 had famous interview with Bethmann-Hollweg, who declared that Great Britain was making war "just for a scrap of paper." See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 62.

**GOSHEN**, region of lower Egypt, east of the Delta and west of modern Suez canal. See JEWS: Early Hebrew history; Children of Israel in Egypt; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Sinaitic peninsula.

**GOSIUTES**, American aboriginal tribe. See SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

**GOSLAR**, imperial city of Germany until 1882. Situated south of Brunswick, in the province of Hanover. It was ceded to Prussia by the Treaty of Lunéville, 1803. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

**GOSNOLD**, Bartholomew (d. 1607), English navigator. Was one of the earliest explorers of the New England coast. See AMERICA: 1602-1605; U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

**GOSSA**, village which figured in the battle of Leipzig. See GERMANY: 1813 (October).

**GOSSEC**, François-Joseph (1734-1829), French composer born in Belgium. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: France.

**GOTAMA**, or Gautama, family name of Buddha. See BUDDHA; INDIA: B. C. 600-327; RELIGION: B. C. 600.

**GÖTEBORG LIBRARY**, Sweden. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Scandinavian states: Sweden.

**GOTHA**, name of one of the seven states of the Thuringian republic, Germany, and of the principal city of the state. See SAXONY: 1180-1553.

**GOTHALONIA**, ancient name for Catalonia. See CATALONIA.

**GOTHENBURG SYSTEM**, Dispensary laws. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1892-1899; NORTH CAROLINA: 1897-1899; SOUTH DAKOTA: 1899; ALABAMA: 1890.

**GOTHIA**, Gothic empire of central Europe. See GOTHS: 376.

**GOTHIA**, or Septimania, strip of land along the Mediterranean between the Pyrenees and the Rhone, the last possession of the Goths in Gaul.—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, ch. 5, sect. 5.—See also GOTHS: 419-451.

**GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE**. See ARCHITECTURE: Medieval: Gothic; ART: Relation of art and history.

**GOTHIC CYCLE**. See CHRONOLOGY: Solar chronological scheme of the Egyptians.

**GOTHIC LANGUAGE**: Survivals. See PHILOLOGY: 11.

**GOTHIC SCULPTURE**. See SCULPTURE: Gothic.

**GOTHINI**, or Gotini, people of ancient Germany who "are probably to be placed in Silesia, about Breslau." "The Gotini and Osi [who held a part of modern Galicia, under the Carpathian mountains] are proved by their respective Gallic and Pannonian tongues, as well as by the fact of their enduring tribute, not to be Germans. . . . The Gotini, to complete their degradation, actually work iron mines."—Tacitus, *Minor works: Germany, with geographical notes* (ed. by Church and Brodrigg).

**GOTHLAND IN SWEDEN**. See GOTHS: Origin.

**GOTHONES**, tribe in ancient Germany, mentioned by Tacitus. They "probably dwelt on either side of the Vistula, the Baltic being their northern boundary. Consequently, their settlements would coincide with portions of Pomerania and Prussia. Dr. Latham thinks they were identical with the *Æstii*."—Tacitus, *Minor works: Germany, with geographical notes* (ed. by Church and Brodrigg).—See also GOTHS: Origin.

**GOTHS: Origin**.—"The Scandinavian origin of the Goths has given rise to much discussion, and has been denied by several eminent modern scholars. The only reasons in favor of their Scandinavian origin are the testimony of Jornandes and the existence of the name of Gothland in Sweden; but the testimony of Jornandes contains at the best only the tradition of the people respecting their origin, which is never of much value; and the mere fact of the existence of the name of Gothland in Sweden is not sufficient to prove that this country was the original abode of the people. When the Romans first saw the Goths, in the reign of Caracalla, they dwelt in the land of the Getæ [on the northern side of the lower Danube]. Hence Jornandes, Procopius, and many other writers, both ancient and modern, supposed the Goths to be the same as the Getæ of the earlier historians. But the latter writers always regarded the Getæ as Thracians; and if their opinion was correct, they could have had no connection with the Goths. Still, it is a startling fact that a nation called Gothi should have emigrated from Germany, and settled accidentally in the country of a people with a name so like their own as that of Getæ. This may have happened by accident, but certainly all the probabilities are against it. Two hypotheses have been brought forward in modern times to meet this difficulty. One is that of Grimm; in his *History of the German Language*, who supposes that there was no migration of the Goths at all, that they were on the Lower Danube from the beginning, and that they were known to the earlier Greek and Latin writers as Getæ: but the great objection to this opinion is the general belief of the earlier writers that the Getæ were Thracians, and the latter were certainly not Germans. The other is that of Latham, who supposes, with much ingenuity, that the name of Get, or Goth, was the general name given by the Slavonic nations to the Lithuanians. According to this theory, the Goth-ones, or Guth-ones, at the mouth of the Vistula, mentioned by Tacitus and Ptolemy, are Lithuanians, and the Get-æ, on the Danube, belong to the same nation. Latham also believes that the Goths of a later period were Germans who migrated to the Danube, but that they did not bear the name of Goths till they settled in the country of the Getæ. See Latham, *The Germania of Tacitus*, Epil., p. xxxviii., seq."—W. Smith (E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 10, note).—"The first

clear utterance of tradition among the Goths points to Sweden as their home. It is true that this theory of the Swedish origin of the Goths has of late been strenuously combated, but until it is actually disproved (if that be possible) it seems better to accept it as a "working hypothesis," and, at the very least, a legend which influenced the thoughts and feelings of the nation itself. Condensing the narrative of Jormandes . . . we get some such results as these: 'The island of Scanzia [peninsula of Norway and Sweden] lies in the Northern Ocean, opposite the mouths of the Vistula, in shape like a cedar-leaf. In this island, a warehouse of nations ("officina gentium"), dwell the Goths, with many other tribes,' whose uncouth names are for the most part forgotten, though the Swedes, the Finns, the Heruli, are familiar to us. 'From this island the Goths, under their king Berig, set forth in search of new homes. They had but three ships, and as one of these during their passage always lagged behind, they called her "Gepanta," "the torpid one," and her crew, who ever after showed themselves more sluggish and clumsy than their companions when they became a nation, bore a name derived from this circumstance, Gepidae, the Loiterers.'" Settling, first, near the mouth of the Vistula, these Gothic wanderers increased in numbers until they were forced once more to migrate southward and eastward, seeking a larger and more satisfactory home. In time, they reached the shores of the Euxine. "The date of this migration of the Goths is uncertain; but, as far as we can judge from the indications afforded by contemporary Roman events, it was somewhere between 100 and 200 A. D. At any rate, by the middle of the third century, we find them firmly planted in the South of Russia. They are now divided into three nations, the Ostrogoths on the East, the Visigoths on the West, the lazy Gepidae a little to the rear—that is, to the North of both. . . . It is important for us to remember that these men are Teutons of the Teutons. . . . Moreover, the evidence of language shows that among the Teutonic races they belonged to the Low German family of peoples; more nearly allied, that is to say, to the Dutch, the Frieslanders, and to our own Saxon forefathers, all of whom dwell by the flat shores of the German Ocean or the Baltic Sea, than to the Suabians and other High German tribes who dwell among the hills.'"—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 1, introduction, ch. 3.—See also VANDALS: Origin.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 6.—T. Smith, *Arminius*, pt. 2, ch. 2.

**Acquisition of Bosphorus.**—"The little kingdom of Bosphorus, whose capital was situated on the straits through which the Mæotis communicates itself to the Euxine, was composed of degenerate Greeks and half-civilized barbarians. It subsisted as an independent state from the time of the Peloponnesian war, was at last swallowed up by the ambition of Mithridates, and, with the rest of his dominions, sunk under the weight of the Roman arms. From the reign of Augustus the kings of Bosphorus were the humble but not useless allies of the empire. By presents, by arms, and by a slight fortification drawn across the isthmus, they effectually guarded, against the roving plunderers of Sarmatia, the access of a country which, from its peculiar situation and convenient harbours, commanded the Euxine Sea and Asia Minor. As long as the sceptre was possessed by a lineal succession of kings, they acquitted themselves of their important charge with vigilance and success. Domestic factions, and the fears or private interest of obscure usurpers who seized on the vacant

throne, admitted the Goths [already, in the third century, in possession of the neighboring region about the mouth of the Dnieper] into the heart of Bosphorus. With the acquisition of a superfluous waste of fertile soil, the conquerors obtained the command of a naval force sufficient to transport their armies to the coast of Asia."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 10.

**244-251.**—First invasions of the Roman empire.—As early as the reign of Alexander Severus (222-235) the Goths, then inhabiting the Ukraine, had troubled Dacia with incursions; but it was not until the time of the Emperor Philip, called the Arabian (244-249), that they invaded the Empire in force, passing through Dacia and crossing the Danube into Mœsia (Bulgaria). They had been bribed by a subsidy to refrain from pillaging Roman territory, but complained that their "stipendia" had not been paid. They made their way without opposition to the city of Marcianopolis, which Trajan had founded in honor of his sister, and which was the capital of one of the two provinces into which Mœsia had been divided. The inhabitants ransomed themselves by the payment of a large sum of money, and the barbarians retired. But their expedition had been successful enough to tempt a speedy repetition of it, and the year 250 found them, again, in Mœsia, ravaging the country with little hindrance. The following year they crossed the Hæmus or Balkan mountains and laid siege to the important city of Philippopolis—capital of Thrace, founded by Philip of Macedonia. Now, however, a capable and vigorous emperor, Decius, was briefly wearing the Roman purple. He met the Goths and fought them so valiantly that 30,000 are said to have been slain; yet the victory remained with the barbarians, and Philippopolis was not saved. They took it by storm, put 100,000 of its inhabitants to the sword and left nothing in the ruins of the city worth carrying away. Meantime the enterprising Roman emperor had reanimated and recruited his troops and had secured positions which cut off the retreat of the Gothic host. The peril of the barbarians seemed so great, in fact, that they offered to surrender their whole booty and their captives, if they might, on so doing, march out of the country undisturbed. Decius sternly rejected the proposition, and so provoked his dangerous enemies to a despair which was fatal to him. In a terrible battle that was fought before the close of the year 251, at a place in Mœsia called Forum Trebonii, the Roman emperor perished, with the greater part of his army. The successor of Decius, Gallus, made haste to arrange a payment of annual peace-money to the Goths, which persuaded them to retire across the Danube.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 10.—"No Roman emperor had ever been slain before in battle with the barbarians; no Roman host of such strength had suffered defeat since the day of Cannæ. It seemed for a moment as if the empire was fated to be cut in twain, or even as if some earlier Alaric were about to present himself before the gates of Rome."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, p. 6.—See also BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 3rd century.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 1, introduction, ch. 3.

**258-267.**—Naval expeditions in the East.—Having acquired command of a port and a navy by their conquest of or alliance with the little kingdom of Bosphorus in the Chersonesus Taurica (modern Crimea), the Goths launched forth boldly upon a series of naval marauding expeditions,

which spread terror and destruction along the coasts of the Euxine, the Ægean and the straits between. The first city to suffer was Pityus, on the Euxine, which they totally destroyed, 258. The next was Trebizond, which fell a victim to the negligence with which its strong walls were guarded. The Goths loaded their ships with the enormous booty that they took from Trebizond, and left it almost a ruined city of the dead. Another expedition reached Bithynia, where the rich and splendid cities of Chalcedon, Nicea, Nicomedia, Prusa, Apamæa, and others were pillaged and more or less wantonly destroyed. "In the year 267, another fleet, consisting of 500 vessels, manned chiefly by the Goths and Heruli [or Herulii], passed the Bosphorus and the Hellespont. They seized Byzantium and Chrysopolis, and advanced, plundering the islands and coasts of the Ægean Sea, and laying waste many of the principal cities of the Peloponnesus. Cyzicus, Lemnos, Skyros, Corinth, Sparta, and Argos are named as having suffered by their ravages. From the time of Sylla's conquest of Athens, a period of nearly 350 years had elapsed, during which Attica had escaped the evils of war; yet when the Athenians were called upon to defend their homes against the Goths, they displayed a spirit worthy of their ancient fame. An officer, named Cleodamus, had been sent by the government from Byzantium to Athens, in order to repair the fortifications, but a division of these Goths landed at the Piræus and succeeded in carrying Athens by storm, before any means were taken for its defence. Dexippus, an Athenian of rank in the Roman service, soon contrived to reassemble the garrison of the Acropolis; and by joining to it such of the citizens as possessed some knowledge of military discipline, or some spirit for warlike enterprise, he formed a little army of 2,000 men. Choosing a strong position in the Olive Grove, he circumscribed the movements of the Goths, and so harassed them by a close blockade that they were soon compelled to abandon Athens. Cleodamus, who was not at Athens when it was surprised, had in the meantime assembled a fleet and gained a naval victory over a division of the barbarian fleet. These reverses were a prelude to the ruin of the Goths. A Roman fleet entered the Archipelago, and a Roman army, under the emperor Gallienus, marched into Illyricum; the separate divisions of the Gothic expedition were everywhere overtaken by these forces, and destroyed in detail. During this invasion of the empire, one of the divisions of the Gothic army crossed the Hellespont into Asia, and succeeded in plundering the cities of the Troad, and in destroying the celebrated temple of Diana of Ephesus. . . . The celebrity of Athens, and the presence of the historian Dexippus, have given to this incursion of the barbarians a prominent place in history; but many expeditions are casually mentioned which must have inflicted greater losses on the Greeks, and spread devastation more widely over the country."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans*, ch. 1, sect. 14.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 10.

268-270.—Defeat by *Claudius*.—"Claudius II. and his successor Aurelian, notwithstanding the shortness of their reigns, effectually dissipated the mosquito-swarms of barbarian invaders and provincial usurpers who were ruining the unhappy dominions of Gallienus. The two campaigns (of 268 and 269) in which the Emperor Claudius vanquished the barbarians are related with great brevity, and in such a shape that it is not easy to harmonise even the scanty details which are preserved

for us. It seems clear, however, that the Goths (both Ostrogoths and Visigoths), with all their kindred tribes, poured themselves upon Thrace and Macedonia in vaster numbers than ever. The previous movements of these nations had been probably but robber-inroads: this was a national immigration. . . . A few years earlier, so vast an irruption must inevitably have ruined the Roman Empire. But now, under Claudius, the army, once more subjected to strict discipline, had regained, or was rapidly regaining, its tone, and the Gothic multitudes, vainly precipitating themselves against it, by the very vastness of their unwieldy masses, hastened their own destruction. A great battle was fought at Naissus (Nisch, in Servia), a battle which was not a complete victory, which according to one authority was even a defeat for the Romans, but since the barbarians as an immediate consequence of it lost 50,000 men, their doubtful victory may fairly be counted as a defeat. In the next campaign they were shut up in the intricate passes of the Balkans by the Roman cavalry. Under the pressure of famine they killed and ate the cattle that drew their waggons, so parting with their last chance of return to their northern homes. . . . At length the remnants of the huge host seem to have disbanded, some to have entered the service of their conqueror as 'foederati,' and many to have remained as hired labourers to plough the fields which they had once hoped to conquer. . . . The vast number of unburied corpses bred a pestilence, to which the Emperor fell a victim. His successor Aurelian, the conqueror of Zenobia . . . made peace wisely as well as war bravely, and, prudently determining on the final abandonment of the Roman province of Dacia, he conceded to the Goths the undisturbed possession of that region [270], on condition of their not crossing the Danube to molest Moesia. [See also RUMANIA: B.C. 5th century-A.D. 1241.] Translating these terms into the language of modern geography, we may say, roughly, that the repose of Servia and Bulgaria was guaranteed by the final separation from the Roman Empire of Hungary, Transylvania, Moldavia, and Wallachia, which became from this time forward the acknowledged home of the Gothic nation. . . . For about a century (from 270 to 365) the Goths appear to have been with little exception at peace with Rome."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, introduction, v. 1, ch. 3.

4th-5th centuries.—Migrations of the Goths. See EUROPE: Introduction to historic period: Migrations; also Map showing Barbaric migrations.

341-381.—Conversion to Christianity.—The introduction of Christianity among the Goths seems to have begun while they were yet on the northern side of the Danube and the Black sea. It first resulted, no doubt, from the influence of many Christian captives who were swept from their homes in Mæsia, Greece, and Asia Minor, and carried away to spend their lives in slavery among the barbarians. To these were probably added a considerable number of Christian refugees from Roman persecution, before the period of Constantine. But it was not until the time of Ulfilas, the great apostle and bishop of the Goths (supposed to have held the office of bishop among them from about 341 to 381), that the development and organization of Christianity in the Gothic nation assumed importance. Ulfilas is represented to have been a descendant of one of the Christian captives alluded to above. Either as an ambassador or as a hostage, he seems to have passed some years in his early manhood at Constantinople. There he acquired a familiar

knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, and became fitted for his great work—the reducing of the Gothic language to a written form, with an alphabet partly invented, partly adapted from the Greek, and the translation of the Bible into that tongue. The early labors of Ulfilas among his countrymen beyond the Danube were interrupted by an outbreak of persecution, which drove him, with a considerable body of Christian Goths, to seek shelter within the Roman empire. They were permitted to settle in Mœsia, at the foot of the Balkans, round about Nicopolis, and near the site of modern Tirnova. There they acquired the name of the Gothi Minores, or Lesser Goths. From this Gothic settlement of Ulfilas in Mœsia the alphabet and written language to which he gave form have been called Mæso-Gothic. The Bible of Ulfilas—the first missionary translation of the Scriptures—with the personal labors of the apostle and his disciples, were powerfully influential, without doubt, in the Christianizing of the whole body of the Goths, and of their German neighbors, likewise. But Ulfilas had imbibed the doctrines of Arianism, or of Semi-Arianism, at Constantinople, and he communicated that heresy (as it was branded by the Athanasian triumph) to all the barbarian world within the range of Gothic influence. It followed that, when the kingdoms of the Goths, the Vandals, and the Burgundians were established in the west, they had to contend with the hostility of the orthodox or Catholic western church, and were undermined by it. That hostility had much to do with the breaking down of those states and with the better success of the orthodox Franks.—C. A. A. Scott, *Ulfilas, Apostle of the Goths*.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 238-400; FRANKS: 481-511.

**350-375 (Ostrogoths).—Empire of Ermanaric or Hermanric.**—“Ermanaric, who seems to have been chosen king about the year 350, was a great warrior, like many of his predecessors; but his policy, and the objects for which he fought, were markedly different from theirs. . . . Ermanaric made no attempt to invade the provinces of the Roman Empire; but he resolved to make his Ostrogothic kingdom the centre of a great empire of his own. The seat of his kingdom was, as tradition tells us, on the banks of the Dnieper [and it extended to the Baltic]. . . . A Roman historian compares Ermanaric to Alexander the Great; and many ages afterwards his fame survived in the poetic traditions of Germans, Norsemen and Anglo-Saxons. . . . Ermanaric was the first king since Ostrogotha who belonged to the Amaling family. . . . Henceforward the kingship of the Ostrogoths became hereditary among the descendants of Ermanaric. During this time the Visigoths appear to have been practically independent, divided into separate tribes ruled by their own ‘judges’ or chieftains; but . . . it is probable that in theory they acknowledged the supremacy of the Ostrogothic king. . . . Ermanaric died in the year 375, and the Ostrogoths were subdued by the Hunnish king Balamber. For a whole century they remained subject to the Huns.” One section of the Ostrogothic nation escaped from the Hunnish conquest and joined the Visigoths, who found a refuge on the Roman side of the Danube. The bulk of the nation bore the yoke until the death of the great Hun king, Attila, in 453, when the strife between his sons gave them an opportunity to throw it off.—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 5.—“The forecast of European history which then [during the reign of Ermanaric] seemed probable would have been that a great Teutonic Empire, stretching from the Danube to the Don, would

take the place which the colossal Slav Empire now holds in the map of Europe, and would be ready, as a civilised and Christianised power, to step into the place of Eastern Rome when, in the fullness of centuries, the sceptre should drop from the nerveless hands of the Cæsars of Byzantium.”

—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 4, ch. 1.

**376 (Visigoths).—Admission into the Roman empire.**—“Let us suppose that we have arrived at the year (364) when the feeble and timid Valens was placed on the Eastern throne by his brother Valentinian. At that time, Ulfilas would be in the fifty-third year of his age and the twenty-third of his episcopate. Hermanric, king of the Ostrogoths, a centenarian and more, was still the most important figure in the loosely welded Gothic confederacy. His special royalty may possibly have extended over Northern Hungary, Lithuania, and Southern Russia. The ‘torpid’ Gepidæ, dwelt to the north of him, to the south and west the Visigoths, whose settlements may perhaps have occupied the modern countries of Roumania, Transylvania and Southern Hungary. The two great nations, the Ostrogoths and Visigoths, were known at this time to the Romans, perhaps among themselves also, by the respective names of the Gruthungi and Thervingi, but it will be more convenient to disregard these appellations and speak of them by the names which they made conspicuous in later history.”—H. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, introduction, ch. 3.—This was the situation of Gothia, or the Gothic empire of central Europe, when the Huns made their appearance on the scene. “An empire, formerly powerful, the first monarchy of the Huns, had been overthrown by the Siempi, at a distance of 500 leagues from the Roman frontier, and near to that of China, in the first century of the Christian era. . . . The entire nation of the Huns, abandoning to the Siempi its ancient pastures bordering on China, had traversed the whole north of Asia by a march of 1,300 leagues. This immense horde, swelled by all the conquered nations whom it carried along in its passage, bore down on the plains of the Alans, and defeated them on the banks of the Tanais in a great battle. It received into its body a part of the vanquished tribe, accompanied by which it continued to advance towards the West; while other Alans, too haughty to renounce their independence, had retreated, some into Germany, whence we shall see them afterwards pass into Gaul; others into the Caucasian mountains, where they preserve their name to this day. The Goths, who bordered on the Alans, had fertilised by their labours the rich plains which lie to the north of the Danube and of the Black Sea. More civilised than any of the kindred Germanic tribes, they began to make rapid progress in the social sciences. . . . This comparatively fortunate state of things was suddenly interrupted by the appearance of the Huns,—the unlooked-for arrival of that savage nation, which, from the moment it crossed the Borysthenes, or the Dnieper, began to burn their villages and their crops; to massacre, without pity, men, women, and children; to devastate and destroy whatever came within the reach of a Scythian horseman. . . . The great Hermanric, whose kingdom extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea, would not have abandoned his sceptre to the Huns without a struggle; but at this very time he was murdered by a domestic enemy. The nations he had subjugated prepared on every side for rebellion. The Ostrogoths, after a vain resistance, broke their alliance with the Visigoths; while the latter, like an affrighted flock of sheep,

trooping together from all parts of their vast territory to the right bank of the Danube, refused to combat those superhuman beings by whom they were pursued. They stretched out their supplicating hands to the Romans on the other bank, entreating that they might be permitted to seek a refuge from the butchery which threatened them, in those wilds of Mœsia and Thrace which were almost valueless to the empire." Their prayer was granted by the Emperor Valens, on the condition that they surrender their arms and that the sons of their chief men be given as hostages to the Romans. The great Visigothic nation was then (376) transported across the Danube to the Mœsian shore—200,000 warriors in number, besides children and women and slaves in proportion. But the Roman officers charged with the reception of the Goths were so busy in plundering the goods and outraging the daughters and wives of their guests that they neglected to secure the arms of the grim warriors of the migration. Whence great calamities ensued.—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire*, v. 1, ch. 3, 5.

378 (Visigoths).—Defeat and destruction of Valens.—When the Visigothic nation was permitted to cross the Danube, 376, to escape from the Huns, and was admitted into Lower Mœsia, nothing seems to have been left undone that would exasperate and make enemies of these unwelcome colonists. Every possible extortion and outrage was practised upon them. To buy food, they were driven to part, first, with their slaves, then with their household goods, and finally with their children, whom they sold. In despair, at last, they showed signs of revolt, and the fatuous Roman commander precipitated it by a murderous outrage at Marcianople (modern Shumla). In a battle which soon followed near that town, the Romans were disastrously beaten. The Visigoths were now joined by a large body of Ostrogoths, who passed the Danube without resistance, and received into their ranks, moreover, a considerable force of Gothic soldiers who had long been in the service of the empire. The open country of Mœsia and Thrace was now fully exposed to them (the fortified cities they could not reduce), and they devastated it for a time without restraint. But Valens, the emperor in the east, and Gratian in the west, exerted themselves in co-operation to gather forces against them, and for two years there was a doubtful struggle carried on. The most serious battle, that of The Willows (Ad Salices), fought in the region now called the Dobrudscha, was a victory to neither side. On the whole the Romans appear to have had some advantage in these campaigns, and to have narrowed the range of the Gothic depredations. But the host of the barbarians was continually increased by fresh reinforcements from beyond the Danube. Even their own ferocious enemies, Huns and Alans, were permitted to join their standard. Yet, in face of this fact, the folly and jealousy of the Emperor Valens led him to stake all on the chances of a battle which he made haste to rush into, when he learned that his nephew Gratian was marching to his assistance from the west. He coveted the sole honors of a victory; but death and infamy for himself and an overwhelming calamity to the empire were what he achieved. The battle was fought near Adrianople, on the 9th day of August, 378. Two-thirds of the Roman army perished on the awful field, and the body of the emperor was never found.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 1.—See also ROME; Empire: 363-379.

Also in: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 26.—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 8.

379-382.—Settlement of the Goths by Theodosius, in Mœsia and Thrace.—"The forces of the East were nearly annihilated at the terrible battle of Adrianople: more than 60,000 Roman soldiers perished in the fight or in the pursuit; and the time was long past when such a loss could have been easily repaired by fresh levies. Nevertheless, even after this frightful massacre, the walls of Adrianople still opposed an unconquerable resistance to the barbarians. Valour may supply the place of military science in the open field, but civilised nations recover all the advantages of the art of war in the attack or defence of fortified towns. . . . The Goths, leaving Adrianople in their rear, advanced, ravaging all around them, to the foot of the walls of Constantinople; and, after some unimportant skirmishes, returned westward through Macedonia, Epirus and Dalmatia. From the Danube to the Adriatic, their passage was marked by conflagration and blood. Whilst the European provinces of the Greek empire sunk under these calamities, the Asiatic provinces took a horrible vengeance on the authors of them." The Gothic youths who had been required as hostages when the nation crossed the Danube, and those who were afterwards sold by their starving parents, were now gathered together in different cities of the Asiatic provinces and massacred in cold blood, at a given signal, on the same day and hour. By this atrocious act, all possible reconciliation with the Goths might well seem to be destroyed. The prospect was discouraging enough to the new emperor who now ascended the vacant throne of Valens (379)—the soldier Theodosius, son of Theodosius who delivered Britain from the Scots. Chosen by the Emperor Gratian to be his colleague and Emperor of the East, Theodosius undertook a most formidable task. "The abandonment of the Danube had opened the entrance of the empire, not only to the Goths, but to all the tribes of Germany and Scythia. . . . The blood of the young Goths which had been shed in Asia was daily avenged with interest over all that remained of Mœsian, Thrasian, Dalmatian, or Grecian race. It was more particularly during these four years of extermination that the Goths acquired the fatal celebrity attached to their name, which is still that of the destroyers of civilisation. Theodosius began by strengthening the fortified cities, recruiting the garrisons, and exercising his soldiers in small engagements whenever he felt assured of success; he then waited to take advantage of circumstances; he sought to divide his enemies by intrigue, and, above all, strenuously disavowed the rapacity of the ministers of Valens, or the cruelty of Julius; he took every occasion of declaring his attachment and esteem for the Gothic people, and at length succeeded in persuading them that his friendship was sincere. . . . The very victories of the Goths, their pride, their intemperance, at length impaired their energy. Fritigern, who, in the most difficult moments, had led them on with so much ability, was dead; the jealousies of independent tribes were rekindled. . . . It was by a series of treaties, with as many independent chieftains, that the nation was at length induced to lay down its arms: the last of these treaties was concluded on the 30th of October, 382. It restored peace to the Eastern empire, six years after the Goths crossed the Danube. This formidable nation was thus finally established within the boundary of the empire



of the East. The vast regions they had ravaged were abandoned to them, if not in absolute sovereignty, at least on terms little at variance with their independence. The Goths settled in the bosom of the empire had no kings; their hereditary chiefs were consulted under the name of judges, but their power was unchanged. . . . The Goths gave a vague sort of recognition to the sovereignty of the Roman emperor; but they submitted neither to his laws, his magistrates, nor his taxes. They engaged to maintain 40,000 men for the service of Theodosius; but they were to remain a distinct army. . . . It was, probably, at this period that their apostle, bishop Ulphilas, who had translated the Gospels into their tongue, invented the Mæso-Gothic character, which bears the name of their new abode."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire*, v. 1, ch. 5.—See also BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 4th century.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 26.

apparently south of what is now termed the Sulina mouth of that river."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"At this time [395] Alaric, partly from disgust at not receiving all the preferment which he expected, and partly in the hope of compelling the government of the Eastern Empire to agree to his terms, quitted the imperial service and retired towards the frontiers, where he assembled a force sufficiently large to enable him to act independently of all authority. Availing himself of the disputes between the ministers of the two emperors, and perhaps instigated by Rufinus or Stilicho to aid their intrigues, he established himself in the provinces to the south of the Danube. In the year 395 he advanced to the walls of Constantinople; but the movement was evidently a feint. . . . After this demonstration, Alaric marched into Thrace and Macedonia, and extended his ravages into Thessaly. . . . When the Goth found the northern provinces exhausted, he resolved to invade Greece



ALARIC THE GOTH AS CONQUEROR IN ATHENS

(From painting by L. Thiersch)

395.—Alaric's invasion of Greece.—"The death of Theodosius [395] threw the administration of the Eastern Empire into the hands of Rufinus, the minister of Arcadius; and that of the Western into those of Stilicho, the guardian of Honorius. The discordant elements which composed the Roman empire began to reveal all their incongruities under these two ministers. . . . The two ministers hated one another with all the violence of aspiring ambition."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans*, ch. 2, sect. 8.—"The animosity existing between Stilicho and the successive ministers of the Eastern Emperor (an animosity which does not necessarily imply any fault on the part of the former) was one most potent cause of the downfall of the Western Empire. . . . Alaric (the all-ruler) surnamed Baltha (the bold) was the Visigothic chieftain whose genius taught him the means of turning this estrangement between the two Empires to the best account. He was probably born about 360. His birth-place was the island Peuce, in the Delta of the Danube,

and Peloponnesus, which had long enjoyed profound tranquillity. . . . Thermopylæ was left unguarded, and Alaric entered Greece without encountering any resistance. The ravages committed by Alaric's army have been described in fearful terms; villages and towns were burnt, the men were murdered, and the women and children carried away to be sold as slaves by the Goths. . . . The walls of Thebes had been rebuilt, and it was in such a state of defence that Alaric could not venture to besiege it, but hurried forward to Athens. He concluded a treaty with the civil and military authorities, which enabled him to enter that city without opposition. . . . Athens evidently owed its good treatment to the condition of its population, and perhaps to the strength of its walls, which imposed some respect on the Goths; for the rest of Attica did not escape the usual fate of the districts through which the barbarians marched. The town of Eleusis, and the great temple of Ceres, were plundered and then destroyed. . . . Alaric marched unopposed

into the Peloponnesus, and, in a short time, captured almost every city in it without meeting with any resistance. Corinth, Argos, and Sparta were all plundered by the Goths." Alaric wintered in the Peloponnesus; in the following spring he was attacked, not only by the forces of the Eastern Empire, whose subjects he had outraged, but by Stilicho, the energetic minister of the Roman West. Stilicho, in a vigorous campaign, drove the Goths into the mountains on the borders of Elis and Arcadia; but they escaped and reached Epirus, with their plunder (see **ROME: Empire: 396-398**). "The truth appears to be that Alaric availed himself so ably of the jealousy with which the court of Constantinople viewed the proceedings of Stilicho, as to negotiate a treaty, by which he was received into the Roman service, and that he really entered Epirus as a general of Arcadius. . . . He obtained the appointment of Commander-in-chief of the imperial forces in Eastern Illyricum, which he held for four years. During this time he prepared his troops to seek his fortune in the Western Empire."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans, ch. 2, sect. 8*.—"The birth of Alaric, the glory of his past exploits, and the confidence in his future designs, insensibly united the body of the nation under his victorious standard; and, with the unanimous consent of the barbarian chieftains, the Master-general of Illyricum was elevated, according to ancient custom, on a shield, and solemnly proclaimed king of the Visigoths."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 30*.—See also **ATHENS: 395**; **BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 395-408**; **ROME: Empire: 394-395**.

**400.**—Failure of Gainas at Constantinople.—His defeat and death. See **ROME: Empire: 400-518**.

**400-403 (Visigoths).**—Alaric's first invasion of Italy.—After Alaric had become a commissioned general of the Eastern Empire and had been placed in command of the great præfecture of Eastern Illyricum, he "remained quiet for three years, arming and drilling his followers, and waiting for the opportunity to make a bold stroke for a wider and more secure dominion. In the autumn of the year 400, knowing that Stilicho was absent on a campaign in Gaul, Alaric entered Italy. For about a year and a half the Goths ranged almost unresisted over the northern part of the peninsula. The emperor, whose court was then at Milan, made preparations for taking refuge in Gaul; and the walls of Rome were hurriedly repaired in expectation of an attack. On the Easter Sunday of the year 402 (March 10), the camp of Alaric, near Pollentia, was surprised by Stilicho, who rightly guessed that the Goths would be engaged in worship, and would not imagine their Roman fellow-Christians less observant of the sacred day than themselves. Though unprepared for battle, the barbarians made a desperate stand, but at last they were beaten. . . . Alaric was able to retreat in good order, and he soon after crossed the Po with the intention of marching against Rome. However, his troops began to desert in large numbers, and he had to change his purpose. In the first place he thought of invading Gaul, but Stilicho overtook him and defeated him heavily at Verona [403]. Alaric himself narrowly escaped capture by the swiftness of his horse. Stilicho, however, was not very anxious for the destruction of Alaric, as he thought he might some day find him a convenient tool in his quarrels with the ministers of Arcadius [the Emperor of the East]. So he offered Alaric a handsome bribe to go away from Italy [back to

Illyria]."—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths, ch. 10*.—See also **ROME: Empire: 404-408**.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders, bk. 1, ch. 5*.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 30*.

**408-410 (Visigoths).**—Alaric's three sieges and sack of Rome.—His death. See **ROME: Empire: 408-410**; **BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 408-410**.

**410-419 (Visigoths).**—Founding of the kingdom of Toulouse.—On the death of Alaric (410), his brother-in-law, Ataulphus, or Ataulfus, was chosen king by the wandering Visigothic nation, and the new king succeeded in negotiating a treaty of peace with the court at Ravenna. As the result of it, the Goths moved northwards and, at the beginning of the year 412, they passed out of Italy into Gaul. A number of usurpers had risen in the western provinces, during the five years since 407, encouraged by the disorders of the time, and Ataulphus accepted a commission from Honorius to put them down and to restore the imperial authority in southern Gaul. The commission was faithfully executed in one of its parts; but the authority which the Gothic king established was, rather, his own, than that of the imperial puppet at Ravenna. Before the end of 413, he was master of most of the Gallic region on the Mediterranean (though Marseilles resisted him), and westward to the Atlantic. Then, at Narbonne, he married Galla Placidia, sister of Honorius, who had been a prisoner in the camp of the Goths for four years, but who was gallantly wooed, it would seem, and gently and truly won, by her Gothic lover. Apparently still commissioned by the Roman emperor, though half at war with him, and though his marriage with Placidia was haughtily forbidden and unrecognized, Ataulphus next carried his arms into Spain, already ravaged by Vandals, Alans and Suevic bands. But there he was cut off in the midst of his conquest, by assassination, in August, 415. The Goths, however, pursued their career under another valiant king, Wallia, who conquered the whole of Spain and meditated the invasion of Africa; but was persuaded to give up both conquests and prospects to Honorius, in exchange for a dominion which embraced the fairest portions of Gaul. "His victorious Goths, forty-three years after they had passed the Danube, were established, according to the faith of treaties, in the possession of the second Aquitaine, a maritime province between the Garonne and the Loire, under the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction of Bordeaux. . . . The Gothic limits were enlarged by the additional gift of some neighboring dioceses; and the successors of Alaric fixed their royal residence at Toulouse, which included five populous quarters, or cities, within the spacious circuit of its walls. . . . The Gothic limits contained the territories of seven cities—namely; those of Bordeaux, Périgueux, Angoulême, Agen, Saintes, Poitiers, and Toulouse. Hence the district obtained the name of Septimania."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 31 (with note by Dr. W. Smith)*.—It was at the end of the year 418, that the Goths settled themselves in their new kingdom of Toulouse. The next year, Wallia died, and was succeeded by Theodoric, a valorous soldier of the race of the Balthings, who played a considerable part in the history of the next thirty years.—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths, ch. 11-12*.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 8*.

**419-451 (Visigoths).**—Kingdom of Toulouse.—"By the peace which their king Wallia con-

cluded with Honorius (416) after the restoration of Placidia, they [the Visigoths] had obtained legal possession of the district called Aquitania Secunda, together with the territory round Toulouse, all of which allotment went by the name of Septimania or Gothia. For ten years (419-429) there had been firm peace between Visigoths and Romans; then, for ten years more (429-439), fierce and almost continued war, Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, endeavouring to take Arles and Narbonne; Aetius and his subordinate Litorius striving to take the Gothic capital of Toulouse, and all but succeeding. And in these wars Aetius had availed himself of his long-standing friendship with the Huns to enlist them as auxiliaries against the warriors of Theodoric, dangerous allies who plundered friends and enemies. [See also SICILY: 429-525.] . . . For the last twelve years (430-451) there had been peace, but scarcely friendship, between the Courts of Ravenna and Toulouse."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 3.—As the successor of Wallia, who died in 419, the Visigoths chose Theodoric, "who seems to have been a Balthing, though not related either to Wallia or to Atawulf. You must be careful not to confound this Visigoth Theodoric, or his son of the same name, with the great Theodoric the Amalung, who began to reign over the Ostrogoths about the year 475. Theodoric the Visigoth was not such a great man as his namesake, but he must have been both a brave soldier and an able ruler, or he could not have kept the affection and obedience of his people for thirty-two years. His great object was to extend his kingdom, which was hemmed in on the north by the Franks, . . . and on the west by another people of German invaders, the Burgunds; while the Roman Empire still kept possession of some rich cities, such as Arles and Narbonne [the first named of which Theodoric besieged unsuccessfully in 425, the last named in 437], which were temptingly close to the Gothic boundary on the south. . . . In the year 450 the Visigoths and the Romans were drawn more closely together by the approach of a great common danger. . . . The Huns . . . had, under their famous king, Attila, moved westward, and were threatening to over-run both Gaul and Italy."—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 12.—See also HUNS: 451.

451 (Ostrogoths and Visigoths).—Battle of Chalons. See HUNS: 451.

453 (Ostrogoths).—Breaking the yoke of the Huns. See HUNS: 453.

453-484 (Visigoths).—Extension of the kingdom of Toulouse.—"The Visigoths were governed from 453 to 466 by Theodoric the Second, son of Theodoric the First, and grandson of Alaric. . . . The reign of Theodoric was distinguished by conquests. On the one hand he drove the Suevians as far as the extremity of Galicia. . . . On the other hand, in 462, he rendered himself master of the town of Narbon, which was delivered up to him by its count; he also carried his arms towards the Loire; but his brother Frederic, whom he had charged with the conquest of the Armorici, and who had taken possession of Chinon, was killed in 463 near Orleans, in a battle which he gave to Count Ægidius. Theodoric finally extended the dominion of the Visigoths to the Rhone; he even attacked Arles and Marseille, but he could not subjugate them. After a glorious reign of thirteen years, he was killed in the month of August, 466, by his brother Euric, by whom he was succeeded. . . . Euric . . . attacked, in 473, the province of Auvergne. . . . He conquered it in 475 and caused his possession of it to be

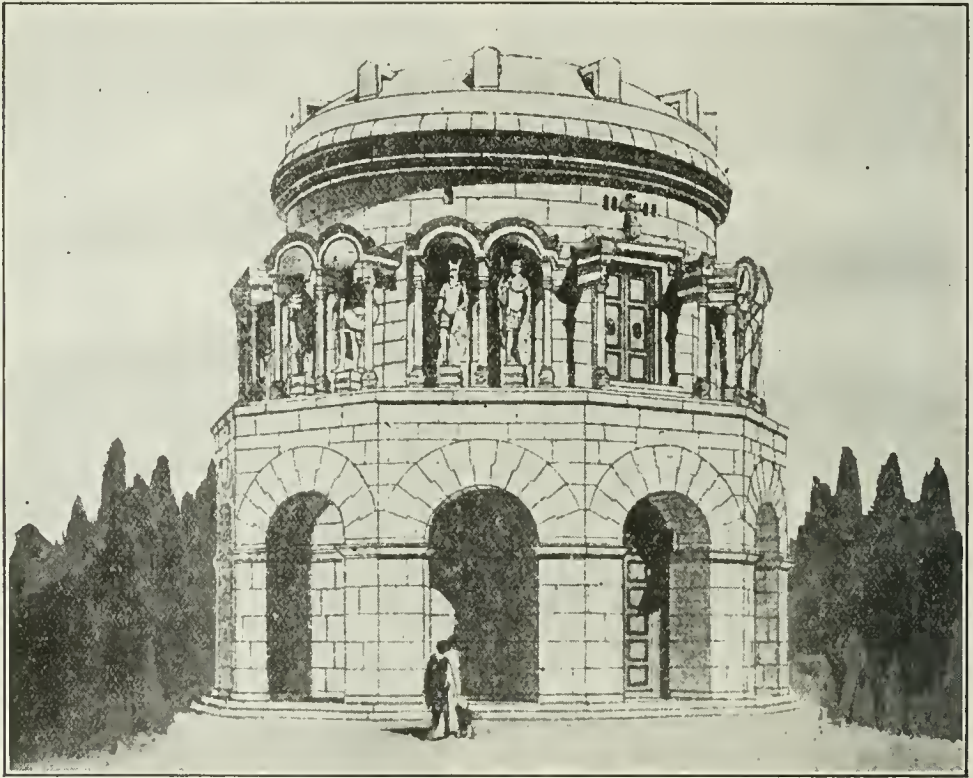
confirmed by the emperor Nepos. He had at that period acquired the Loire and the Rhone as frontiers; in Spain he subjected the whole of the province of Taragon. . . . He afterwards conquered Provence, and was acknowledged a sovereign in Arles and at Marseille, towards the year 480. No prince, whether civilized or barbarian, was at that period so much feared as Euric; and had he lived longer, it would undoubtedly have been to the Visigoths, and not to the Franks, that the honor would have belonged of reconstituting the Gallic provinces; but he died at Arles towards the end of the year 484, leaving an only son of tender age, who was crowned under the name of Alaric the Second."—J. C. L. S. de Sismondi, *French under the Merovingians* (tr. by Bellingham), ch. 4.

473-474 (Ostrogoths).—Invasions of Italy and Gaul.—"The Ostrogothic brother-kings, who served under Attila at the battle in Champagne, on the overthrow of the Hunnish Empire obtained for themselves a goodly settlement in Pannonia, on the western bank of the Danube. For near twenty years they had been engaged in desultory hostilities with their barbarian neighbours, with Sueses and Rugians on the north, with Huns and Sarmatians on the south. Now, as their countryman, Jornandés, tells us with admirable frankness, 'the spoils of these neighbouring nations were dwindling, and food and clothing began to fail the Goths.' . . . They clustered round their kings, and clamoured to be led forth to war—whither they cared not, but war must be. Theodemir, the elder king, took counsel with his brother Widemir, and they resolved to commence a campaign against the Roman Empire. Theodemir, as the more powerful chieftain, was to attack the stronger Empire of the East; Widemir, with his weaker forces, was to enter Italy. He did so, but, like so many of the northern conquerors, he soon found a grave in the beautiful but deathly land. His son, the younger Widemir, succeeded to his designs of conquest, but Glycerius [Roman emperor, for the moment] approached him with presents and smooth words, and was not ashamed to suggest that he should transfer his arms to Gaul, which was still in theory, and partially in fact, a province of the Empire. The sturdy bands of Widemir's Ostrogoths descended accordingly into the valleys of the Rhone and the Loire; they speedily renewed the ancient alliance with the Visigothic members of their scattered nationality, and helped to ruin yet more utterly the already desperate cause of Gallo-Roman freedom."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 7.

473-488 (Ostrogoths).—Rise of Theodoric.—The greater mass of the Ostrogoth nation who followed Theodemir (or Theudemir) the elder of the royal brothers, into the territories of the Eastern Empire, were rapidly successful in their adventures. The Court at Constantinople made little attempt to oppose them with arms, but bribed them to peace by gifts of money and a large cession of territory in Macedonia. "Amongst the cities which were abandoned to them was Pella, famous as the birthplace of Alexander the Great. Just after the conclusion of this treaty (in the year 474) Theudemir died, and his son Theodoric, at the age of twenty years, began his long and glorious reign as king of the Ostrogoths." Theodoric had been reared in the imperial court at Constantinople, from his eighth to his eighteenth year, his father having pledged him to the emperor as a hostage for the fulfilment of a treaty of peace. He understood, therefore, the corrupt politics of the empire and its weakness, and

he made the most of his knowledge. Sometimes at peace with the reigning powers and sometimes at war; sometimes ravaging the country to the very gates of the impregnable capital, and sometimes settled quietly on lands along the southern bank of the Danube which he had taken in exchange for the Macedonian tract; sometimes in league and sometimes in furious rivalry with another Gothic chieftain and adventurer, called Theodoric Strabo, whose origin and whose power are somewhat of a mystery—the seriousness to the Eastern Empire of the position and the strength of Theodoric and his Ostrogoths went on developing until the year 488. That year, the statesmen at Constantinople were illuminated by an idea. They

Euric had been endowed with genius and energy equal to his, it is possible that the Visigoths might have made themselves masters of the whole Western world. But there was in the kingdom one fatal element of weakness, which perhaps not even a succession of rulers like Euric could have long prevented from working the destruction of the State. The Visigoth kings were Arians; the great mass of their subjects in Gaul were Catholics, and the hatred between religious parties was so great that it was almost impossible for a sovereign to win the attachment of subjects who regarded him as a heretic." After 496, when Clovis, the king of the Franks, renounced his heathenism, professed Christianity, and was baptized by a Cath-



TOMB OF THEODORIC THE GREAT NEAR RAVENNA

As originally constructed by Theodorics' daughter in 530

proposed to Theodoric to migrate with his nation into Italy and to conquer a kingdom there. The Emperor Zeno, to whom the Roman senate had surrendered the sovereignty of the Western Roman Empire, and into whose hands the barbarian who extinguished it, Odoacer, or Odovacar, had delivered the purple robes—the Emperor Zeno, in the exercise of his imperial function, authorized the conquest to be made. Theodoric did not hesitate to accept a commission so scrupulously legal.—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 14-15.

488-526 (Ostrogoths).—The kingdom of Theodoric in Italy. See ROME: Medieval city: 488-526.

493-525 (Ostrogoths).—Theodoric in German legend. See VERONA: 493-525.

507-509 (Visigoths).—Kingdom of Toulouse overthrown by the Franks.—"If the successors of

olic bishop, the Catholics of Southern Gaul began almost openly to invite him to the conquest of their country. In the year 507 he responded to the invitation, and declared war against the Visigoths, giving simply as his ground of war that it grieved him to see the fairest part of Gaul in the hands of the Arians. "The rapidity of Clovis's advance was something quite unexpected by the Visigoths. Alaric still clung to the hope of being able to avoid a battle until the arrival of Theodoric's Ostrogoths [from his great kinsman in Italy] and wished to retreat," but the opinion of his officers forced him to make a stand. "He drew up his army on 'the field of Voclad' (the name still survives as Vouillé or Vouglé), on the banks of the Clain, a few miles south of Poitiers, and prepared to receive the attack of the Franks. The battle which followed decided the fate of

Gaul. The Visigoths were totally defeated, and their king was killed. Alaric's son, Amalaric, a child five years of age, was carried across the Pyrenees into Spain. During the next two years Clovis conquered with very little resistance, almost all the Gaulish dominions of the Visigoths, and added them to his own. The 'Kingdom of Toulouse' was no more. . . . But Clovis was not allowed to fulfil his intention of thoroughly destroying their [the Visigothic] power, for the great Theoderic of Italy took up the cause of his grandson Amalaric. The final result of many struggles between Theoderic and the Franks was that the Visigoths were allowed to remain masters of Spain, and of a strip of sea-coast bordering on the Gulf of Lyons. . . . This diminished kingdom . . . lasted just 200 years."—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 12.—See also ARLES: 508-510.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 4, ch. 9.—W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 2.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 38.

507-711 (Visigoths).—Kingdom in Spain.—The conquests of Clovis, king of the Franks, reduced the dominion of the Visigoths on the northern side of the Pyrenees to a small strip of Roman Narbonensis, along the gulf of Lyons; but most of Spain had come under their rule at that time and remained so. Amalaric, son of Alaric II (and grandson, on the maternal side, of the great Ostrogothic king, Theoderic, who ruled both Gothic kingdoms during the minority of Amalaric), reigned after the death of Theoderic until 531, when he was murdered. He had made Narbonne his capital, until he was driven from it, in a war with one of the sons of Clovis. It was recovered; but the seat of government became fixed at Toledo. During the reign of his successor, the Franks invaded Spain (543), but were beaten back from the walls of Cæsaraugusta (modern Saragossa), and retreated with difficulty and disaster. The Visigoths were now able to hold their ground against the conquerors of Gaul, and the limits of their kingdom underwent little subsequent change, until the coming of the Moors. "The Gothic kings, in spite of bloody changes and fierce opposition from their nobility, succeeded in identifying themselves with the land and the people whom they had conquered. They guided the fortunes of the country with a distinct purpose and vigorous hand. By Leovigild (572-586) the power of the rebellious nobility was broken, and the independence and name of the Sueves of Galicia extinguished. The still more dangerous religious conflict between the Catholic population and the inherited Arianism of the Goths was put down, but at the cost of the life of his son, Hermingild, who had married a Frank and Catholic princess, and who placed himself at the head of the Catholics. But Leovigild was the last Arian king. This cause of dissension was taken away by his son Reccared (568-601), who solemnly abandoned Arianism, and embraced with zeal the popular Catholic creed. He was followed by the greater part of his Arian subjects, but the change throughout the land was not accomplished without some fierce resistance. It led among other things to the disappearance of the Gothic language, and of all that recalled the Arian days, and to the destruction in Spain of what there was of Gothic literature, such as the translation of the Bible, supposed to be tainted with Arianism. But it determined the complete fusion of the Gothic and Latin population. After Reccared, two marked features of the later Spanish character began to

show themselves. One was the great prominence in the state of the ecclesiastical element. The Spanish kings sought in the clergy a counterpoise to their turbulent nobility. The great church councils of Toledo became the legislative assemblies of the nation; the bishops in them took precedence of the nobles; laws were made there as well as canons; and seventeen of these councils are recorded between the end of the fourth century and the end of the seventh. The other feature was that stern and systematic intolerance which became characteristic of Spain. Under Sisebut (612-620), took place the first expulsion of the Jews. . . . The Gothic realm of Spain was the most flourishing and the most advanced of the new Teutonic kingdoms. . . . But however the Goths in Spain might have worked out their political career, their course was rudely arrested. . . . While the Goths had been settling their laws, while their kings had been marshalling their court after the order of Byzantium, the Saracens had been drawing nearer and nearer."—R. W. Church, *Beginning of the Middle Ages*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths*, ch. 20-35.—S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal*, bk. 2.—H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors*, bk. 2.

535-553 (Ostrogoths).—Fall of the kingdom of Theoderic.—Recovery of Italy by Justinian. See ROME: Medieval city: 535-553; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 527-553.

553 (Ostrogoths).—Disappearance from History.—"Totila and Teia, last of the race of Ostrogoth kings, fell as became their heroic blood, sword in hand, upon the field of battle. Then occurred a singular phenomenon,—the annihilation and disappearance of a great and powerful people from the world's history. . . . A great people, which had organized an enlightened government, and sent 200,000 fighting-men into the field of battle, is annihilated and forgotten. A wretched remnant, transported by Narses to Constantinople, were soon absorbed in the miserable proletariat of a metropolitan city. The rest fell by the sword, or were gradually amalgamated with the mixed population of the peninsula. The Visigoth kingdom in Gaul and Spain, which had been overshadowed by the glories of the great Theoderic, emerges into independent renown, and takes up the traditions of the Gothic name. In the annals of Europe, the Ostrogoth is heard of no more."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 6.

711-713 (Visigoths).—Fall of the kingdom in Spain. See SPAIN: 711-713.

GOTINI. See GOTHINI.

"GOTT STRAFE ENGLAND" (*God punish England*), popular expression among Germans during the World War. England's entry into the conflict aroused especial resentment.

GOTTINGEN UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1006.

GOTTSCHED, Johann Christoph (1700-1766), noted German author and critic. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.

GOUBET SUBMARINE. See SUBMARINES: 1877-1890.

GOUGH, Sir Hubert de la Poer (1870- ), British general. Served in Boer War, 1899-1902; commanded the 3rd cavalry brigade at the Curragh, precipitating a political crisis; served in the World War until March, 1918, when he was deprived of his command because of a disastrous defeat. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: o; k, 2; 1916: II. Western front: d, 5; d, 7; d, 9; d, 12; 1917: II. Western front: d, 8; 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 2; c, 31.

**GOUGH, Hugh, 1st Viscount** (1779-1869), British field marshal. Commander-in-chief in China, 1840-1842; served in the Sikh War in India, 1843-1849. See INDIA: 1845-1849.

**GOULBURN, Henry** (1784-1856), English statesman. Appointed undersecretary for war and the colonies, 1812; peace commissioner at Treaty of Ghent, 1814; privy councillor, 1821; chancellor of the exchequer, 1828 and 1841; home secretary, 1835. See U. S. A.: 1814 (December): Treaty of peace, etc.

**GOULD, Jay** (1836-1892), American capitalist. Elected president of Erie Railroad, 1868; also identified with the Union Pacific, Missouri Pacific, Wabash, the Texas Pacific, the St. Louis and Northern, the St. Louis and San Francisco railroads, and the Western Union Telegraph Company. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1860.

**GOUNARIS, Demetrios** (1866-1922), Greek statesman. Premier of Greece, 1915 and 1920; executed November 28, 1922. See GREECE: 1915 (February-June); (June-November); 1920-1921; 1922 (November-December).

**GOUNOD, Charles François** (1818-1893), French composer. Studied at the Paris Conservatory with Reicha, Halévy, Lesueur, and Paër; won Grand Prix de Rome, 1830; appointed organist and choir-master, Missions Etrangères, Paris, 1844; produced his first opera, "Sapho," 1851; operatic masterpiece, "Faust," 1859; "Romeo et Juliette," 1867; the famous St. Cecilia mass, 1882; the oratorio "Redemption," 1882; and "Mors et Vita," 1885. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1921.

**GOURAUD, Henri Joseph Eugène** (1867- ), French general. Served in the World War; 1918, stoutly resisted the last German offensive and in the Allied counter-offensive led an army through Champagne on the left of the American Meuse-Argonne operation; high commissioner in Syria and commander-in-chief in the Levant, 1910. See SYRIA: 1908-1921; WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: a, 4, xvi; 1918: II. Western front: g, 12; g, 14; m; x, l.

**GOURGUES, Dominique de** (c. 1530-1593), French leader of an expedition against Spaniards in Florida, 1567-1568. See FLORIDA: 1567-1568.

**GOURKO, Basil**, Russian general. Chief of Russian Imperial General Staff, November, 1916-March, 1917; commander-in-chief of Western Armies, March-June, 1917, when he was dismissed by Kerensky.

**GOURNIA**, town in eastern Crete, situated about 60 miles east of Candia. It was, in ancient times, an important center of Minoan civilization. See AEGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area.

**GOUVION SAINT-CYR, Laurent, Marquis de** (1764-1830), French marshal. He took part in the Napoleonic campaigns and later under the Bourbons held cabinet offices. Of considerable military ability, he lacked sufficient energy to be a really great commander.

**GOUZAUCOURT**, town in France, southwest of Cambrai. It was captured by the Germans in 1917 but retaken by the Allies in the following year. See WORLD WAR: 1917: I. Summary: b, 11; II. Western front: g, 12; 1918: II. Western front: o, 1.

**GOVERNMENT: Definition.**—"To define the term government broadly, . . . it might be said to be the sum total of those organizations that exercise or may exercise the sovereign powers of the state. Since all the sovereign powers of the state may be exercised through the following departments, singly or collectively, the government may be thus tabulated: 1. The legal sovereign, maker of

fundamental law; 2. The lawmaking department, making statutes; 3. The executive, from which is differentiating the 4. Administrative; 5. The judicial system, from which is separating (in the United States) 6. A special court for the authoritative interpretation of the written constitution. 7. The electorate, which is steadily increasing its powers at the expense of the three historic departments of government. Doubtless for many years to come text-books and theorists will continue to discuss the threefold division of governmental organization, but in this age of governmental differentiation it is well-nigh impossible to get a clear understanding of government unless one considers the electorate as a fourth department. Furthermore, much more exactness in theorizing would be attained by separating, mentally at least, the legal sovereign from the other departments of government. The differentiation of administration from the executive is almost an accomplished fact on the continent of Europe. The remaining specialization is peculiar to the United States of America and deserves special attention because of its political importance, for if the Supreme Court of the Federal department ultimately devotes itself only to final interpretations of the Constitution, the political party affiliations of the members of its bench will become a matter of increasing concern."—J. Q. Dealey, *State and government*, pp. 172-174.

See FEDERAL GOVERNMENT; STATE GOVERNMENT; MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT; COMMISSION GOVERNMENT; CITY MANAGER PLAN; ARISTOCRACY; BICAMERAL SYSTEM; BILL OF RIGHTS; CABINET; CONSTITUTIONS; COURTS; CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES; GRAND REMONSTRANCE; INSTRUMENT OF GOVERNMENT; MAGNA CARTA; PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH; PETITION OF RIGHT; PRIVY COUNCIL; SUPREME COURT; also under names of countries, laws, etc., e.g. ENGLAND; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW.

**GOVERNMENT INSURANCE.** See INSURANCE: Government insurance; SOCIAL INSURANCE. **GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT** (1919). See INDIA: 1918-1920; 1921.

**GOVERNMENT OF IRELAND ACT.** See IRELAND: 1921 (May-June).

**GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL:** Of liquor. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Canada: 1921; England: 1908; 1914-1918; Russia; United States: 1913-1910.

**Of railroads.** See RAILROADS: 1823-1905; 1832-1905; 1837-1908; 1894; 1910-1920; 1917-1919; 1920; Esch-Cummins Act; ARGENTINA: Railroads; CHINA: 1920: Growth of the railway system.

**Of telegraphs and telephones.** See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES.

**GOVERNMENT RIGHTS TO PRIVATE PROPERTY.** See EMINENT DOMAIN: Definition.

**GOVERNOR: Method of election.—Powers.**—Terms and salaries in various states of the United States.—Colonial governors. See STATE GOVERNMENT: 1776-1800; 1800-1850; 1850-1921; 1890-1921; 1921; VIRGINIA: 1918; COLONIZATION: French.

**GOVERNOR-GENERAL:** In British colonies. See AUSTRALIA, CONSTITUTION OF; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867; INDIA: 1918-1920.

**GOVERNORS' CONFERENCE.**—The first conference of Governors was held May 13 to 15, 1908, in the East Room of the White House. The conference was called by President Roosevelt for the purpose of discussing the conservation of natural resources. (See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1907-1910.) The second conference was held at Washington in January, 1910. At that meeting, which was most informal,

it was decided to hold annual conferences thereafter, the next to be in Frankfort and Louisville, Kentucky. The general object of the Governors' conference is "to secure the general national welfare by uniformity of State legislation upon subjects having general national interest which are not by the Constitution entrusted to Congress and the central Government. . . . There are matters in which the States have a common interest, which can best be regulated by the States themselves, and in which fairness and justice between States and individuals suggest, and even demand, practically identical statutory regulations."—*Proceedings of the third meeting of the governors of the states of the Union, 1910, pp. 4, 13.*—Among the matters which came under discussion at Louisville and Frankfort, Kentucky, Nov. 29, 30, Dec. 1, 1910, were the following: automobile reciprocity laws, conservation, direct primaries, employers' liability and workmen's compensation, income tax amendment, and woman suffrage. An address by Woodrow Wilson, then Governor-elect of New Jersey, dealt with the possibilities of the Governors' conference. A portion of his address follows: "The thing we are here trying to do is to co-ordinate and form some of these otherwise vagrant forces. It is an extra-constitutional enterprise, but natural, spontaneous, imperative, perhaps creative. If it is not constitutional in kind, according to the strict uses of that word in America, it is at least institutional. If these conferences become fixed annual events, planned for and carried forward from year to year as an habitual means of working towards common ends of counsel and co-operation, this council will at least become an institution. I do not know how better to define an institution than by saying that it is an habitual and systematic way of doing something which calls for co-operation and a certain union in action. If it grows into a dignified and permanent institution, it will be because we have found it necessary to supply some vital means of co-operation in matters which lie outside the sphere of the Federal Government, matters which the States must regulate but which they find it to their interest, and to the interest of the country as a whole, to regulate according to common principles and a very careful adaptation to conditions which no one State can control—matters in regard to which they ought to act, not necessarily alike, but with a careful regard to imperative consideration of general policy which can be differently applied but cannot safely or wisely be differently conceived. In brief, we are setting up, outside the sphere of the Federal Congress, a new instrument of political life, national in its character, scope, and intention; an instrument, not of legislation, but of opinion, exercising the authority of influence, not of law."—*Proceedings of the third meeting of the governors of the states of the Union, 1910, pp. 43-44.*—"September 12, 1911, the fourth Conference of Governors was called to order at the New Monmouth Hotel, Spring Lake Beach [New Jersey], . . . by Governor Wilson of New Jersey."—*Proceedings of the fourth meeting of the governors of the states of the Union.*—Thirty governors were present. Governor Norris, of Montana, began the discussion with a paper on "Strengthening the Power of the Executive." He was followed by the chief executive of Alabama, who addressed the conference on the same subject. Employers' liability and woman suffrage were again discussed, the latter subject being granted thirty minutes, as against three minutes at the meeting two years before. "The Right of the State to fix

intra-state traffic rates" was discussed by Governors Hadley and Aldrich. Convict labor, the inheritance tax, blue sky laws, and state control of public utilities were other important topics. The next meeting of the Governors' conference was held in Richmond, Va., in 1912. The subjects under discussion included uniformity of divorce laws, primary system, simplifications of laws, amelioration of the condition of convicts, equitable systems of taxation of property. "A committee was appointed for the purpose of preparing suitable legislation to introduce into the States a system of co-operative rural credits and land mortgage banks, similar to those which have been so successfully operated in Europe. The sixth Conference of Governors was called to order at . . . Colorado Springs, Colo., [on August 26, 1913] by Governor McGovern of Wisconsin." Governor McGovern said: "This is the sixth session of the Governors' Conference and the first session since it was permanently organized. Although it is still a very young governmental institution, it has already proved to be a source of pleasure and benefit to its members, of substantial advantage to the states from which they come, and of real good to the entire country. . . . We have no permanent officers, such as president or vice-president, but instead, a member of the Conference presides at each half-day's session. The Executive Committee, . . . under the Constitution of the Conference, has this matter in charge."—*Governors' conference, Proceedings, 1913, p. 17.*—Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, delivered an address on the questions of the day that affected the West. Rural credit, a state department of efficiency and economy, state assumption of nomination and election expenses, distrust of states' legislatures, control of public utilities, initiative and referendum, blue sky laws, national highways, etc., were topics of discussion at this meeting. Madison, Wisconsin, was chosen as the place of the next meeting. The seventh conference heard a report from its committee on rural credits. It listened to discussions of state control of natural resources, safety and sanitation laws, extradition, laws relating to foreign corporations, and the question of submission of the governors' recommendations in bill form. Dr. Charles McCarthy, of the Legislative Reference Library in Wisconsin, spoke on the work of his department. "Twenty-six States of the Union were represented by their chief executives at the Conference of Governors in Boston, August 24-27, [1915] and eleven former Governors came too, while three members of President Wilson's Cabinet dropped in more or less informally, but always appositely, during the sessions, which were held in the historic State House. This [was] the eighth meeting of the 'House of Governors,' and the value of the Conference was never more striking than in this troublous year. . . . In the first session, when 'Governor's initiative,' the short ballot, and the co-operation of Governors in preparing State budgets were the subjects of the papers read, the discussion was lively. . . . The interest centered almost entirely on two . . . topics—the abolition of capital punishment . . . and the necessity of military preparedness. . . . Almost every Governor spoke, and every speech was in favor of adequate preparedness. . . . The following telegram was sent to President Wilson: The Governors of the several commonwealths, . . . in conference assembled, desire to tender to you an expression of their confidence and support in this hour of deep international concern, and to assure you of their readiness to follow your leadership

in all matters which you may deem best to promote the honor and maintain the peace and welfare of the nation."—*Outlook*, Sept. 8, 1915, pp. 71-73.—Thirty-two governors were present at the ninth conference, which met in Washington on December 14, 1916. Topics under discussion were: the executive budget, state administrative problems, the short ballot, water power development, capital punishment, our duty at the close of the World War, the National Guard, and the proposed waterway from the Lakes to the Gulf. Salt Lake City was chosen as the next meeting place. The twelfth conference was in December, 1920. The governors met at Harrisburg, Pa. The chief topic discussed was legislation to assist the farmer. The thirteenth conference was held at Charleston, S. C., December, 1921. The fourteenth conference met at White Sulphur Springs, W. Va., December 14-16, 1922. Prohibition and the Ku Klux Klan were among the subjects discussed at this meeting.

**GOVERNOR'S COUNCIL.** See **COUNCIL, GOVERNOR'S.**

**GOVIND SINGH** (1675-1708), Guru of the Sikhs. See **SIKHS; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.**

**GOWER, John** (c. 1325-1408), English poet. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.**

**GOWRIE PLOT**, conceived by John Ruthven, and others to abduct James VI of Scotland. See **SCOTLAND: 1600.**

**GOYA Y LUCIENTES, Francisco** (1746-1828), Spanish painter. Appointed court painter in 1788. See **PAINTING: Spanish.**

**GRACCHUS, Gaius Sempronius** (153-121 B.C.), Roman statesman. One of the leaders of the plebeians in their struggle with the patricians; quaestor in Sardinia, 126-123 B.C.; elected tribune of the people, 123 and 122 B.C. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 133-121.**

**GRACCHUS, Tiberius Sempronius** (163-133 B.C.), Roman statesman. One of the leaders of the plebeians in their struggle with the patricians; elected tribune of the people, 133 B.C. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 133-121.**

"**GRACES**" OF CHARLES I. See **IRELAND: 1625.**

**GRACIOSA ISLAND**, one of the Azores group. See **AZORES.**

**GRADISCA**, town on the west bank of the Isonzo, about twenty-two miles northwest of Trieste. Was taken from the Austrians by the Italians, June 10, 1915, and as a result of Allied victory in the World War became Italian territory. See **LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF; ITALY: Geographic description.**

**GRADY, Henry Woodfin** (1851-1889), American journalist and orator. See **GEORGIA: 1870-1890.**

**GRÆCO-**. See **GRECO-**.

**GRAF, GRAFIO.**—"The highest official dignity of which the Salic law [law of the Salian Franks] makes mention is the Grafio (Graf, Count), who was appointed by the king, and therefore protected by a triple . . . leodis [weregild]. His authority and jurisdiction extended over a district answering to the gau (canton) of later times, in which he acted as the representative of the king, and was civil and military governor of the people."—W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 10.

**GRAFT**, expression used to designate a form of corrupt practice in politics or business. It is a peculiarly American expression. It includes acquisition of money by unjust or dishonest means, as for example, taking advantage of positions of trust to obtain fees or profits on contracts; also the securing of political or business positions of trust

and profit by illegitimate or unfair means. The word is thought to have been derived from the idea that the practice was a *graft*, or unnatural growth upon a legitimate political or business enterprise, as distinguished from natural or proper development.—See also **BOSS.**

**GRAFTON, Augustus Henry Fitzroy, 3rd Duke of** (1735-1811), English statesman. Secretary of state, 1765-1766; became first lord of the treasury, 1766; lord privy seal, 1771-1775, and 1782. See **JUNIUS LETTERS.**

**GRAFTON-CHATHAM MINISTRY.** See **ENGLAND: 1765-1768; 1770.**

**GRAHAM, Stephen Victor** (1874- ), naval officer. See **WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: c, 3.**

**GRAHAM'S DIKE.** See **ROMAN WALLS IN BRITAIN.**

**GRAIKOI.** See **HELLAS.**

**GRAIL, Holy**, traditional sacred chalice or cup used by Christ at the Last Supper. Another legend supposed it to have been the vessel used by Joseph of Arimathea to receive the dying Saviour's blood. Whether the Grail legend is of purely Christian or of pagan origin with a later Christian development is open to question. Its connection with Glastonbury is through Joseph of Arimathea, the legendary founder of that abbey.

ALSO IN: A. T. Nutt, *Studies on the legend of the Holy Grail*.—J. Rhys, *Origin of the Holy Grail (Studies in the Arthurian legend, pp. 300-332)*.—A. F. S. Remy, *Grail (Catholic encyclopedia, v. 6, pp. 710-721)*.—M. A. Berkeley, *Glastonbury and the Grail legend (Folk-lore, 1920, v. 31, pp. 307-319)*.

**GRAIN COAST**, Africa. See **LIBERIA: Geographic description.**

**GRAIN GROWERS' ASSOCIATIONS.** See **COÖPERATION: Canada.**

**GRAINGER, Percy Aldridge** (1882- ), Australian pianist and composer. See **MUSIC: Modern: 1842-1921: Modern English composers.**

**GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.** See **EDUCATION.**

**GRAMMARIANS, Roman.** See **EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 6th-A.D. 5th centuries: Rome: Higher education.**

**GRAMONT, Antoine Agénor Alfred, Duc de** (Duc de Guiche, Prince de Bidache) (1819-1880), French diplomat and politician. Minister plenipotentiary at Cassel, Stuttgart and Turin, 1852, 1853; ambassador at Rome, 1857; ambassador at Vienna, 1861-1870; minister of foreign affairs, 1870. See **FRANCE: 1870 (June-July).**

**GRAMPIANS, or Mons Graupius, Battle of.**—Victoriously fought by the Romans under Agricola with the tribes of Caledonia, A.D. 84. Mr. Skene fixes the battle ground at the junction of the Isla with the Tay. See **BRITAIN: A.D. 78-84.**

**GRAN.** See **ESZTERGOM.**

**GRAN CHACO.**—"This tract of flat country, lying between the tropic and 29° S., extends eastward to the Parana and Paraguay, and westward to the province of Santiago del Estero. Its area is 180,000 sq. miles. About one-third belongs to Paraguay, and a small part to Bolivia, but the bulk is in the Argentine Republic. . . . The Gran Chaco is no desert, but a rich alluvial lowland, fitted for colonization, which is hindered by the want of knowledge of the rivers and their shiftings."—*American Naturalist*, v. 23, p. 799.—"In the Quitchoano language, which is the original language of Peru, they call 'chacu,' those great flocks of deer, goats, and such other wild animals, which the inhabitants of this part of America drive together when they hunt them; and this name was given to the country we speak of, because at the



time Francis Pizarro made himself master of a great part of the Peruvian empire, a great number of its inhabitants took refuge there. Of 'Chacu,' which the Spaniards pronounce 'Chacou,' custom has made 'Chaco.' It appears that, at first, they comprehended nothing under this name but the country lying between the mountains of the Cordillere, the Pilco Mayo, and the Red River; and that they extended it, in process of time, in proportion as other nations joined the Peruvians, who had taken refuge there to defend their liberties against the Spaniards."—Father Charlevoix, *History of Paraguay*, v. 1, bk. 3.—This region was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1527, when he entered the Parana and Paraguay rivers, just eleven years after Juan de Solis sailed into the great estuary of the Rio de la Plata. There is a remarkable contrast offered between the civilization to be found on the east bank of the Paraguay river and the primitive, uncivilized conditions which still obtain on the west bank in the Chaco region. "At night on the Chaco bank may be seen the half-naked forms of Indians as they move to and fro in the flickering light of their camp fires which but dimly illuminate their rude shelters, standing in a clearing in the dark forest which forms a background. The painted faces and plumed heads of these savages enhance the weirdness of the scene. The sounds which greet the ear are equally barbarous. A low droning chant may be heard, accompanied by the rattle of gourds, and broken only too often by the shrill cry of pain when a child, perhaps, has been cruelly murdered, and the women's voices are raised in lamentation. Yet from this bank at the same moment may be plainly heard the loud shriek of the siren of a large Brazilian passenger steamer as she nears the port of a Paraguayan town just across the river, with the bright rays of her electric light streaming from her saloons and decks, and the twinkling lights of the town dotted along the opposite bank easily distinguishable in the distance. . . . On the eastern bank of the River Paraguay we find large, modern cities with a civilization, in many cases, far in advance of some of our European towns. It is strange indeed that, with only a few miles dividing them, you see on the one bank primitive man as he was centuries ago, and on the other the highly-cultivated European, both equally ignorant of the life of the other. It seems almost incredible that, for nearly four generations, civilization and Christianity have sat facing barbarism and heathenism, and yet have stood wholly apart. No great and impassable barrier has divided the two; on the contrary, the crossing from one bank to the other is simple, and, even under the most unfavorable circumstances, a matter of only a few hours. One of the finest lines of river steamers has been plying far up the course of the River Paraguay for many years, and communication has been regularly maintained between Europe and these regions."—W. B. Grubb, *Unknown people in an unknown land*, pp. 17-18.—See also ARGENTINA: Population; PAMPAS TRIBES.

**GRANADA**, province, formerly a kingdom in southern Spain. It is bounded on the east by Murcia, on the west by Seville, on the north by Cordova and Jaén and on the south by the Mediterranean. It has an area of 4,928 square miles and an aggregate population of 545,217 (December, 1910). The city of Granada is the capital of the province. Its ancient quarters still retain some Moorish buildings of which the Alhambra is the most important. [See ALHAMBRA.] The city "was small and unimportant until the year 1012. Be-

fore that time, it was considered a dependency of Elvira (the neighboring ancient Roman city of Illiberis); but, little by little, the people of Elvira migrated to it, and as it grew Elvira dwindled into insignificance."—H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors*, v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 5, note.

711.—Taken by the Arab-Moors. See SPAIN: 711-713.

1238.—Founding of the Moorish kingdom.—Vassalage to the king of Castile. See SPAIN: 1212-1238.

1238-1273.—Kingdom under its founder.—Building of the Alhambra. See SPAIN: 1238-1273.

1273-1460.—Slow decay and crumbling of the Moorish kingdom. See SPAIN: 1273-1460.

15th century.—Establishment of the university. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Saracen and Moorish learning.

1476-1492.—Fall of the Moorish kingdom. See SPAIN: 1476-1492.

GRANADA, Treaty of (1500). See ITALY: 1501-1504.

GRANADINE CONFEDERATION (1863). See COLOMBIA: 1830-1886.

GRAND ALLIANCES AND WARS: Against Louis XIV of France. See FRANCE: 1689-1690, to 1695-1696; AUSTRIA: 1672-1714; SPAIN: 1701-1702, to 1707-1710; ENGLAND: 1701-1702; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary movement for self-government.

GRAND ARMY OF THE REPUBLIC.—

"The Grand Army of the Republic was organized April 6, 1866, in Decatur, the county seat of Macon County, Illinois. Its originator was Dr. Benjamin F. Stephenson, a physician of Springfield, Illinois, who had served during the war as surgeon of the 14th Illinois Infantry. He had spent many weeks in study and plans so that the Order might be one that would meet with the general approval of the surviving comrades of the war, and thus insure their hearty co-operation. He made a draft of a ritual, and sent it by Captain John S. Phelps to Decatur, where two veterans, Messrs. Coltrin and Prior, had a printing-office. These gentlemen, with their employees, who had been in the service, were first obligated to secrecy, and the ritual was then placed in type in their office. Captain Phelps returned to Springfield with proofs of the ritual, but the comrades in Decatur were so interested in the project, that, with the active assistance of Captain M. F. Kanan and Dr. J. W. Routh, a sufficient number of names were at once secured to an application for charter, and these gentlemen went to Springfield to request Dr. Stephenson to return with them and organize a post at Decatur. The formation of a post was under way in Springfield, but not being ready for muster, Dr. Stephenson, accompanied by several comrades, proceeded to Decatur, and, as stated, on April 6, 1866, mustered post No. 1, with General Isaac C. Pugh as post commander, and Captain Kanan as adjutant. The latter gave material aid to Dr. Stephenson in the work of organizing other posts, and Dr. Routh served as chairman of a committee to revise the ritual. The title, 'The Grand Army of the Republic, U. S.' was formally adopted that night. Soon after this, post No. 2 was organized at Springfield with General Jules C. Webber as commander. . . . Nothing was done in the Eastern States about establishing posts until the opportunity was given for consultation on this subject at a national soldiers' and sailors' convention, held in Pittsburg in September, 1866, when prominent representatives

from Eastern States were obligated and authorized to organize posts. The first posts so established were posts Nos. 1 in Philadelphia, and 3 in Pittsburgh, by charters direct from the acting commander-in-chief, Dr. Stephenson; and post 2, Philadelphia, by charter received from General J. K. Proudfit, department commander of Wisconsin. A department convention was held at Springfield, Illinois, July 12, 1866, and adopted resolutions declaring the objects of the G. A. R. General John M. Palmer was elected the first Department Commander. . . . The first national convention was held at Indianapolis, Ind., November 20, 1866. . . . General Stephen A. Hurlbut, of Illinois, was elected Commander-in-Chief. General Thomas B. McKean, of New York, Senior Vice-Commander-in-Chief; General Nathan Kimball, of Indiana, Junior Vice-Commander-in-Chief; and Dr. Stephenson, Adjutant-General. The objects of the Order cannot be more briefly stated than from the articles and regulations. 1. To preserve and strengthen those kind and fraternal feelings which bind together the Soldiers, Sailors, and Marines who united to suppress the late Rebellion, and to perpetuate the memory and history of the dead. 2. To assist such former comrades in arms as need help and protection, and to extend needful aid to the widows and orphans of those who have fallen. 3. To maintain true allegiance to the United States of America, based upon a paramount respect for, and fidelity to, its Constitution and laws, to discountenance whatever tends to weaken loyalty, incites to insurrection, treason, or rebellion, or in any manner impairs the efficiency and permanency of our free institutions; and to encourage the spread of universal liberty, equal rights, and justice to all men. Article IV. defines the qualifications of members in the following terms: Soldiers and Sailors of the United States Army, Navy, or Marine Corps who served between April 12, 1861, and April 29, 1865, in the war for the suppression of the Rebellion, and those having been honorably discharged therefrom after such service, and of such State regiments as were called into active service and subject to the orders of United States general officers, between the dates mentioned, shall be eligible to membership in the Grand Army of the Republic. No person shall be eligible who has at any time borne arms against the United States. . . . The second national encampment was held in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Pa., January 15, 1868. . . . General John A. Logan, of Illinois, was elected Commander-in-Chief. . . . That which tended most to attract public attention to the organization was the issuance of the order of General Logan early in his administration, in 1868, directing the observance of May 30th as Memorial Day. . . . At the national encampment, held May 11, 1870, at Washington, D. C., the following article was adopted as a part of the rules and regulations: "The national encampment hereby establishes a Memorial Day, to be observed by the members of the Grand Army of the Republic, on the 30th day of May annually, in commemoration of the deeds of our fallen comrades. When such day occurs on Sunday, the preceding day shall be observed, except where, by legal enactment, the succeeding day is made a legal holiday, when such day shall be observed." Memorial Day has been observed as such every year since throughout the country wherever a post of the Grand Army of the Republic has been established. In most of the States the day has been designated as a holiday."—W. H. Ward, ed., *Records of members of the Grand Army of the Republic*, pp. 6-9.—In 1890 the membership reached

a total of 409,487. On January 1, 1920, there were 4,458 posts and a total membership of 102,438.

ALSO IN: G. S. Merrill, *Grand Army of the Republic* (*New England Magazine*, Aug., 1890).—*Fifty years of the Grand Army* (*Independent*, Oct. 11, 1915).—R. B. Beath, *History of the Grand Army of the Republic*.

**GRAND ARMY REMONSTRANCE.** See ENGLAND: 1648 (November-December).

**GRAND CANAL, China.** See CANALS: Asiatic: China.

**GRAND CANAL, Venice,** chief waterway winding through the city and lined on both sides with famous palaces.

**GRAND CAÑON, Colorado:** Discovered in 1540. See AMERICA: 1540-1541.

**GRAND CONSEIL,** court created by Charles VIII of France at the end of the 15th century. See FRANCE: 1647-1648.

**GRAND COUNCIL,** governing body of Venice created in 1172. See VENICE: 1032-1319.

**GRAND JUNCTION CANAL.** See CANALS: Principal European: British Isles.

**GRAND JURY.**—"In England and the United States . . . in all cases of serious crime use is made of what is known as a Grand Jury to conduct an inquiry and determine whether a person accused of the offense shall be put upon trial. This jury consists of a number of private individuals, usually twenty-one, who are selected from time to time to sit and examine into accusations of crime. If they deem that a *prima facie* case exists against any person they 'present' or 'indict' him. The term 'present' is used when the jury acts upon its own initiative and 'indict' when it acts upon a case brought before them by the prosecuting attorney. Persons so indicted are then placed upon trial to determine their innocence or guilt. The proceedings of the grand jury are secret and of an *ex parte* character, in that the accused need be given no opportunity to be heard or to produce witnesses in his defense."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government of modern states*, pp. 373-374.—In early England a group of freeholders were chosen to inquire into cases concerning the commission of crimes in order that prosecutions could be made in the king's name. They were called "le grand inquest," and later "the grand jury." A statute of Edward III provided for the calling of such juries. The fifth amendment to the Constitution of the United States provides that "No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger." The state constitutions have similar guarantees.

**GRAND MODEL.**—The "fundamental constitutions" framed by the philosopher, John Locke, for the Carolinas, were so called in their day. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1660-1693.

**GRAND ORIENT.** See MASONIC SOCIETIES: France: American criticism of French masonry.

**GRAND PENSIONARY,** chief minister of Holland. See NETHERLANDS: 1648-1650.

**GRAND PRE,** village just north of the Argonne forest, eastern France. In 1918 taken from the Germans by the Americans in their Meuse-Argonne drive to Sedan.

**GRAND REMONSTRANCE.**—"It was felt to be necessary to send an army into Ireland, and, if the army was to go under the king's orders, there was nothing to prevent him using it—after Ireland had been subdued—against the English

Parliament. . . . The perception of this danger led the Commons [1641] to draw up a statement of their case, known as the Grand Remonstrance. They began with a long indictment of all Charles's errors from the beginning of his reign, and, though the statements were undoubtedly exaggerated, they were adopted by the whole House. When, however, it came to the proposal of remedies, there was a great division amongst the members. The party led by Pym and Hampden, by which the Remonstrance had been drawn up, asked for the appointment of ministers responsible to Parliament, and for the reference of Church matters to an Assembly of divines nominated by Parliament. The party led by Hyde and Falkland saw that the granting of these demands would be tantamount to the erection of the sovereignty of Parliament in Church and State; and, as they feared that this in turn would lead to the establishment of Presbyterian despotism, they preferred to imagine that it was still possible to make Charles a constitutional sovereign. On November 23 there was a stormy debate, and the division was not taken till after midnight. A small majority of eleven declared against the king. The majority then proposed to print the Remonstrance for the purpose of circulating it among the people. The minority protested, and, as a protest was unprecedented in the House of Commons, a wild uproar ensued. Members snatched at their swords, and it needed all Hampden's persuasive pleadings to quiet the tumult."—S. R. Gardiner, *Student's history of England*, p. 534.—See also ENGLAND: 1641 (November).—The following is the text of "The Grand Remonstrance," with that of Petition preceding it:

Most Gracious Sovereign: Your Majesty's most humble and faithful subjects the Commons in this present Parliament assembled, do with much thankfulness and joy acknowledge the great mercy and favour of God, in giving your Majesty a safe and peaceable return out of Scotland into your kingdom of England, where the pressing dangers and distempers of the State have caused us with much earnestness to desire the comfort of your gracious presence, and likewise the unity and justice of your royal authority, to give more life and power to the dutiful and loyal counsels and endeavours of your Parliament, for the prevention of that eminent ruin and destruction wherein your kingdoms of England and Scotland are threatened. The duty which we owe to your Majesty and our country, cannot but make us very sensible and apprehensive, that the multiplicity, sharpness and malignity of those evils under which we have now many years suffered, are fomented and cherished by a corrupt and ill-affected party, who amongst other their mischievous devices for the alteration of religion and government, have sought by many false scandals and imputations, cunningly insinuated and dispersed amongst the people, to blemish and disgrace our proceedings in this Parliament, and to get themselves a party and faction amongst your subjects, for the better strengthening themselves in their wicked courses, and hindering those provisions, and remedies which might, by the wisdom of your Majesty and counsel of your Parliament, be opposed against them. For preventing whereof, and the better information of your Majesty, your Peers and all other your loyal subjects, we have been necessitated to make a declaration of the state of the kingdom, both before and since the assembly of this Parliament, unto this time, which we do humbly present to your Majesty, without the least intention to lay any blemish upon your royal person, but only to pre-

resent how your royal authority and trust have been abused, to the great prejudice and danger of your Majesty, and of all your good subjects. And because we have reason to believe that those malignant parties, whose proceedings evidently appear to be mainly for the advantage and increase of Popery, is composed, set up, and acted by the subtle practice of the Jesuits and other engineers and factors for Rome, and to the great danger of this kingdom, and most grievous affliction of your loyal subjects, have so far prevailed as to corrupt divers of your Bishops and others in prime places of the Church, and also to bring divers of these instruments to be of your Privy Council, and other employments of trust and nearness about your Majesty, the Prince, and the rest of your royal children. And by this means have had such an operation in your counsel and the most important affairs and proceedings of your government, that a most dangerous division and chargeable preparation for war betwixt your kingdoms of England and Scotland, the increase of jealousies betwixt your Majesty and your most obedient subjects, the violent distraction and interruption of this Parliament, the insurrection of the Papists in your kingdom of Ireland, and bloody massacre of your people, have been not only endeavoured and attempted, but in a great measure compassed and effected. For preventing the final accomplishment whereof, your poor subjects are enforced to engage their persons and estates to the maintaining of a very expensive and dangerous war, notwithstanding they have already since the beginning of this Parliament undergone the charge of £150,000 sterling, or thereabouts, for the necessary support and supply of your Majesty in these present and perilous designs. And because all our most faithful endeavours and engagements will be ineffectual for the peace, safety and preservation of your Majesty and your people, if some present, real and effectual course be not taken for suppressing this wicked and malignant party:—We, your most humble and obedient subjects, do with all faithfulness and humility beseech your Majesty,—

1. That you will be graciously pleased to concur with the humble desires of your people in a parliamentary way, for the preserving the peace and safety of the kingdom from the malicious designs of the Popish party:—For depriving the Bishops of their votes in Parliament, and abridging their immoderate power usurped over the Clergy, and other your good subjects, which they have perniciously abused to the hazard of religion, and great prejudice and oppression of the laws of the kingdom, and just liberty of your people:—For the taking away such oppressions in religion, Church government and discipline, as have been brought in and fomented by them:—For uniting all such your loyal subjects together as join in the same fundamental truths against the Papists, by removing some oppressions and unnecessary ceremonies by which divers weak consciences have been scrupled, and seem to be divided from the rest, and for the due execution of those good laws which have been made for securing the liberty of your subjects.
2. That your Majesty will likewise be pleased to remove from your council all such as persist to favour and promote any of those pressures and corruptions wherewith your people have been grieved, and that for the future your Majesty will vouchsafe to employ such persons in your great and public affairs, and to take such to be near you in places of trust, as your Parliament may have cause to confide in: that in your princely goodness to your people you will reject and refuse all mediation and solicitation to the contrary,

how powerful and near soever. 3. That you will be pleased to forbear to alienate any of the forfeited and escheated lands in Ireland which shall accrue to your Crown by reason of this rebellion, that out of them the Crown may be the better supported, and some satisfaction made to your subjects of this kingdom for the great expenses they are like to undergo [in] this war. Which humble desires of ours being graciously fulfilled by your Majesty, we will, by the blessing and favour of God, most cheerfully undergo the hazard and expenses of this war, and apply ourselves to such other courses and counsels as may support your real estate with honour and plenty at home, with power and reputation abroad, and by our loyal affections, obedience and service, lay a sure and lasting foundation of the greatness and prosperity of your Majesty, and your royal prosperity in future times.

The Commons in this present Parliament assembled, having with much earnestness and faithfulness of affection and zeal to the public good of this kingdom, and His Majesty's honour and service for the space of twelve months, wrestled with great dangers and fears, the pressing miseries and calamities, the various distempers and disorders which had not only assaulted, but even overwhelmed and extinguished the liberty, peace and prosperity of this kingdom, the comfort and hopes of all His Majesty's good subjects, and exceedingly weakened and undermined the foundation and strength of his own royal throne, do yet find an abounding malignity and opposition in those parties and factions who have been the cause of those evils, and do still labour to cast aspersions upon that which hath been done, and to raise many difficulties for the hindrance of that which remains yet undone, and to foment jealousies between the King and Parliament, that so they may deprive him and his people of the fruit of his own gracious intentions, and their humble desires of procuring the public peace, safety and happiness of this realm. For the preventing of those miserable effects which such malicious endeavours may produce, we have thought good to declare the root and the growth of these mischievous designs: the maturity and ripeness to which they have attained before the beginning of the Parliament: the effectual means which have been used for the extirpation of those dangerous evils, and the progress which hath therein been made by His Majesty's goodness and the wisdom of the Parliament: the ways of obstruction and opposition by which that progress hath been interrupted: the courses to be taken for the removing those obstacles, and for the accomplishing of our most dutiful and faithful intentions and endeavours of restoring and establishing the ancient honour, greatness and security of this Crown and nation. The root of all this mischief we find to be a malignant and pernicious design of subverting the fundamental laws and principles of government, upon which the religion and justice of this kingdom are firmly established. The actors and promoters hereof have been: 1. The Jesuited Papists, who hate the laws, as the obstacles of that change and subversion of religion which they so much long for. 2. The Bishops, and the corrupt part of the Clergy, who cherish formality and superstition as the natural effects and more probable supports of their own ecclesiastical tyranny and usurpation. 3. Such Councillors and Courtiers as for private ends have engaged themselves to further the interests of some foreign princes or states to the prejudice of His Majesty and the State at home. The common principles by which they

moulded and governed all their particular counsels and actions were these: First, to maintain continual differences and discontents between the King and the people, upon questions of prerogative and liberty, that so they might have the advantage of siding with him, and under the notions of men addicted to his service, gain to themselves and their parties the places of greatest trust and power in the kingdom. A second, to suppress the purity and power of religion, and such persons as were best affected to it, as being contrary to their own ends, and the greatest impediment to that change which they thought to introduce. A third, to conjoin those parties of the kingdom which were most propitious to their own ends, and to divide those who were most opposite, which consisted in many particular observations. To cherish the Arminian part in those points wherein they agree with the Papists, to multiply and enlarge the difference between the common Protestants and those whom they call Puritans, to introduce and countenance such opinions and ceremonies as are fittest for accommodation with Popery, to increase and maintain ignorance, looseness and profaneness in the people; that of those three parties, Papists, Arminians and Libertines, they might compose a body fit to act such counsels and resolutions as were most conducive to their own ends. A fourth, to disaffect the King to Parliaments by slander and false imputations, and by putting him upon other ways of supply, which in show and appearance were fuller of advantage than the ordinary course of subsidies, though in truth they brought more loss than gain both to the King and people, and have caused the great distractions under which we both suffer. As in all compounded bodies the operations are qualified according to the predominant element, so in this mixed party, the Jesuited counsels, being most active and prevailing, may easily be discovered to have had the greatest sway in all their determinations, and if they be not prevented, are likely to devour the rest, or to turn them into their own nature. In the beginning of His Majesty's reign the party began to revive and flourish again, having been somewhat damped by the breach with Spain in the last year of King James, and by His Majesty's marriage with France: the interests and counsels of that State being not so contrary to the good of religion and the prosperity of this kingdom as those of Spain; and the Papists of England, having been ever more addicted to Spain than France, yet they still retained a purpose and resolution to weaken the Protestant parties in all parts, and even in France, whereby to make way for the change of religion which they intended at home.

1. The first effect and evidence of their recovery and strength was the dissolution of the Parliament at Oxford, after there had been given two subsidies to His Majesty, and before they received relief in any one grievance many other more miserable effects followed.

2. The loss of the Rochel fleet, by the help of our shipping, set forth and delivered over to the French in opposition to the advice of Parliament, which left that town without defence by sea, and made way, not only to the loss of that important place, but likewise to the loss of all the strength and security of the Protestant religion in France.

3. The diverting of His Majesty's course of wars from the West Indies, which was the most facile and hopeful way for this kingdom to prevail against the Spaniard, to an expensful and successful attempt upon Cadiz, which was so or-

dered as if it had rather been intended to make us weary of war than to prosper in it.

4. The precipitate breach with France, by taking their ships to a great value without making recompense to the English, whose goods were thereupon imbarred and confiscated in that kingdom.

5. The peace with Spain without consent of Parliament, contrary to the promise of King James to both Houses, whereby the Palatine's cause was deserted and left to chargeable and hopeless treaties, which for the most part were managed by those who might justly be suspected to be no friends to that cause.

6. The charging of the kingdom with billeted soldiers in all parts of it, and the concomitant design of German horse, that the land might either submit with fear or be enforced with rigour to such arbitrary contributions as should be required of them.

7. The dissolving of the Parliament in the second year of His Majesty's reign, after a declaration of their intent to grant five subsidies.

8. The exacting of the like proportion of five subsidies, after the Parliament dissolved, by commission of loan, and divers gentlemen and others imprisoned for not yielding to pay that loan, whereby many of them contracted such sicknesses as cost them their lives.

9. Great sums of money required and raised by privy seals.

10. An unjust and pernicious attempt to extort great payments from the subject by way of excise, and a commission issued under the seal to that purpose.

11. The Petition of Right, which was granted in full Parliament, blasted, with an illegal declaration to make it destructive to itself, to the power of Parliament, to the liberty of the subject, and to that purpose printed with it, and the Petition made of no use but to show the bold and presumptuous injustice of such ministers as durst break the laws and suppress the liberties of the kingdom, after they had been so solemnly and evidently declared.

12. Another Parliament dissolved 4 Car., the privilege of Parliament broken, by imprisoning divers members of the House, detaining them close prisoners for many months together, without the liberty of using books, pen, ink or paper; denying them all the comforts of life, all means of preservation of health, not permitting their wives to come unto them even in the time of their sickness.

13. And for the completing of that cruelty, after years spent in such miserable durance, depriving them of the necessary means of spiritual consolation, not suffering them to go abroad to enjoy God's ordinances in God's House, or God's ministers to come to them to minister comfort to them in their private chambers.

14. And to keep them still in this oppressed condition, not admitting them to be bailed according to law, yet vexing them with informations in inferior courts, sentencing and fining some of them for matters done in Parliament; and extorting the payments of those fines from them, enforcing others to put in security of good behaviour before they could be released.

15. The imprisonment of the rest, which refused to be bound, still continued, which might have been perpetual if necessity had not the last year brought another Parliament to relieve them, of whom one died [Sir John Eliot] by the cruelty and harshness of his imprisonment, which would admit of no relaxation, notwithstanding the imminent danger of his life, did sufficiently appear by the declaration of his physician, and his re-

lease, or at least his refreshment, was sought by many humble petitions, and his blood still cries either for vengeance or repentance of those Ministers of State, who have at once obstructed the course both of His Majesty's justice and mercy.

16. Upon the dissolution of both these Parliaments, untrue and scandalous declarations were published to asperse their proceedings, and some of their members unjustly; to make them odious, and colour the violence which was used against them; proclamations set out to the same purpose; and to the great dejecting of the hearts of the people, forbidding them even to speak of Parliaments.

17. After the breach of the Parliament in the fourth of His Majesty, injustice, oppression and violence broke in upon us without any restraint or moderation, and yet the first project was the great sums exacted through the whole kingdom for default of knighthood, which seemed to have some colour and shadow of a law, yet if it be rightly examined by that obsolete law which was pretended for it, it will be found to be against all the rules of justice, both in respect of the persons charged, and the proportion of the fines demanded, and the absurd and unreasonable manner of their proceedings.

18. Tonnage and Poundage hath been received without colour or pretence of law; many other heavy impositions continued against law, and some so unreasonable that the sum of the charge exceeds the value of the goods.

19. The Book of Rates lately enhanced to a high proportion, and such merchants that would not submit to their illegal and unreasonable payments, were vexed and oppressed above measure; and the ordinary course of justice, the common birthright of the subject of England, wholly obstructed unto them.

20. And although all this was taken upon pretence of guarding the seas, yet a new unheard-of tax of ship-money was devised, and upon the same pretence, by both which there was charged upon the subject near £700,000 some years, and yet the merchants have been left so naked to the violence of the Turkish pirates, that many great ships of value and thousands of His Majesty's subjects have been taken by them, and do still remain in miserable slavery.

21. The enlargements of forests, contrary to "Carta de Foresta," and the composition thereupon.

22. The exactions of coat and conduct money and divers other military charges.

23. The taking away the arms of trained bands of divers counties.

24. The desperate design of engrossing all the gunpowder into one hand, keeping it in the Tower of London, and setting so high a rate upon it that the poorer sort were not able to buy it, nor could any have it without licence, thereby to leave the several parts of the kingdom destitute of their necessary defence, and by selling so dear that which was sold to make an unlawful advantage of it, to the great charge and detriment of the subject.

25. The general destruction of the King's timber, especially that in the Forest of Deane, sold to Papists, which was the best store-house of this kingdom for the maintenance of our shipping.

26. The taking away of men's right, under the colour of the King's title to land, between high and low water marks.

27. The monopolies of soap, salt, wine, leather sea-coal, and in a manner of all things of most common and necessary use.

28. The restraint of the liberties of the subjects

in their habitation, trades and other interests.  
29. Their vexation and oppression by purveyors, clerks of the market and saltpetre men.

30. The sale of pretended nuisances, as building in and about London.

31. Conversion of arable into pasture, continuance of pasture, under the name of depopulation, have driven many millions out of the subjects' purses, without any considerable profit to His Majesty.

32. Large quantities of common and several grounds hath been taken from the subject by colour of the Statute of Improvement, and by abuse of the Commission of Sewers, without their consent, and against it.

33. And not only private interest, but also public faith, have been broken in seizing of the money and bullion in the mint, and the whole kingdom like to be robbed at once in that abominable project of brass money.

34. Great numbers of His Majesty's subjects for refusing those unlawful charges, have been vexed with long and expensive suits, some fined and censured, others committed to long and hard imprisonments and confinements, to the loss of health in many, of life in some, and others have had their houses broken up, their goods seized, some have been restrained from their lawful callings.

35. Ships have been interrupted in their voyages, surprised at sea in a hostile manner by projectors, as by a common enemy.

36. Merchants prohibited to unlade their goods in such ports as were for their own advantage, and forced to bring them to those places which were much for the advantage of the monopolisers and projectors.

37. The Court of Star Chamber hath abounded in extravagant censures, not only for the maintenance and improvement of monopolies and other unlawful taxes, but for divers other causes where there hath been no offence, or very small; whereby His Majesty's subjects have been oppressed by grievous fines, imprisonments, stigmatisings, mutilations, whippings, pillories, gags, confinements, banishments; after so rigid a manner as hath not only deprived men of the society of their friends, exercise of their professions, comfort of books, use of paper or ink, but even violated that near union which God hath established between men and their wives, by forced and constrained separation, whereby they have been bereaved of the comfort of conversation one of another for many years together, without hope of relief, if God had not by His overruling providence given some interruption to the prevailing power, and counsel of those who were the authors and promoters of such peremptory and heady courses.

38. Judges have been put out of their places for refusing to do against their oaths and consciences; others have been so awed that they durst not do their duties, and the better to hold a rod over them, the clause 'Quam diu se bene gesserit' was left out of their patents, and a new clause 'Durante bene placito' inserted.

39. Lawyers have been checked for being faithful to their clients; solicitors and attorneys have been threatened, and some punished, for following lawful suits. And by this means all the approaches to justice were interrupted and forecluded.

40. New oaths have been forced upon the subject against law.

41. New judicatories erected without law. The Council Table have by their orders offered to bind the subjects in their freeholds, estates, suits and actions.

42. The pretended Court of the Earl Marshal

was arbitrary and illegal in its being and proceedings.

43. The Chancery, Exchequer Chamber, Court of Wards, and other English Courts, have been grievous in exceeding their jurisdiction.

44. The estate of many families weakened, and some ruined by excessive fines, exacted from them for compositions of wardships.

45. All leases of above a hundred years made to draw on wardship contrary to law.

46. Undue proceedings used in the finding of offices to make the jury find for the King.

47. The Common Law Courts, feeling all men more inclined to seek justice there, where it may be fitted to their own desire, are known frequently to foresake the rules of the Common Law, and straying beyond their bounds, under pretence of equity, to do injustice.

48. Titles of honour, judicial places, sergeantships at law, and other offices have been sold for great sums of money, whereby the common justice of the kingdom hath been much endangered, not only by opening a way of employment in places of great trust, and advantage to men of weak parts, but also by giving occasion to bribery, extortion, partiality, it seldom happening that places ill-gotten are well used.

49. Commissions have been granted for examining the excess of fees, and when great exactions have been discovered, compositions have been made with delinquents, not only for the time past, but likewise for immunity and security in offending for the time to come, which under colour of remedy hath but confirmed and increased the grievance to the subject.

50. The usual course of pricking Sheriffs not observed, but many times Sheriffs made in an extraordinary way, sometimes as a punishment and charge unto them; sometimes such were pricked out as would be instruments to execute whatsoever they would have to be done.

51. The Bishops and the rest of the Clergy did triumph in the suspensions, ex-communications, deprivations, and degradations of divers painful, learned and pious ministers, in the vexation and grievous oppression of great numbers of His Majesty's good subjects.

52. The High Commission grew to such excess of sharpness and severity as was not much less than the Romish Inquisition, and yet in many cases by the Archbishop's power was made much more heavy, being assisted and strengthened by authority of the Council Table.

53. The Bishops and their Courts were as eager in the country; although their jurisdiction could not reach so high in rigour and extremity of punishment, yet were they no less grievous in respect of the generality and multiplicity of vexations, which lighting upon the meaner sort of tradesmen and artificers did impoverish many thousands.

54. And so afflict and trouble others, that great numbers to avoid their miseries departed out of the kingdom, some into New England and other parts of America, others into Holland.

55. Where they have transported their manufactures of cloth, which is not only a loss by diminishing the present stock of the kingdom, but a great mischief by impairing and endangering the loss of that particular trade of clothing, which hath been a plentiful fountain of wealth and honour to this nation.

56. Those were fittest for ecclesiastical preferment, and soonest obtained it, who were most officious in promoting superstition, most virulent in railing against godliness and honesty,

57. The most public and solemn sermons before His Majesty were either to advance prerogative above law, and decry the property of the subject, or full of such kind of invectives.

58. Whereby they might make those odious who sought to maintain the religion, laws and liberties of the kingdom, and such men were sure to be weeded out of the commission of the peace, and out of all other employments of power in the government of the country.

59. Many noble personages were councillors in name, but the power and authority remained in a few of such as were most addicted to this party, whose resolutions and determinations were brought to the table for countenance and execution, and not for debate and deliberation, and no man could offer to oppose them without disgrace and hazard to himself.

60. Nay, all those that did not wholly concur and actively contribute to the furtherance of their designs, though otherwise persons of never so great honour and abilities, were so far from being employed in any place of trust and power, that they were neglected, discountenanced, and upon all occasions injured and oppressed.

61. This faction was grown to that height and entireness of power, that now they began to think of finishing their work, which consisted of these three parts.

62. I. The government must be set free from all restraint of laws concerning our persons and estates.

63. II. There must be a conjunction between Papists and Protestants in doctrine, discipline and ceremonies; only it must not yet be called Popery.

64. III. The Puritans, under which name they include all those that desire to preserve the laws and liberties of the kingdom, and to maintain religion in the power of it, must be either rooted out of the kingdom with force, or driven out with fear.

65. For the effecting of this it was thought necessary to reduce Scotland to such Popish superstitions and innovations as might make them apt to join with England in that great change which was intended.

66. Whereupon new canons and a new liturgy were pressed upon them, and when they refused to admit of them, an army was raised to force them to it, towards which the Clergy and the Papists were very forward in their contribution.

67. The Scots likewise raised an army for their defence.

68. And when both armies were come together, and ready for a bloody encounter, His Majesty's own gracious disposition, and the counsel of the English nobility and dutiful submission of the Scots, did so far prevail against the evil counsel of others, that a pacification was made, and His Majesty returned with peace and much honour to London.

69. The unexpected reconciliation was most acceptable to all the kingdom, except to the malignant party; whereof the Archbishop and the Earl of Strafford being heads, they and their faction began to inveigh against the peace, and to aggravate the proceedings of the states, which so increased [incensed?] His Majesty, that he forthwith prepared again for war.

70. And such was their confidence, that having corrupted and distempered the whole frame and government of the kingdom, they did now hope to corrupt that which was the only means to restore all to a right frame and temper again.

71. To which end they persuaded His Majesty to call a Parliament, not to seek counsel and advice of them, but to draw countenance and supply

from them, and to engage the whole kingdom in their quarrel.

72. And in the meantime continued all their unjust levies of money, resolving either to make the Parliament pliant to their will, and to establish mischief by a law, or else to break it, and with more colour to go on by violence to take what they could not obtain by consent. The ground alleged for the justification of this war was this,

73. That the undutiful demands of the Parliaments in Scotland was a sufficient reason for His Majesty to take arms against them, without hearing the reason of those demands, and thereupon a new army was prepared against them, their ships were seized in all ports both of England and Ireland, and at sea, their petitions rejected, their commissioners refused audience.

74. The whole kingdom most miserably distempered with levies of men and money, and imprisonments of those who denied to submit to those levies.

75. The Earl of Strafford passed into Ireland, caused the Parliament there to declare against the Scots, to give four subsidies towards that war, and to engage themselves, their lives and fortunes, for the prosecution of it, and gave directions for an army of eight thousand foot and one thousand horse to be levied there, which were for the most part Papists.

76. The Parliament met upon the 13th of April, 1640. The Earl of Strafford and Archbishop of Canterbury, with their party, so prevailed with His Majesty, that the House of Commons was pressed to yield a supply for maintenance of the war with Scotland, before they had provided any relief for the great and pressing grievances of the people, which being against the fundamental privilege and proceeding of Parliament, was yet in humble respect to His Majesty, so far admitted as that they agreed to take the matter of supply into consideration, and two several days it was debated.

77. Twelve subsidies were demanded for the release of ship-money alone, a third day was appointed for conclusion, when the heads of that party began to fear the people might close with the King, in falsifying his desires of money; but that withal they were like to blast their malicious designs against Scotland, finding them very much indisposed to give any countenance to that war.

78. Thereupon they wickedly advised the King to break off the Parliament and to return to the ways of confusion, in which their own evil intentions were most likely to prosper and succeed.

79. After the Parliament ended the 5th of May, 1640, this party grew so hold as to counsel the King to supply himself out of his subjects' estates by his own power, at his own will, without their consent.

80. The very next day some members of both Houses had their studies and cabinets, yea, their pockets searched: another of them not long after was committed close prisoner for not delivering some petitions which he received by authority of that House.

81. And if harsher courses were intended (as was reported) it is very probable that the sickness of the Earl of Strafford, and the tumultuous rising in Southwark and about Lambeth were the causes that such violent intentions were not brought to execution.

82. A false and scandalous Declaration against the House of Commons was published in His Majesty's name, which yet wrought little effect with the people, but only to manifest the impudence of those who were authors of it.

83. A forced loan of money was attempted in the City of London.

84. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen in their several wards, enjoined to bring in a list of the names of such persons as they judged fit to lend, and of the sums they should lend. And such Aldermen as refused to do so were committed to prison.

85. The Archbishop and the other Bishops and Clergy continued the Convocation, and by a new commission turned it into a provincial Synod, in which, by an unheard-of presumption, they made canons that contain in them many matters contrary to the King's prerogative, to the fundamental laws and statutes of the realm, to the right of Parliaments, to the property and liberty of the subject, and matters tending to sedition and of dangerous consequence, thereby establishing their own usurpations, justifying their altar-worship, and those other superstitious innovations which they formerly introduced without warrant of law.

86. They imposed a new oath upon divers of His Majesty's subjects, both ecclesiastical and lay, for maintenance of their own tyranny, and laid a great tax on the Clergy, for supply of His Majesty, and generally they showed themselves very affectionate to the war with Scotland, which was by some of them styled 'Bellum Episcopale,' and a prayer composed and enjoined to be read in all churches calling the Scots rebels, to put the two nations in blood and make them irreconcilable.

87. All those pretended canons and constitutions were armed with the several censures of suspension, excommunication, deprivation, by which they would have thrust out all the good ministers, and most of the well-affected people of the kingdom, and left an easy passage to their own design of reconciliation with Rome.

88. The Popish party enjoyed such exemptions from penal laws as amounted to a toleration, besides many other encouragements and Court favours.

89. They had a Secretary of State, Sir Francis Windebanck, a powerful agent for speeding all their desires.

90. A Pope's Nuncio residing here, to act and govern them according to such influences as he received from Rome, and to intercede for them with the most powerful concurrence of the foreign princes of that religion.

91. By his authority the Papists of all sorts, nobility, gentry, and clergy were convoked after the manner of a Parliament.

92. New jurisdictions were erected of Romish Archbishops, taxes levied, another state moulded within this state independent in government, contrary in interest and affection, secretly corrupting the ignorant or negligent professors of our religion, and closely uniting and combining themselves against such as were found in this posture, waiting for an opportunity by force to destroy those whom they could not hope to seduce.

93. For the effecting whereof they were strengthened with arms and munitions, encouraged by superstitious prayers, enjoined by the Nuncio to be weekly made for the prosperity of some great design.

94. And such power had they at Court, that secretly a commission was issued out, or intended to be issued to some great men of that profession, for the levying of soldiers, and to command and employ them according to private instructions, which we doubt were framed for the advantage of those who were the contrivers of them.

95. His Majesty's treasure was consumed, his revenue anticipated.

96. His servants and officers compelled to lend great sums of money.

97. Multitudes were called to the Council Table, who were tired with long attendances there for refusing illegal payments.

98. The prisons were filled with their commitments; many of the Sheriffs summoned into the Star Chamber, and some imprisoned for not being quick enough in levying the ship-money; the people languished under grief and fear, no visible hope being left but in desperation.

99. The nobility began to weary of their silence and patience, and sensible of the duty and trust which belongs to them: and thereupon some of the most ancient of them did petition His Majesty at such a time, when evil counsels were so strong, that they had occasion to expect more hazard to themselves, than redress of those public evils for which they interceded.

100. Whilst the kingdom was in this agitation and distemper, the Scots, restrained in their trades, impoverished by the loss of many of their ships, bereaved of all possibility of satisfying His Majesty by any naked supplication, entered with a powerful army into the kingdom, and without any hostile act or spoil in the country they passed, more than forcing a passage over the Tyne at Newburn, near Newcastle, possessed themselves of Newcastle, and had a fair opportunity to press on further upon the King's army.

101. But duty and reverence to His Majesty, and brotherly love to the English nation, made them stay there, whereby the King had leisure to entertain better counsels.

102. Wherein God so blessed and directed him, that he summoned the Great Council of Peers to meet at York upon the 24th of September, and there declared a Parliament to begin the 3d of November then following.

103. The Scots, the first day of the Great Council, presented an humble Petition to His Majesty, whereupon the Treaty was appointed at Ripon.

104. A present cessation of arms agreed upon, and the full conclusion of all differences referred to the wisdom and care of the Parliament.

105. At our first meeting, all oppositions seemed to vanish, the mischiefs were so evident which those evil counsellors produced, that no man durst stand up to defend them: yet the work itself afforded difficulty enough.

106. The multiplied evils and corruption of fifteen years, strengthened by custom and authority, and the concurrent interest of many powerful delinquents, were now to be brought to judgment and reformation.

107. The King's household was to be provided for:—they had brought him to that want, that he could not supply his ordinary and necessary expenses without the assistance of his people.

108. Two armies were to be paid, which amounted very near to eighty thousand pounds a month.

109. The people were to be tenderly charged, having been formerly exhausted with many burdensome projects.

110. The difficulties seemed to be insuperable, which by the Divine Providence we have overcome. The contrarieties incompatible, which yet in a great measure we have reconciled.

111. Six subsidies have been granted and a Bill of poll-money, which if it be duly levied, may equal six subsidies more, in all £600,000.

112. Besides we have contracted a debt to the Scots of £220,000, yet God hath so blessed the en-



deavours of this Parliament, that the kingdom is a great gainer by all these charges.

113. The ship-money is abolished, which cost the kingdom about £200,000 a year.

114. The coat and conduct-money, and other military charges are taken away, which in many counties amounted to little less than the ship-money.

115. The monopolies are all suppressed, whereof some few did prejudice the subject, above £1,000,000 yearly.

116. The soap £100,000.

117. The wine £300,000.

118. The leather must needs exceed both, and salt could be no less than that.

119. Besides the inferior monopolies, which, if they could be exactly computed, would make up a great sum.

120. That which is more beneficial than all this is, that the root of these evils is taken away, which was the arbitrary power pretended to be in His Majesty of taxing the subject, or charging their estates without consent in Parliament, which is now declared to be against law by the judgment of both Houses, and likewise by an Act of Parliament.

121. Another step of great advantage is this, the living grievances, the evil counsellors and actors of these mischiefs have been so quelled.

122. By the justice done upon the Earl of Strafford, the flight of the Lord Finch and Secretary Windebank.

123. The accusation and imprisonment of the Archbishop of Canterbury, of Judge Berkeley; and

124. The impeachment of divers other Bishops and Judges, that it is like not only to be an ease to the present times, but a preservation to the future.

125. The discontinuance of Parliaments is prevented by the Bill for a triennial Parliament, and the abrupt dissolution of this Parliament by another Bill, by which it is provided it shall not be dissolved or adjourned without the consent of both Houses.

126. Which two laws well considered may be thought more advantageous than all the former, because they secure a full operation of the present remedy, and afford a perpetual spring of remedies for the future.

127. The Star Chamber.

128. The High Commission.

129. The Courts of the President and Council in the North were so many forges of misery, oppression and violence, and are all taken away, whereby men are more secured in their persons, liberties and estates, than they could be by any law or example for the regulation of those Courts or terror of the Judges.

130. The immoderate power of the Council Table, and the excessive abuse of that power is so ordered and restrained, that we may well hope that no such things as were frequently done by them, to the prejudice of the public liberty, will appear in future times but only in stories, to give us and our posterity more occasion to praise God for His Majesty's goodness, and the faithful endeavours of this Parliament.

131. The canons and power of canon-making are blasted by the votes of both Houses.

132. The exorbitant power of Bishops and their courts are much abated, by some provisions in the Bill against the High Commission Court, the authors of the many innovations in doctrine and ceremonies.

133. The ministers that have been scandalous in

their lives, have been so terrified in just complaints and accusations, that we may well hope they will be more modest for the time to come; either inwardly convicted by the sight of their own folly, or outwardly restrained by the fear of punishment.

134. The forests are by a good law reduced to their right bounds.

135. The encroachments and oppressions of the Stannary Courts, the extortions of the clerk of the market.

136. And the compulsion of the subject to receive the Order of Knighthood against his will, paying of fines for not receiving it, and the vexatious proceedings thereupon for levying of those fines, are by other beneficial laws reformed and prevented.

137. Many excellent laws and provisions are in preparation for removing the inordinate power, vexation and usurpation of Bishops, for reforming the pride and idleness of many of the clergy, for easing the people of unnecessary ceremonies in religion, for censuring and removing unworthy and unprofitable ministers, and for maintaining godly and diligent preachers through the kingdom.

138. Other things of main importance for the good of this kingdom are in proposition, though little could hitherto be done in regard of the many other more pressing businesses, which yet before the end of this Session we hope may receive some progress and perfection.

139. The establishing and ordering the King's revenue, that so the abuse of officers and superfluity of expenses may be cut off, and the necessary disbursements for His Majesty's honour, the defence and government of the kingdom, may be more certainly provided for.

140. The regulating of courts of justice, and abridging both the delays and charges of lawsuits.

141. The settling of some good courses for preventing the exportation of gold and silver, and the inequality of exchanges between us and other nations, for the advancing of native commodities, increase of our manufacturers, and well balancing of trade, whereby the stock of the kingdom may be increased, or at least kept from impairing, as through neglect hereof it hath done for many years last past.

142. Improving the herring-fishing upon our coasts, which will be of mighty use in the employment of the poor, and a plentiful nursery of mariners for enabling the kingdom in any great action.

143. The oppositions, obstructions and other difficulties wherewith we have been encountered, and which still lie in our way with some strength and much obstinacy, are these: the malignant party whom we have formerly described to be the actors and promoters of all our misery, they have taken heart again.

144. They have been able to prefer some of their own factors and agents to degrees of honour, to places of trust and employment, even during the Parliament.

145. They have endeavoured to work in His Majesty ill impressions and opinions of our proceedings, as if we had altogether done our own work, and not his; and had obtained from him many things very prejudicial to the Crown, both in respect of prerogative and profit.

146. To wipe out this slander we think good only to say thus much: that all that we have done is for His Majesty, his greatness, honour and support, when we yield to give £25,000 a month for the relief of the Northern Counties; this was given to the King, for he was bound to protect his subjects.

147. They were His Majesty's evil counsellors, and their ill instruments that were actors in those grievances which brought in the Scots.

148. And if His Majesty please to force those who were the authors of this war to make satisfaction, as he might justly and easily do, it seems very reasonable that the people might well be excused from taking upon them this burden, being altogether innocent and free from being any cause of it.

149. When we undertook the charge of the army, which cost above £50,000 a month, was not this given to the King? Was it not His Majesty's army? Were not all the commanders under contract with His Majesty, at higher rates and greater wages than ordinary?

150. And have not we taken upon us to discharge all the brotherly assistance of £300,000, which we gave the Scots? Was it not toward repair of those damages and losses which they received from the King's ships and from his ministers?

151. These three particulars amount to above £1,100,000.

152. Besides, His Majesty hath received by impositions upon merchandise at least £400,000.

153. So that His Majesty hath had out of the subjects' purse since the Parliament began £1,500,000, and yet these men can be so impudent as to tell His Majesty that we have done nothing for him.

154. As to the second branch of this slander, we acknowledge with much thankfulness that His Majesty hath passed more good Bills to the advantage of the subjects than have been in many ages.

155. But withal we cannot forget that these venomous councils did manifest themselves in some endeavours to hinder these good acts.

156. And for both Houses of Parliament we may with truth and modesty say thus much: that we have ever been careful not to desire anything that should weaken the Crown either in just profit or useful power.

157. The triennial Parliament for the matter of it, doth not extend to so much as by law we ought to have required (there being two statutes still in force for a Parliament to be once a year), and for the manner of it, it is in the King's power that it shall never take effect, if he by a timely summons shall prevent any other way of assembling.

158. In the Bill for continuance of this present Parliament, there seems to be some restraint of the royal power in dissolving of Parliaments, not to take it out of the Crown, but to suspend the execution of it for this time and occasion only: which was so necessary for the King's own security and the public peace, that without it we could not have undertaken any of these great charges, but must have left both the armies to disorder and confusion, and the whole kingdom to blood and rapine.

159. The Star Chamber was much more fruitful in oppression than in profit, the great fines being for the most part given away, and the rest stalled at long times.

160. The fines of the High Commission were in themselves unjust, and seldom or never came into the King's purse. These four Bills are particularly and more specially instanced.

161. In the rest there will not be found so much as a shadow of prejudice to the Crown.

162. They have sought to diminish our reputation with the people, and to bring them out of love with Parliaments.

163. The aspersions which they have attempted this way have been such as these:

164. That we have spent much time and done

little, especially in those grievances which concern religion.

165. That the Parliament is a burden to the kingdom by the abundance of protections which hinder justice and trade; and by many subsidies granted much more heavy than any formerly endured.

166. To which there is a ready answer; if the time spent in this Parliament be considered in relation backward to the long growth and deep root of those grievances, which we have removed, to the powerful supports of those delinquents, which we have pursued, to the great necessities and other charges of the commonwealth for which we have provided.

167. Or if it be considered in relation forward to many advantages, which not only the present but future ages are like to reap by the good laws and other proceedings in this Parliament, we doubt not but it will be thought by all indifferent judgments, that our time hath been much better employed than in a far greater proportion of time in many former Parliaments put together; and the charges which have been laid upon the subject, and the other inconveniences which they have borne, will seem very light in respect of the benefit they have and may receive.

168. And for the matter of protections, the Parliament is so sensible of it that therein they intended to give them whatsoever ease may stand with honour and justice, and are in a way of passing a Bill to give them satisfaction.

169. They have sought by many subtle practices to cause jealousies and divisions betwixt us and our brethren of Scotland, by slandering their proceedings and intentions towards us, and by secret endeavours to instigate and incense them and us one against another.

170. They have had such a party of Bishops and Popish lords in the House of Peers, as hath caused much opposition and delay in the prosecution of delinquents, hindered the proceedings of divers good Bills passed in the Commons' House, concerning the reformation of sundry great abuses and corruptions both in Church and State.

171. They have laboured to seduce and corrupt some of the Commons' House to draw them into conspiracies and combinations against the liberty of the Parliament.

172. And by their instruments and agents they have attempted to disaffect and discontent His Majesty's army, and to engage it for the maintenance of their wicked and traitorous designs; the keeping up of Bishops in votes and functions, and by force to compel the Parliament to order, limit and dispose their proceedings in such manner as might best concur with the intentions of this dangerous and potent faction.

173. And when one mischievous design and attempt of theirs to bring on the army against the Parliament and the City of London, hath been discovered and prevented;

174. They presently undertook another of the same damnable nature, with this addition to it, to endeavour to make the Scottish army neutral, whilst the English army, which they had laboured to corrupt and envenom against us by their false and slanderous suggestions, should execute their malice to the subversion of our religion and the dissolution of our government.

175. Thus they have been continually practising to disturb the peace, and plotting the destruction even of all the King's dominions; and have employed their emissaries and agents in them, all for the promoting their devilish designs, which the vigilancy of those who were well affected hath still

discovered and defeated before they were ripe for execution in England and Scotland.

176. Only in Ireland, which was farther off, they have had time and opportunity to mould and prepare their work, and had brought it to that perfection that they had possessed themselves of that whole kingdom, totally subverted the government of it, routed out religion, and destroyed all the Protestants whom the conscience of their duty to God, their King and country, would not have permitted to join with them, if by God's wonderful providence their main enterprise upon the city and castle of Dublin, had not been detected and prevented upon the very eve before it should have been executed.

177. Notwithstanding they have in other parts of that kingdom broken out into open rebellion, surprising towns and castles, committed murders, rapes and other villainies, and shaken off all bonds of obedience to His Majesty and the laws of the realm.

178. And in general have kindled such a fire, as nothing but God's infinite blessing upon the wisdom and endeavours of this State will be able to quench it.

179. And certainly had not God in His great mercy unto this land discovered and confounded their former designs, we had been the prologue to this tragedy in Ireland, and had by this been made the lamentable spectacle of misery and confusion.

180. And now what hope have we but in God, when as the only means of our subsistence and power of reformation is under Him in the Parliament?

181. But what can we the Commons, without the conjunction of the House of Lords, and what conjunction can we expect there, when the Bishops and recusant lords are so numerous and prevalent that they are able to cross and interrupt our best endeavours for reformation, and by that means give advantage to this malignant party to trudge our proceedings.

182. They infuse into the people that we mean to abolish all Church government, and leave every man to his own fancy for the service and worship of God, absolving him of that obedience which he owes under God unto His Majesty, whom we know to be entrusted with the ecclesiastical law as well as with the temporal, to regulate all the members of the Church of England, by such rules of order and discipline as are established by Parliament, which is his great council in all affairs both in Church and State.

183. We confess our intention is, and our endeavours have been, to reduce within bounds that exorbitant power which the prelates have assumed unto themselves, so contrary both to the Word of God and to the laws of the land, to which end we passed the Bill for the removing them from their temporal power and employments, that so the better they might with meekness apply themselves to the discharge of their functions, which Bill themselves opposed, and were the principal instruments of crossing it.

184. And we do here declare that it is far from our purpose or desire to let loose the golden reins of discipline and government in the Church, to leave private persons or particular congregations to take up what form of Divine Service they please, for we hold it requisite that there should be throughout the whole realm a conformity to that order which the laws enjoin according to the Word of God. And we desire to unburden the consciences of men of needless and supersti-

tious ceremonies, suppress innovations, and take away the monuments of idolatry.

185. And the better to effect the intended reformation, we desire there may be a general synod of the most grave, pious, learned and judicious divines of this island; assisted with some from foreign parts, professing the same religion with us, who may consider of all things necessary for the peace and good government of the Church, and represent the results of their consultations unto the Parliament, to be there allowed of and confirmed, and receive the stamp of authority, thereby to find passage and obedience throughout the kingdom.

186. They have maliciously charged us that we intend to destroy and discourage learning, whereas it is our chiefest care and desire to advance it, and to provide a competent maintenance for conscientious and preaching ministers throughout the kingdom, which will be a great encouragement to scholars, and a certain means whereby the want, meanness and ignorance, to which a great part of the clergy is now subject, will be prevented.

187. And we intended likewise to reform and purge the fountains of learning, the two Universities, that the streams flowing from thence may be clear and pure, and an honour and comfort to the whole land.

188. They have strained to blast our proceedings in Parliament, by wresting the interpretations of our orders from their genuine intention.

189. They tell the people that our meddling with the power of episcopacy hath caused sectaries and conventicles, when idolatrous and Popish ceremonies, introduced into the Church by the command of the Bishops have not only debarred the people from thence, but expelled them from the kingdom.

190. Thus with Elijah, we are called by this malignant party the troublers of the State, and still, while we endeavour to reform their abuses, they make us the authors of those mischiefs we study to prevent.

191. For the perfecting of the work begun, and removing all future impediments, we conceive these courses will be very effectual, seeing the religion of the Papists hath such principles as do certainly tend to the destruction and extirpation of all Protestants, when they shall have opportunity to effect it.

192. It is necessary in the first place to keep them in such condition as that they may not be able to do us any hurt, and for avoiding of such conivance and favour as hath heretofore been shown unto them.

193. That His Majesty be pleased to grant a standing Commission to some choice men named in Parliament, who may take notice of their increase, their counsels and proceedings, and use all due means by execution of the laws to prevent all mischievous designs against the peace and safety of this kingdom.

194. Thus some good course be taken to discover the counterfeit and false conformity of Papists to the Church, by colour whereof persons very much disaffected to the true religion have been admitted into place of greatest authority and trust in the kingdom.

195. For the better preservation of the laws and liberties of the kingdom, that all illegal grievances and exactions be presented and punished at the sessions and assizes.

196. And that Judges and Justices be very careful to give this in charge to the grand jury, and both the Sheriff and Justices to be sworn to the due execution of the Petition of Right and other laws.

197. That His Majesty be humbly petitioned by both Houses to employ such counsellors, ambassadors and other ministers, in managing his business at home and abroad as the Parliament may have cause to confide in, without which we cannot give His Majesty such supplies for support of his own estate, nor such assistance to the Protestant party beyond the sea, as is desired.

198. It may often fall out that the Commons may have just cause to take exceptions at some men for being councillors, and yet not charge those men with crimes, for there be grounds of diffidence which lie not in proof.

199. There are others, which though they may be proved, yet are not legally criminal.

200. To be a known favourer of Papists, or to have been very forward in defending or countenancing some great offenders questioned in Parliament; or to speak contemptuously of either Houses of Parliament or Parliamentary proceedings.

201. Or such as are factors or agents for any foreign prince of another religion; such are justly suspected to get councillors' places, or any other of trust concerning public employment for money; for all these and divers others we may have great reason to be earnest with His Majesty, not to put his great affairs into such hands, though we may be unwilling to proceed against them in any legal way of charge or impeachment.

202. That all Councillors of State may be sworn to observe those laws which concern the subject in his liberty, that they may likewise take an oath not to receive or give reward or pension from any foreign prince, but such as they shall within some reasonable time discover to the Lords of His Majesty's Council.

203. And although they should wickedly forswear themselves, yet it may herein do good to make them known to be false and perjured to those who employ them, and thereby bring them into as little credit with them as with us.

204. That His Majesty may have cause to be in love with good counsel and good men, by shewing him in an humble and dutiful manner how full of advantage it would be to himself, to see his own estate settled in a plentiful condition to support his honour; to see his people united in ways of duty to him, and endeavours of the public good; to see happiness, wealth, peace and safety derived to his own kingdom, and procured to his allies by the influence of his own power and government.

**GRAND SERJEANTY.** See FEUDALISM: Organization.

**GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY.** See RAILROADS: 1853-1919; CANADA: 1920: Canadian national road.

**GRANDCOURT,** village about six miles west of Bapaume, northeast France. During the battle of the Somme, 1916, it was the scene of severe fighting; taken from the Germans by the British, February 7, 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 4; e, 3.

**GRANDE TERRE,** island of the West Indies, generally regarded as part of Guadeloupe. See GUADELOUPE.

**GRANDELLA,** or Benevento, Battle of (1266). See ITALY (Southern): 1250-1268.

**GRANDI,** nobles of Florence. See FLORENCE: 1250-1293.

**GRANGER,** Gordon (1821-1876), American general. Served in the Mexican War and in the Union army during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1863 (February-April: Tennessee).

**GRANGER LAWS.** See IOWA: 1873-1898; RAILROADS: 1870-1876; WISCONSIN: 1873-1907.

**GRANGER MOVEMENT.** See U. S. A.: 1860-1877; IOWA: 1873-1874; MINNESOTA: 1868.

**GRANICUS,** Battle of (334 B. C.). See MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330; B. C. 330-323.

**GRANITE RAILWAY,** United States. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850.

**GRANSON,** Battle of (1476). See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477.

**GRANT,** James (1720-1806), British soldier. Commander of an expedition against the Cherokees, 1761; served during the American Revolution. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1,59-1761; U. S. A.: 1776 (August).

**GRANT,** Ulysses Simpson (1822-1885), American general and eighteenth president of the United States. Served in the Mexican War and in the Civil War, rising to the rank of commander of all the Union forces; president of the United States, 1868-1876.

First battle at Belmont.—Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson and breaking Confederate line.—At battle of Shiloh.—Under Halleck at Corinth.—Iuka and Corinth.—Campaign against Vicksburg. See U. S. A.: 1861 (September-November: On Mississippi); 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee); (February-April: Tennessee); (April-May: Tennessee-Mississippi); (September-October: Mississippi); 1863 (January-April: On the Mississippi); (April-July: On the Mississippi).

In command of the army of Tennessee and Mississippi. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky); (December: On the Mississippi); 1863 (October-November: Tennessee).

In chief command of the whole army. See U. S. A.: 1864 (March-April).

Movement upon Richmond.—Battle of the Wilderness.—Spottsylvania Court House.—Bloody Angle.—Siege of Petersburg.—Virginia campaign.—Battle of Cold Harbor.—Operations against General Early. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May: Virginia); (May-June: Virginia); (June: Virginia); 1865 (March-April: Virginia); (April: Virginia): Abandonment of Richmond; (July-December).

Letter regarding reconstruction. See U. S. A.: 1866-1867 (October-March).

Elected president of the United States.—His administration and cabinet.—Re-election. See U. S. A.: 1868 (November); 1869-1870; 1869-1877; 1872; 1873; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1869; MONROE DOCTRINE: 1870-1895.

**GRANTANBRYGE,** ancient name for Cambridge. See CAMBRIDGE: Name.

**GRANVELLA,** Granvelle, or Antoine Perrenot, Cardinal de (1517-1586), Spanish cardinal and statesman. Succeeded his father as secretary of state, 1550; chief minister to Margaret of Parma, 1559, who was regent of the Netherlands; Archbishop of Malines, 1560; viceroy of Naples, 1570; head of Spanish Council of State, 1575. See NETHERLANDS: 1559-1562.

**GRANVILLE,** John Carteret, Earl (1690-1763), British orator and statesman. Became member of House of Lords, 1711; ambassador extraordinary to Sweden, 1719-1720; appointed secretary of state, 1721, and again, 1742-1744; Lord lieutenant of Ireland, 1724-1726; 1729-1730; one of the leaders of the opposition against Robert Walpole; lord president of the council under Henry Pelham, 1751-1763. See AUSTRIA: 1743; 1743-1744.

**GRAPESHOT:** Court decision. See U. S. A.: 1869-1872.

**GRAPHAPHONE:** Invention. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Phonograph.

**GRAPPA**, military position of great strength and strategic importance during the World War, in the valley of the Piave, northern Italy. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 2; c, 6.

**GRASPAN**, Battle of. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION OF**: 1899 (October-December).

**GRASSE**, François Joseph Paul, Marquis de Grassetilly, Comte de (1722-1788), French admiral. His fleet aided the Americans in their Revolution. After considerable success he suffered defeat and capture by the British admiral, Rodney, 1782. See **U. S. A.**: 1781 (May-October).

**GRASSHOPPER PLAGUE** (1873-1876). See **MINNESOTA**: 1862-1876.

**GRASSHOPPER WAR**. See **SHAWANESE**.

**GRATIAN** (Flavius Gratianus Augustus) (359-383), Roman emperor, 375-383. See **ROME**: **Empire**: 363-379; 379-395; **ALEMANNI**: 378; **BRITAIN**: 383-388.

**GRATIAN**, Decretals of. See **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW**: Definition; 1139-1150.

**GRATTAN**, Henry (1746-1820), Irish statesman and orator. Member of Irish parliament, 1775-1797; 1800; member of Imperial parliament, 1805-1820. See **IRELAND**: 1778-1782; **DUBLIN**: 1700-1798.

**GRAUBÜNDEN**. See **GRISONS**.

**GRAUPIUS**, Battle of (84 A.D.). See **GRAMPIANS**.

**GRAVE**, town in the Netherlands on the southern bank of the Meuse, twenty miles northeast of Bois-le-Duc.

1586.—Siege and capture by the Prince of Parma. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1585-1586.

1593.—Capture by Prince Maurice. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1588-1593.

**GRAVELINES**, Gravelinghe, or Gravelingen, fortified town in France, about ten miles southwest of Dunkirk.

1383.—Capture and destruction by the English. See **FLANDERS**: 1383; **Bishop of Norwich's Crusade**.

1558.—Spanish victory over the French. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1555-1558.

1652.—Taken by the Spaniards. See **FRANCE**: 1652.

1658.—Siege and capture by the French. See **FRANCE**: 1655-1658.

1659.—Ceded to France. See **FRANCE**: 1659-1661.

**GRAVELOTTE**, Battle of. See **FRANCE**: 1870 (July-August).

**GRAVES**, Alfred Perceval (1846- ), Irish poet. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1914-1922.

**GRAVES**, William Sidney (1865- ), American army officer. Commander of American Expeditionary Forces in Siberia, 1918-1919. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: III. Russia: c.

**GRAVES**: For soldiers fallen during World War. See **SÈVRES**, **TREATY OF**: 1920: Part VI: Prisoners of war: Graves; **VERSAILLES**, **TREATY OF**: Part VI: Section II.

**GRAVITATION**. See **SCIENCE**: Modern: 17th century; **INVENTIONS**: 18th century; **Measurements**.

**GRAY**, George (1840- ), American jurist and legislator. United States senator, 1885-1899; member Paris Peace Commission, 1898; member International Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, 1900; member North Atlantic Coast Fisheries Arbitration at The Hague, 1910. See **U. S. A.**: 1898 (July-December).

**GRAY**, Robert (1757-1806), American sailor and explorer. Entered mouth of Columbia river, 1702. See **OREGON**: Early exploration.

**GRAY**, Stephen (d. 1736), English electrician. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Early experiments.

**GRAY**, Thomas (1710-1771), English poet. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1660-1780.

**GRAYSON**, William (d. 1790), American soldier. Member of the Continental Congress, 1784-1787; delegate to the Virginia convention called to consider the new federal constitution, 1788. See **U. S. A.**: 1787-1789.

**GREAT AWAKENING**, religious revival in the American colonies, 1740-1750. See **CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH**: 1734-1800.

**GREAT BIBLE**. See **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: 16th-17th centuries.

**GREAT BRIDGE**, Battle of (1775). See **VIRGINIA**: 1775-1776.

**GREAT BRITAIN**, largest island of Europe, comprising England, Scotland and Wales. See **ENGLAND**; **BRITISH EMPIRE**; **SCOTLAND**; **WALES**.

**GREAT CAPTAIN**.—This was the title commonly given to the Spanish general, Gonsalvo de Cordova, after his campaign against the French in Italy. See **ITALY**: 1501-1504.

**GREAT CHARTER**. See **MAGNA CARTA**.

**GREAT COMPANY**. See **ITALY**: 1343-1393; **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 15.

**GREAT CONDE**. See **CONDÉ**, **LOUIS II.**

**GREAT DAYS OF AUVERGNE**. See **FRANCE**: 1665.

**GREAT DESIGN**: Of Henry IV. See **LEAGUE OF NATIONS**: Former projects.

**GREAT ELECTOR**, popular name of Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg. See **FREDERICK WILLIAM**; **BRANDENBURG**: 1640-1688.

**GREAT INTERREGNUM**. See **GERMANY**: 1250-1272.

**GREAT KANAWHA**, Battle of the. See **OHIO**: 1774.

**GREAT KING**, title often applied to the kings of the ancient Persian monarchy.

**GREAT LAKES**, collective name for Lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, lying on the border between the United States and Canada. They form the upper waters of the St. Lawrence system.

Canals of the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system. See **CANALS**: American: Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system.

**GREAT LAKES DISPUTE** (1910). See **LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS**: 1877-1911.

**GREAT MEADOWS**: Washington's capitulation at. See **OHIO**: 1754; **LOUISIANA**: 1724-1764.

**GREAT MOGULS**, Mongol sovereigns of India. See **INDIA**: 1351-1767.

**GREAT PEACE** (1360). See **BRETAGNY**, **TREATY OF**.

**GREAT POWERS**.—The six larger and stronger nations of Europe—Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Italy—were often referred to as "the great powers." Until the rise of united Italy, the "great powers" of Europe were five in number. At the outbreak of the World War, Japan and the United States were included among the great powers, and as a result of the war, Austria-Hungary has been destroyed and Russia and Germany have been reduced to subordinate rank.—See also **BALANCE OF POWER**: British foreign policy; **INTERNATIONAL LAW**: 1815-1914; **WORLD POWER**.

**GREAT PRIVILEGE**, or Groot Privilege, Magna Charta of Holland granted by Duchess Mary, 1477. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1477: Severance from Burgundy.

**GREAT RUSSIA**. See **RUSSIA**: Great, Little, etc.

**GREAT RUSSIAN LANGUAGE**: History and distribution. See **PHILOLOGY**: 22.

**GREAT ST. BERNARD PASS.**—The Great St. Bernard pass (8111 ft.) stretches from Martigny in the Rhone valley, Switzerland, to Aosta in Italy. The mother-house of the hospice, founded by St. Bernard of Menthon (died c. 1081), is at Martigny. Many lives are saved annually by the servants of the canons and their dogs. "The Great St. Bernard being the lowest and easiest of the Alpine frontier passes, we should expect to find that it was the first to be used as a means of getting from country to country. When it was first discovered or used one cannot say; but we know that it formed the passage for quite a number of invasions of Italy by Celts, whilst early missionaries crossed it, carrying with them primitive Christianity. During the tenth century it was the abode of Saracenic robbers, who plundered merchants and their caravans, and held high dignitaries of the Church to ransom. In medieval times German Emperors used the pass on several occasions, and Roman legions crossed it to invade Gaul, so that even many centuries ago it was crossed by large bodies of men. . . . It is, moreover, the one passed by Napoleon and his army on May 21, 1800, the first of six days of enormous difficulty and arduous exertion for his officers and men, numbering over 30,000."—A. R. Sennett, *Across the Great Saint Bernard*, pp. 350, 351.—See also ALPS: As barriers.

**GREAT SCHISM** (1378-1418). See PAPACY: 1377-1417; 1414-1418; ITALY: 1343-1389.

**GREAT SEAL**, official seal of royal authority in England. See CHANCELLOR: British.

Lord Keeper of. See EQUITY LAW: 506; 1538.

Lady Keeper of. See EQUITY LAW: 1253.

**GREAT TREK**. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881; BOER.

**GREAT WALL OF CHINA**. See CHINA: Origin of the people.

**GREAT WAR** (1830-1852). See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

**GREAT WAR** (1914-1918). See WORLD WAR.

**GREAT WESTERN**, first steamship built by the Great Western Steamship Company. Started its first trans-Atlantic voyage, April 8, 1838. See BRISTOL: 1838.

**GREAT WESTERN RAILWAY**, England. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

**GREAT YAHNI**, Battle of (1877). See TURKEY: 1877-1878.

**GREATHER NEW YORK**. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897.

**GREATHER REPUBLIC OF CENTRAL AMERICA**. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1895-1902.

**GREATHER RUMANIA**. See RUMANIA: 1919: Rumania in Hungary.

**GRAVES.**—The graves which formed part of the armour of the ancient Greeks were "leggings formed of a pewter-like metal, which covered the lower limbs down to the instep; and they were fastened by clasps. . . . Homer designates them as 'flexible'; and he frequently speaks of the Greek soldiery as being well-equipped with this important defence—not only, that is, well provided with greaves, but also having them so well formed and adjusted that they would protect the limbs of the warrior without in any degree affecting his freedom of movement and action. These greaves, as has been stated, appear to have been formed of a metal resembling the alloy that we know as pewter."—C. Boutell, *Arms and armour in antiquity and the Middle Ages*, ch. 2, sect. 3.

**GRECIAN ARCHIPELAGO**. See ÆGEAN.

**GRECO-BULGARIAN TREATY**. See GREECE: 1912.

**GRECO-PERSIAN WAR**. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330.

**GRECO-ROMAN CIVILIZATION**. See EUROPE: Ancient; Roman civilization: Greco-Roman knowledge; SCULPTURE: Roman.

**GRECO-TURKISH WAR** (1897). See TURKEY: 1897.

## GREECE

The land.—Geographical characteristics, and their influence upon the people.—"As compared with great India, vast China, or even with insular Japan, Greece is insignificant in size. It is but a petty peninsula. 'Its plains are deep narrow basins between high ridges and peaks.' In place of rivers it has only rushing torrents incapable of floating a ship. Its soil is comparatively sterile, though its reddish color combined with the variety of hills and dales lends it a delightful charm. This is increased by the indentations of innumerable bays and inlets, which add the incomparable blue of Aegean water to the beauty of the landscapes. 'No spot of the land is more than forty miles from the sea.'"—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, p. 243.—"A glance at the physical map of Greece shows you the sort of country which forms the setting of our picture. You see its long and complicated coast line, its intricate system of rugged hills, and the broken strings of islands which they fling off into the sea in every direction. On the map it recalls the features of Scotland or Norway. . . . Like its sister peninsulas of Italy and Spain, it has high mountains to the north of it; but the Balkans do not, as do the Alps and Pyrenees, present the form of a sheer rampart against northern invaders. On the contrary, the main axis of the hills lies in the same direction as the peninsula itself, with a northwest and southeast trend, so that on both coasts there are ancient trade routes

into the country; but on both sides they have to traverse passes which offer a fair chance of easy defence. The historian, wise after the event, deduces that the history of such a country must lie upon the sea. It is a sheltered, hospitable sea, with chains of islands like stepping-stones inviting the timed mariner of early times to venture across it. You can sail from Greece to Asia without ever losing sight of land. This sea will also invite commerce if the Greeks have anything to sell. It does not look as if they will have much. A few valleys and small plains are fertile enough to feed their own proprietors, but as regards corn and foodstuffs Greece will have to be an importer, not an exporter. In history we find great issues hanging on the sea routes by which corn came in from the Black Sea. Wine and olive oil are the only things that nature allowed Greece to export. As for minerals, Athens is rich in her silver mines, and gold is to be found in Thrace under Mount Pangaeus. But if Greece is to grow rich, it will have to be through the skill of her incomparable craftsmen and the shield and spear of her hoplites. The map will help to explain another feature of her history. Although at first sight the peninsula looks as if it possessed a geographical unity, yet a second glance shows that nature has split it up into numberless small plains and valleys divided from one another by sea and mountain. Such a country, as we see in Wales, Switzerland, and

Scotland, encourages a polity of clans and cantons, each jealous of its neighbor over the hill, and each cherishing a fierce local patriotism. Nature, moreover, has provided each plain with its natural citadel. Greece and Italy are both rich in these self-made fortresses. . . . If ever geography made history, it was where those flat-topped hills with precipitous sides, such as the Acropolis of Athens and Acrocorinthus, invited man to build his fortress and his shrine upon their summit. Then, perched safely on the hill-top and ringed with her wall, the city was able to develop her peculiar civilization even in troubled times while the rest of the world was still immersed in warfare and barbarism. The farmer spends the summer in the plain below for sowing and reaping, the mariner puts out from harbor, the soldier marches out for a summer campaign, but the city is their home, their refuge, and the centre of their patriotism. We must not overrate the importance of this natural cause. Even the plains of Greece, such as Thessaly and Boeotia, never developed a unity. There, too, the citadel and the city-state prevailed. Geography is seldom more than a contributory cause, shaping and assisting historical tendencies; but in this case it is impossible to resist the belief that in Italy and Greece the hill-top invited the wall, and the wall enabled the civilization of the city-state to rise and flourish long in advance of the rest of Europe. Greece enjoys a wonderful climate. The summer sun is hot, but morning and evening bring refreshing breezes from the sea. The rain average is low and regular; snow is almost unknown in the valleys. Hence there is a peculiar dry brightness in the atmosphere which seems to annihilate distance. . . . In that radiant sea air the Greeks of old learned to see things clearly. They could live, as the Greeks still live, a simple, temperate life. Wine and bread, with a relish of olives or pickled fish, satisfied the bodily needs of the richest. The climate invited an open-air life, as it still does. To-day, as of old, the Greek loves to meet his neighbors in the market square and talk eternally over all things both in heaven and earth. Though the blood of Greece has suffered many admixtures and though Greece has had to submit to centuries of conquest by many masters and oppressors, her racial character is little changed in some respects. The Greek is still restless, talkative, subtle, and inquisitive, eager for liberty without the sense of discipline which liberty requires, contemptuous of strangers and jealous of his neighbor. In commerce, when he has the chance, his quick and supple brain still makes him the prince of traders. Honesty and stability have always been qualities which he is quicker to admire than to practise. Courage, national pride, intellectual self-restraint, and creative genius have undoubtedly suffered under the Turkish domination. . . . The great defect of the climate of modern Greece is the malaria which haunts her plains and lowlands in early autumn. This is partly the effect and partly the cause of undrained and sparsely populated marsh-lands like those of Boeotia. It need not have been so in early Greek history. There must have been more agriculture and more trees in ancient than in modern Greece. The scenery of Greece is singularly impressive. Folded away among the hills there are, indeed, some lovely wooded valleys, like Tempe, but in general it is a treeless country, and the eye enjoys, in summer at least, a pure harmony of brown hills with deep blue sea and sky. The sea is indigo, almost purple, and the traveler quickly sees the justice of Homer's epithet of 'wine-dark.' Those brown hills make a lovely background for the play

of light and shade. Dawn and sunset touch them with warmer colors, and the plain of Attica is seen 'violet-crowned' by the famous heights of Hymettus, Pentelicus, and Parnes. The ancient Greek talked little of scenery, but he saw a nereid in every pool, a dryad under every oak, and heard the pipe of Pan in the caves of his limestone hills. He placed the choir of Muses on Mount Helicon, and, looking up to the snowy summit of Olympus, he peopled it with calm, benignant deities."—J. C. Stobart, *Legacy of Greece* (*Greek genius and its influence*, L. Cooper, ed., pp. 28-31).

"The considerable part played by the people of Greece during many ages must undoubtedly be ascribed to the geographical position of their country. [See also BALKAN STATES: Geographical position; 19th century.] . . . Greece, a sub-peninsula of the peninsula of the Balkans, was even more completely protected by transverse mountain barriers in the north than was Thracia or Macedonia. Greek culture was thus able to develop itself without fear of being stifled at its birth by successive invasions of barbarians. Mounts Olympus, Pelion, and Ossa, towards the north and east of Thessaly, constituted the first line of formidable obstacles towards Macedonia. A second barrier, the steep range of the Othrys, runs along what is the present political boundary of Greece. To the south of the Gulf of Lamia a fresh obstacle awaits us, for the range of the Ceta closes the passage, and there is but the narrow pass of the Thermopylae between it and the sea. Having crossed the mountains of the Locri and descended into the basin of Thebæ, there still remain to be crossed the Parnes or the spurs of the Citharon before we reach the plains of Attica. The 'isthmus' beyond these is again defended by transverse barriers, outlying ramparts, as it were, of the mountain citadel of the Peloponnesus, that acropolis of all Greece. . . . At an epoch when the navigation even of a land-locked sea like the Ægean was attended with danger, Greece found herself sufficiently protected against the invasions of oriental nations; but, at the same time, no other country held out such inducements to the pacific expeditions of merchants. Gulfs and harbours facilitated access to her Ægean coasts, and the numerous outlying islands were available as stations or as places of refuge. Greece, therefore, was favourably placed for entering into commercial intercourse with the more highly civilised peoples who dwelt on the opposite coasts of Asia Minor. The colonists and voyagers of Eastern Ionia not only supplied their Achaean and Pelasgian kinsmen with foreign commodities and merchandise, but they also imparted to them the myths, the poetry, the sciences, and the arts of their native country. Indeed, the geographical configuration of Greece points towards the east, whence she has received her first enlightenment. Her peninsulas and outlying islands extend in that direction; the harbours on her eastern coasts are most commodious, and afford the best shelter; and the mountain-surrounded plains there offer the best sites for populous cities. . . . The most distinctive feature of Hellas, as far as concerns the relief of the ground, consists in the large number of small basins, separated one from the other by rocks or mountain ramparts. The features of the ground thus favoured the division of the Greek people into a multitude of independent republics. Every town had its river, its amphitheatre of hills or mountains, its acropolis, its fields, pastures, and forests, and nearly all of them had, likewise, access to the sea. All the elements required by a free community were thus to be found within each of

these small districts, and the neighbourhood of other towns, equally favoured, kept alive perpetual emulation, too frequently degenerating into strife and battle. The islands of the Ægean Sea, likewise, had constituted themselves into miniature republics. Local institutions thus developed themselves freely, and even the smallest island of the Archipelago has its great representatives in history. But whilst there thus exists the greatest diversity, owing to the configuration of the ground and the multitude of islands, the sea acts as a binding element, washes every coast, and penetrates far inland."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Europe*, v. 1, pp. 36-38.—"The independence of each city was a doctrine stamped deep on the Greek political mind by the very nature of the Greek land. How truly this is so is hardly fully understood till we see that land with our own eyes. The map may do something; but no map can bring home to us the true nature of the Greek land till we have stood on a Greek hill-top, on the akropolis of Athens or the loftier akropolis of Corinth, and have seen how thoroughly the land was a land of valleys cut off by hills, of islands and peninsulas cut off by arms of sea, from their neighbours on either side. Or we might more truly say that, while the hills fenced them off from their neighbours, the arms of the sea laid them open to their neighbours. Their waters might bring either friends or enemies; but they brought both from one wholly distinct and isolated piece of land to another. Every island, every valley, every promontory, became the seat of a separate city; that is, according to Greek notions, the seat of an independent power, owing indeed many ties of brotherhood to each of the other cities which helped to make up the whole Greek nation, but each of which claimed the right of war and peace and separate diplomatic intercourse, alike with every other Greek city and with powers beyond the bounds of the Greek world. Corinth could treat with Athens and Athens with Corinth, and Corinth and Athens could each equally treat with the King of the Macedonians and with the Great King of Persia. . . . How close the Greek states are to one another, and yet how physically distinct they are from one another, it needs, for me at least, a journey to Greece fully to take in."—E. A. Freeman, *Practical bearings of European history (Lectures to American audiences)*, pp. 235-244.—See also ATHENS; COLONIZATION: Ancient: Greek, etc.; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Its heritage.

ALSO IN: W. R. Shepherd, *Atlas of ancient history*.—H. F. Tozer, *Lectures on the geography of Greece*.—J. L. Myres, *Greek lands and the Greek people*.

Ægean or Minoan civilization (4000-1200 B. C.).—"Long before the Indo-European Greeks came to this land [Greece] it had been affected by the Ægean civilization. This civilization has been disclosed to us most completely in Crete, where excavations have revealed an outline of its history reaching back farther than 3000 B. C. Beginning there in the Stone Age, this civilization slowly evolved in a way as original as that of Babylonia, Egypt or China. Scholars call the race that produced this civilization Minoan; from the myth of Minos of Crete. The early Minoan period of this civilization was contemporary with the Old Kingdom of Egypt: the Middle Minoan period, when the civilization reached its height, coincided with the time of Egypt's Middle Kingdom, 2000-1800 B. C.; while the Late Minoan period, contemporary with the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Egyptian dynasties (1600-1200 B. C.),

though in parts a period of splendor, was on the whole a period of decline. The Cyclades Islands, parts of Laconia, Argolis, Attica, Boeotia, and Thessaly, as well as parts of Caria and the Troad in Asia, shared this civilization. Greece was thus a highly civilized land long before the coming of the Greeks [see also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION]. At some time before the end of the second millennium B. C. the Indo-European Greeks began to enter the land from the north. They came in successive waves, Ionians, Achæans, Dorians. They appear to have reached some degree of civilization before they separated from the Aryan branches of their race, the Persian and Hindus, for they worshipped some of the same deities as their eastern kinsfolk. On their way to Greece they had advanced farther in civilization, since they passed through the valley of the Danube and came under the influence of the Bronze Age civilization there. When they reached Greece, however, they were far more backward than the men of the Mediterranean race whom they overcame, and it took time for the new race to absorb and transform the culture that they found. This period of absorption and transformation is reflected in the literature from the Homeric poems to the Peloponnesian War."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 243-244.—"Meanwhile, it is clear from the successive re-foundations of 'Troy' and from the successive changes in the quality of Hellespontine culture, that the land-bridge between Europe and Asia Minor was the scene of much coming and going, in the early bronze age, and of repeated disturbance of its inhabitants [see also EUROPE: Prehistoric: Bronze Age: Greece]. At the close of the neolithic age (in about the same stage, that is, as the new settlement of Thessaly, though without its characteristic art), a culture which attains its highest development in Servia spreads its influence far into Asia Minor; but it gives way later to strong reverse currents of Cyprus in the earliest age of metal. It cannot be too clearly insisted, that such an extension of culture does not necessarily mean the migration of a people, unless other evidence such as resettlement also points that way; if anything, it rather indicates that the region through which the new arts were spreading was settled and at peace. We should therefore probably think of the early metal age in Asia Minor as the long, quiet period which gave birth to Egypt and Sumerian Babylonia; but as broken, towards the Hellespont, by crises of disturbance such as that which brought in the ancestors of Sargon of Accad. It was in this peaceful interlude, too, that the Minoan culture grew undisturbed to its splendid culmination in Crete. Minoan visitors had been familiar at the Egyptian court for nearly a century. Until the reign of Amenhotep III, who came to the throne about 1415 [B. C.], they had always been called Keftiu by the Egyptians, and had come as friends or traders, wearing their characteristic hair-plaits and gaily coloured kilts, and bringing rich samples of their gold and silver works of art. But from the accession of Amenhotep III no more Keftiu come; and the Shardana and Danaana (how like the Homeric 'Danaoi'!) who take their place, are men of war, hostile or mercenary, like the Goths in Kingsley's *Hypatia*. Some of them enlisted with the King of Egypt, and were set to keep their countrymen out. If a late but learned native historian, Manetho, is to be believed, one such 'Danaan'—perhaps one of these very guardsmen—made himself king for a moment, in the brief anarchy which followed the death of Akhen-aten about 1365; and Shardana continue to make dis-







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astrous raids at intervals until about 1200. But after 1300 they no longer came alone; an increasing number of other peoples accompany them, and their raids are on a larger and more offensive scale. The two principal attacks are about 1230 and 1200. The former, in the reign of Menephtah, was in concert with an alongshore invasion of Libyans on the west edge of the Delta. . . . The second attack was made in the eighth year of Ramesses III, by a combined land and sea force, operating this time from the Syrian side. As before, there were Danaans and Shakaisha, and with them Tikkarai and other new tribes, some apparently from the Aegean, others from North Syria and Asia Minor, and among them a force of Hittites. This time the motive is even clearer than before. The land force came with its families and property in large wheeled carts; the sea-men in great sailing ships, with a fighting-top on the masthead, and the decks crowded with well-armed 'heroes,' as their chivalrous enemy calls them. They had clearly come to stay; and though the king of Egypt kept them out, by a hard-fought battle in South Syria and a great sea-fight, he had still to dispose of the survivors and non-combatants. There were already half-foreign settlements on the Palestinian coast plain, and to reinforce these with the newcomers would put a warlike population, under obligations to Egypt, in a position to stop any further attack that might come. It was the same policy again, as had made Egyptian guardsmen out of the Shardana, a century ago. The chief of these settlers bore the name Pulishtu, perhaps akin to the obscure name *Pelusi*, borrowed by Greek writers from an ancient pirate-people in the Aegean; and certainly identical with that of the Philistines, and with the word 'Palestine' which has spread from the coast to be the name of all southern Syria. Their later history is entwined for ever in that of their Israelite neighbours. They did not settle here alone, however; nearly a century and a half later there were still piratical Tikkarai established on this coast, a ruthless terror to travellers. The 'Teucric' settlement at Salamis in Cyprus which grew into a great Greek city, may well be one of their foundations, and perhaps also they gave their name to modern Zakro, a serviceable and already ancient harbour in eastern Crete facing out towards Egypt and Philistia."—J. L. Myres, *Dawn of history*, pp. 203-207.—See also **ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION**: Minoan Age; **AFRICA**: Ancient and medieval civilization: Development of Egyptian civilization; and Roman occupation; **EUROPE**: Ancient: Greek civilization: Freedom of culture; Its heritage.

**Indo-European migrations.**—Coming of the Archæans.—Trojan War.—Dorian invasion.—"In the Aegean, meanwhile, there was pandemonium. Written records we have none, and all we can do is to piece together the evidence of Greek tradition, which remembered three main events in quick succession. The first was the 'Coming of the Achæans,' blonde fair-skinned giants, 'tamers of horses,' 'shepherds of the people.' Their chief political centres are at Mycenae and in Laconia, where the Achæan kings were in some sense of 'Phrygian' origin; their conquests, which include almost all mainland Greece, Crete, and the south end of the island fringe of Asia Minor, are rough-hewn before 1250 [B.C.], but there are still 'unpacified' districts after 1180, for Menelaus sends word from Sparta that he can 'sack a town or so' if Telemachus will find his father and bring him round from rocky Ithaca. We almost hear Roger of Sicily inviting Robert of

Normandy to come south and share the fun. This makes the Achæans exact contemporaries both of the sea-raids on Egypt, and of the Phrygian occupation of northwest Asia Minor. The second event is the 'Trojan War' which the Greeks dated accurately 1194 to 1184. During an absence overseas of Menelaus, King of Sparta, within a year or two of the sea-raid of 1200, and not improbably on business connected with it, Paris, a Phrygian prince, ran away with his queen. As Fair Helen was the heiress, in right of whose hand this Achæan adventurer reigned—a notable glimpse of the pre-Achæan status of women—Paris had now a claim to the throne of Sparta quite as good as that of Edward III to that of France; and something had to be done. The whole Achæan force was flung upon Troy and after a ten years' war the Phrygian city was destroyed and the lady recovered. But it was a hard-bought victory. High gods were angry with both sides; and there were 'too many men in the world.' Achæans and Phrygians alike, were scattered over the waters; some as far as western Sicily, and the mouth of the Tiber, and the recesses of the Adriatic; others, like Menelaus himself, to Egypt again. Their palaces at home were full of sedition, and vagrant ne'er-do-weels with 'old soldier' yarns. Men who could make verses sang of little but the wars and the wanderings. It is the very picture of the foiled Sea-raiders, reeling back before the fleet of Ramesses III [see also **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 3]. Third comes the 'Dorian Invasion'; two generations more after the Trojan War, and therefore a little before 1100. Who the Dorians were, was not quite clear to the Greeks; in some sense they were a 'clan of Macedon,' and had arisen from Pindus, the Alpine backbone of the Greek peninsula. Unlike the Achæans, they have no skill in horses, but fight in close order on foot. Their traditional history and tribal nomenclature make them a mixed company, including some almost Albanian-looking highlanders with names of north-western form: there were also descendants of pre-Achæan 'Heraclids' from the south, perhaps dispossessed Minoans. Certain it is that their subjects, all through southern Greece, stood aloof from the Dorians, and the Dorians from them, and for some centuries the peninsula was paralysed by a nightmare of race-feud. Other northern peoples, moving nearer the east coast, conquered almost all the north, in a loose 'confederacy of neighbours' from Thessaly to the frontier of Attica. On the mainland, Attica alone outrode the storm; invaded but unconquered; thanks, so men believed, to wise reorganization by Theseus about the time of the 'Achæan Coming.' In the islands, things were rather better; though, in the south, Crete, Rhodes, and other parts were counted eventually as Dorian. [See also **DORIANS AND IONIANS**.] The refugees from Greece had obviously two ways of escape overseas; eastward and westward. How far they used the latter is not clear, though it seems likely that it was not wholly neglected; certainly some of the sea-raiders had travelled far that way. Eastward, in any case, they profited by the havoc which Phrygian raids had made in the western half of the Hittite dominion, to colonize extensively on the west coast, richer and much more open-featured than the land of bays and promontories that they had left, but essentially the same in structure, soil, and climate. Here, in due course, grows up Ionian Greece, prolonged northward and southward by the cities of Aeolis and the Hellespont, and of the Carian coast. The steps by which order was re-created out of chaos in the Aegean, and contact was re-

established with Eastern culture, over the seaways to Sidon and Tyre, and over old Hittite land-routes from Ionia to the Euphrates, deserve far fuller treatment than would accord with the scale of this book. The results, moreover, belong not to the dawn but to the full daylight of history—the history of the Ancient Greeks.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 200-210.—See also ARYANS: Meaning of the term; PELASGIANS; HELLAS; ACHÆA; ÆOLIANS; DORIANS AND IONIANS.

**Heroes and their age.**—“The period included between the first appearance of the Hellenes in Thessaly and the return of the Greeks from Troy, is commonly known by the name of the heroic age, or ages. The real limits of this period cannot be exactly defined. The date of the siege of Troy is only the result of a doubtful calculation [ending 1183 B. C. as reckoned by Eratosthenes, but fixed at dates ranging from thirty-three to sixty-three years later by Isocrates, Callimachus and other Greek writers]; and . . . the reader will see that it must be scarcely possible to ascertain the precise beginning of the period: but still, so far as its traditions admit of anything like a chronological connexion, its duration may be estimated at six generations, or about 200 years [say from some time in the fourteenth to some time in the twelfth century before Christ]. . . . The history of the heroic age is the history of the most celebrated persons belonging to this class, who, in the language of poetry, are called ‘heroes.’ The term ‘hero’ is of doubtful origin, though it was clearly a title of honour; but, in the poems of Homer, it is applied not only to the chiefs, but also to their followers, the freemen of lower rank, without, however, being contrasted with any other, so as to determine its precise meaning. In later times its use was narrowed, and in some degree altered: it was restricted to persons, whether of the heroic or of after ages, who were believed to be endowed with a superhuman, though not a divine, nature, and who were honoured with sacred rites, and were imagined to have the power of dispensing good or evil to their worshippers; and it was gradually combined with the notion of prodigious strength and gigantic stature. Here, however, we have only to do with the heroes as men. The history of their age is filled with their wars, expeditions, and adventures, and this is the great mine from which the materials of the Greek poetry were almost entirely drawn.”—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 5.—The legendary heroes whose exploits and adventures became the favorite subjects of Greek tragedy and song were Perseus, Hercules, Theseus, the Argonauts, and the heroes of the siege of Troy.—See also ACHILLES; PAGANISM: Heroes and Gods.

**Mycenæ and its kings.**—**Unburied memorials.**—“Thucydides says that before the Dorian conquest, the date of which is traditionally fixed at B. C. 1104, Mycenæ was the only city whence ruled a wealthy race of kings. . . . Archaeology tells us that the gold found at Mycenæ may very probably have come from the opposite coast of Asia Minor which abounded in gold; and further that the patterns impressed on the gold work at Mycenæ bear a very marked resemblance to the decorative patterns found on graves in Phrygia. Thucydides tells us that though Mycenæ was small, yet its rulers had the hegemony over a great part of Greece. Archaeology shews us that the kings of Mycenæ were wealthy and important quite out of proportion to the small city which they ruled, and that the civilisation which centered at Mycenæ spread over south Greece and the Ægean, and lasted for some centuries at least.

It seems to me that the simplest way of meeting the facts of the case is to suppose that we have recovered at Mycenæ the graves of the Pelopid race of monarchs. It will not of course do to go too far. . . . It would be too much to suppose that we have recovered the body of the Agamemnon who seems in the *Iliad* to be as familiar to us as Caesar or Alexander, or of his father Atreus, or of his charioteer and the rest. We cannot of course prove the *Iliad* to be history; and if we could, the world would be poorer than before. But we can insist upon it that the legends of heroic Greece have more of the historic element in them than anyone supposed a few years ago. . . . Assuming then that we may fairly class the Pelopidae as Achæan, and may regard the remains at Mycenæ as characteristic of the Achæan civilisation of Greece, is it possible to trace with bolder hand the history of Achæan Greece? Certainly we gain assistance in our endeavour to realize what the pre-Dorian state of Peloponnesus was like. We secure a hold upon history which is thoroughly objective, while all the history which before existed was so vague and imaginative that the clear mind of Grote refused to rely upon it at all. But the precise dates are more than we can venture to lay down, in the present condition of our knowledge. . . . The Achæan civilisation was contemporary with the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty (B. C. 1700-1400). It lasted during the invasions of Egypt from the north (1300-1100). When it ceased we cannot say with certainty. There is every historical probability that it was brought to a violent end in the Dorian invasion. The traditional date of that invasion is B. C. 1104. But it is obvious that this date cannot be relied upon.”

—P. Gardner, *New chapters in Greek history*, ch. 2-3.—The finds of Sir Arthur Evans at Crete in 1900 and excavations carried on from that date until 1914 have entirely changed the conception formerly had of Mycenæ and its kings. The remains disclosed by Schliemann at Mycenæ and Tiryns are not considered characteristic of an Achæan civilization but rather of the late Ægean or Minoan.—See also ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION; ARCHÆOLOGY: Method and scope; Development.

ALSO IN: H. Schliemann, *Mycenæ*.—C. Schuchhardt, *Schliemann's excavations*, ch. 4.

**Migrations of Hellenic tribes in the peninsula.**—“If there is any point in the annals of Greece at which we can draw the line between the days of myth and legend and the beginnings of authentic history, it is at the moment of the great migrations. Just as the irruption of the Teutonic tribes into the Roman empire in the 5th century after Christ marks the commencement of an entirely new era in modern Europe, so does the invasion of Southern and Central Greece by the Dorians, and the other tribes whom they set in motion, form the first landmark in a new period of Hellenic history. Before these migrations we are still in an atmosphere which we cannot recognize as that of the historical Greece that we know. . . . When, however, the migrations are ended, we at once find ourselves in a land which we recognize as the Greece of history. The tribes have settled into the districts which are to be their permanent abodes, and have assumed their distinctive characters. . . . The original impetus which set the Greek tribes in motion came from the north, and the whole movement rolled southward and eastward. It started with the invasion of the valley of the Peneus by the Thessalians, a warlike but hitherto obscure tribe, who had dwelt about Dodona in the uplands of Epirus. They crossed the passes of Pindus, and flooded down into the great plain to





EXAMPLES OF ANCIENT GREEK PAINTING

1. Nessos vase, 2. Fragment of ancient Greek painting, 3. Dodwell vase, 4. Ancient Boeotian bowl, 5. Fikelura vase, 6. Corinthian fresco, 7. Melos vase.

which they were to give their name. The tribes which had previously held it were either crushed and enslaved, or pushed forward into Central Greece by the wave of invasion. Two of the displaced races found new homes for themselves by conquest. The Arnaeans, who had dwelt in the southern lowlands along the courses of Apidanus and Enipeus, came through Thermopylae, pushed the Locrians aside to right and left, and descended into the valley of the Cephissus, where they subdued the Minyae of Orchomenus [see *MINYAE*], and then, passing south, utterly expelled the Cadmeians of Thebes. The plain country which they had conquered received a single name. Boeotia became the common title of the basins of the Cephissus and the Asopus, which had previously been in the hands of distinct races. Two generations later the Boeotians endeavoured to cross Cithaeron, and add Attica to their conquests; but their king Xanthus fell in single combat with Melanthus, who fought in behalf of Athens, and his host gave up the enterprise. In their new country the Boeotians retained their national unity under the form of a league, in which no one city had authority over another, though in process of time Thebes grew so much greater than her neighbours that she exercised a marked preponderance over the other thirteen members of the confederation. Orchomenus, whose Minyan inhabitants had been subdued but not exterminated by the invaders, remained dependent on the league without being at first amalgamated with it. A second tribe who were expelled by the irruption of the Thessalians were the Dorians, a race whose name is hardly heard in Homer, and whose early history had been obscure and insignificant. They had till now dwelt along the western slope of Pindus. Swept on by the invaders, they crossed Mount Othrys, and dwelt for a time in the valley of the Spercheius and on the shoulders of Oeta. But the land was too narrow for them, and, after a generation had passed, the bulk of the nation moved southward to seek a wider home, while a small fraction only remained in the valleys of Oeta. Legends tell us that their first advance was made by the Isthmus of Corinth, and was repulsed by the allied states of Peloponnesus, Hyllus the Dorian leader having fallen in the fight by the hand of Echemus, King of Tegea. But the grandsons of Hyllus resumed his enterprise, and met with greater success. Their invasion was made, as we are told, in conjunction with their neighbours the Aetolians, and took the Aetolian port of Naupactus as its base. Pushing across the narrow strait at the mouth of the Corinthian Gulf, the allied hordes landed in Peloponnesus, and forced their way down the level country on its western coast, then the land of the Epeians, but afterwards to be known as Elis and Pisatis. This the Aetolians took as their share, while the Dorians pressed further south and east, and successively conquered Messenia, Laconia, and Argolis, destroying the Cauconian kingdom of Pylos and the Achaian states of Sparta and Argos. There can be little doubt that the legends of the Dorians pressed into a single generation the conquests of a long series of years. . . . It is highly probable that Messenia was the first seized of the three regions, and Argos the latest . . . but of the details or dates of the Dorian conquests we know absolutely nothing. Of the tribes whom the Dorians supplanted, some remained in the land as subjects to their newly found masters, while others took ship and fled over sea. The stoutest-hearted of the Achaeans of Argolis, under Tisamenus, a grandson of Agamemnon, retired northward when

the contest became hopeless, and threw themselves on the coast cities of the Corinthian Gulf, where up to this time the Ionic tribe of the Aegialeans had dwelt. The Ionians were worsted, and fled for refuge to their kindred in Attica, while the conquerors created a new Achaia between the Arcadian Mountains and the sea, and dwelt in the twelve cities which their predecessors had built. The rugged mountains of Arcadia were the only part of Peloponnesus which were to escape a change of masters resulting from the Dorian invasion. A generation after the fall of Argos, new war-bands thirsting for land pushed on to the north and west, led by descendants of Temenus. The Ionic towns of Sicyon and Phlius, Epidaurus and Troezen, all fell before them. Even the inaccessible Acropolis which protected the Aeolian settlement of Corinth could not preserve it from the hands of the enterprising Aletes. Nor was it long before the conquerors pressed on from Corinth beyond the isthmus, and attacked Attica. Foiled in their endeavour to subdue the land, they at least succeeded in tearing from it its western districts, where the town of Megara was made the capital of a new Dorian state, and served for many generations to curb the power of Athens. From Epidaurus a short voyage of fifteen miles took the Dorians to Aegina, where they formed a settlement which, first as a vassal to Epidaurus, and then as an independent community, enjoyed a high degree of commercial prosperity. . . . In all probability the Dorian invasion was to a considerable extent a check in the history of the development of Greek civilization, a supplanting of a richer and more cultured by a poorer and wilder race. The ruins of the prehistoric cities, which were supplanted by new Dorian foundations, point to a state of wealth to which the country did not again attain for many generations. On the other hand, the invasion brought about an increase in vigour and moral earnestness. The Dorians throughout their history were the sturdiest and most manly of the Greeks. The god to whose worship they were especially devoted was Apollo, the purest, the noblest, the most Hellenic member of the Olympian family. By their peculiar reverence for this noble conception of divinity, the Dorians marked themselves out as the most moral of the Greeks."—C. W. C. Oman, *History of Greece*, ch. 5.—See also *DORIANS AND IONIANS*; *ACHÆA*; *ÆOLIANS*; *BŒOTIA*; *THESSALY*.

ALSO IN: A. Holm, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 12.

**Ancient political and geographical divisions.**—"Greece was not a single country. . . . It was broken up into little districts, each with its own government. Any little city might be a complete State in itself, and independent of its neighbours. It might possess only a few miles of land and a few hundred inhabitants, and yet have its own laws, its own government, and its own army. . . . In a space smaller than an English county there might be several independent cities, sometimes at war, sometimes at peace with one another. Therefore when we say that the west coast of Asia Minor was part of Greece, we do not mean that this coast-land and European Greece were under one law and one government, for both were broken up into a number of little independent States: but we mean that the people who lived on the west coast of Asia Minor were just as much Greeks as the people who lived in European Greece. They spoke the same language, and had much the same customs, and they called one another Hellenes, in contrast to all other nations of the world, whom they called barbarians, . . . that is, 'the unintel-

ligible folk,' because they could not understand their tongue."—C. A. Fyffe, *History of Greece (History primers, ch. 1)*.—See also ACARNANIA; ACHÆA; ÆGINA; ÆTOLIA; ARCADIA; ARGOS; ATHENS; ATTICA; BEOGIA; CORINTH; CORCYRA; DORIS AND DRYOPIS; ELIS; EPIRUS; EUBÆA; LOCRI; MACEDONIA; MANIINA; MEGALOPOLIS; MEGARA; MESSENE; PHOCLANS; PLATÆA; SICYON; SPARTA; THEBES; THESSALY.

**Ancient forms of agriculture.**—Pastoral life.—Serfdom. See AGRICULTURE: Ancient: Pastoral life of the Homeric period; SERFDOM: Heroic age.

**Migrations to Asia Minor and islands of the Ægean.**—Æolian, Ionian and Dorian colonies.—"Three movements of expansion can be distinguished in what we know of the history of the Greeks. The first, that of the so-called Dorian and Ionian migrations, left them in possession of the Greek mainland, the principal islands of the Ægean, and the western seaboard of Asia Minor. The second, that of Greek colonisation properly so-called, extended the Greek world to the limits familiar to us in the history of Greece during the fifth and fourth centuries. The third, in which Macedonian kings act as leaders began with the conquests of Alexander, and resulted in that Hellenisation of the East which was the permanent achievement of his successors. . . . The earlier migrations were, it is true, caused by the pressure of advancing tribes, and were thus due, in a sense, to the need for land; but, unlike the later movement of expansion, they were themselves tribal conquests, not settlements organized by a city-state. . . . [After this period the] Dorians, Ionians and the other tribes of the mainland and in the newly-won territories, settled down to a period of agricultural development. Soil hitherto untilled was made productive, tenure of land became more secure, and by sea the pirates, with whom Homer was familiar, were gradually forced to a more regular existence. It is in this period of growing order and prosperity that the origins of Greek colonisation are to be sought. On the one hand, as families began to hold land continuously for generations, and since the amount of fertile soil was very limited, the natural growth of a peasant population soon needed some outlet to replace the earlier custom of restless wandering. On the other hand, with the clearing of the seas from pirates, men grew accustomed to regular intercourse by water. It needed only some local crisis, or the enterprise of some prominent citizen, to suggest the plan of a public emigration. To this period [eighth century] tradition ascribed the settlement of Corcyra [q. v.], the foundation of the earliest Italian and Sicilian colonies [see also SICILY: Phœnician and Greek colonies; AGRIGENTUM], and the first Milesian settlements on the shores of the Propontis and the Euxine; we may perhaps add the first Eretrian colonies in Chalcidice, though here even the approximate date of foundation must remain in doubt. . . . The Milesian exploration of the Euxine is a signal proof that, even at an early date, Greek sailors were not afraid to face real dangers, both from climate and the uncertain hospitality of native tribes. . . . Milesian colonisation was, even more notably than the colonies of Corinth, connected with her later history with the development of commerce and in particular with the traffic in corn from the shores of the North and West. . . . It follows that Milesian exploration was for long confined to the southern coast, and only ventured into the unknown regions of the North-West and North after more than a century's familiarity with

the waters of the Euxine. . . . Sinope is the type of the earliest Milesian settlements. . . . Her unrivalled position as mistress of the Euxine gave her in later centuries an untailing source of wealth, but it is plain that her position as the distributing centre for the trade of the Euxine was slow in bringing her prosperity. . . . Almost certainly, for the first hundred years of her existence, her main income must have been from the local fisheries and the cultivation of her territory on the mainland. Corinth, we know, was one of the first Greek states to develop a commercial system, its coinage was among the earliest struck on the mainland [see also MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient Greece], and it was early afied in the work of colonisation. Here, if anywhere, we should suspect the influence of commercial motives; the conclusion seems almost inevitable that Syracuse, Corcyra and the other early Corinthian colonies were founded with the immediate object of establishing Corinthian influence on an important trade-route. . . . Whatever may have been the later history of Corinth's colonising activity, her first settlements were made at a time when her population was still mainly agricultural, and when commercial interests had not yet become the dominant element in domestic politics. Even after a century of archaeological discovery, we know so little about eighth century Greece, that we can go little further than the mere statement of that fact; but it is always well to remember that the men who followed Archias across the seas were very different from the fully civilised Greeks of the fifth century. . . . They were not the men to organise a great national venture on a purely commercial basis, and for purely commercial ends. In Chalcidice and Thrace, for example, the early colonies of Eretria and Andros preceded by generations the sudden development towards the end of the sixth century of that mining industry which made the fortune first of Thasos, then of Athens, and lastly of the Macedonian kings, and of which we are only now beginning to have clear knowledge. With the exception of Potidæa (not founded until after 600 B.C.), the sites of the various Chalcidic colonies are obviously better suited for agricultural settlements in what has been styled 'the Greek Riviera,' than for towns destined to be centres of trade. So, too, in Italy and Sicily the earliest settlements are not those most obviously chosen for reasons of commerce. . . . Cyrene itself is situated on the heights of a line of cliffs rising steeply from a low-lying shore. A community of traders would have chosen a port as the site of their new home, but the Greeks, as Herodotus tells us, soon moved from the island on which they had first landed to this more inaccessible site; for behind Cyrene stretched those plains which even the first settlers could see to be almost unrivalled for the mildness of their climate and for fertility of soil. There is, therefore, much ground for saying that the earliest Greek settlements were not mainly due to the promptings of commercial enterprise; but, as we pass on to the later chapters of Greek colonial history, we shall see that motives of commerce come to be of increasing importance. . . . Religion played a leading part in their history; above all, during the earlier period with which we are dealing. But in the history of their colonisation religion, though a force, was a force which acted rather for the preservation of national sentiment than as a motive for travel and conquest. . . . When the Greeks founded their earliest settlements in the West and on the Euxine, their religion had not yet developed from a local cult to a universal faith. Men were content to wor-

ship the gods of their fathers in their own homes, and no thought of evangelising other nations ever came to trouble their prayer. Hence the missionary, so familiar a figure in the history of modern colonisation, plays no part in the story of the Greek colonies. [See also COLONIZATION: Ancient Greek, etc.; PAGANISM: Heroes and Gods; PRIESTHOOD: In Greece and Rome; RELIGION: B.C. 600-A.D. 30: Value of Greek religion.] . . . If we turn to the map and mark the different regions in which the two races [Dorians and Ionians] established their colonies we shall at once be struck by an apparent unity in the methods of each. In almost every region of the Greek colonial world, the two races are to be found represented on our maps; but it seems everywhere plain from the grouping of their settlements that the sites were chosen in a spirit of conscious opposition. In Sicily, the north east was originally almost entirely in the hands of Ionians, whilst the east and south were settled by Dorians. In the Ægean, the Ionians went to the north, the Dorians to the south, and there is here little clashing of interests; but, on the shores of the Euxine, though Miletus succeeded in gaining almost a monopoly of the more distant coasts, Megara succeeded in encircling the entrance to the Propontis with a ring of her settlements. A glance at the geographical position of these and other Greek colonies will show at once that of the two races the Ionians were by far the more enterprising. On the Euxine, in the northern waters of the Ægean, beyond the straits of Messina to Gaul and Spain, and (if we may trust Herodotus and Plutarch), up the coast line of the Adriatic, it was Ionian sailors who everywhere led the way; and though their earliest enterprises date back well into the eighth century, even in the seventh century Samian and Phocæan adventurers still found new ports to explore. There is, therefore, much point in a comparison, made by a distinguished French scholar, between the early Ionian settlers and the Portuguese adventurers of the fifteenth century, though we must always bear in mind that it is not in any way a comparison of degree. But it would be a grievous mistake were we to give to the Ionians alone the whole credit of success in the history of Greek colonisation. It is true that only in the Cyrenaica do the Dorians appear in the character of explorers; but, though later in the field, and of a less enterprising spirit, their instinct for colonisation suggested to them a choice of sites even more remarkable than those occupied by the Ionians. Their insight in this respect amounted, indeed, to genius. Chalcedon and Byzantium, Potidæa, no less than the Corinthian outposts along the shores of the Adriatic, commanded routes by which Ionians must inevitably pass on their voyages to and from their more distant colonies. Sites such as these were not chosen at random. From the position of many of their colonies, it would seem that the Dorian states aimed deliberately, at least in their later foundations, at acquiring control of Ionian routes. That in certain regions they succeeded in doing so would seem to appear from the evidence of early Greek standards of coinage. If coinage was not itself an Ionian invention, the Ionians were, at all events, the first Greeks to make a regular use of money; yet it is curious to note that, in many important regions of the ancient Greek world, the Dorian standards of Ægina and Corinth over the Ionian standards of Eubœa and the cities of the Asiatic coast."—A. Gwynn, *Character of Greek colonization* (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, v. 38, 1918).—See also ASTA MINOR: B.C. 1100;

COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 1000-200; DORIANS AND IONIANS.

Character of Greek colonization.—"In the first place we have seen that the fundamental cause of Greek colonisation was not, as in more modern times, the sudden discovery of unexplored regions or the prospect of commercial gain. It was rather the constant pressure of a population outgrowing the productive capacity of land at home, and chafing, too, at the restraints of a social system wholly founded on the hereditary tenure of land. This pressure was a direct result of the increasing stability of Greek life, and the tendency to emigration was further encouraged by a second result of that increasing stability, the clearing of pirates from the home waters. But the Greeks, though essentially an agricultural people, were none the less born for maritime adventure, and the migratory movement soon resulted in a rapid extension of the limits of the Greek world. Parallel to this extension went, naturally, a great development of commerce, and commercial enterprise becomes more and more inextricably united with the growth of the colonies until the later phases of Greek colonial history are identical with the history of contemporary Greek commerce. . . . Yet if we are careful to distinguish the earlier from the succeeding stages of that history we see clearly that the first Greek states founded overseas, were primarily communities of an agricultural people, only later centres of industrial and commercial activity. This primary character of Greek colonisation explains much that would otherwise be puzzling to its later development. Greek society in the colonies no less than in the mother country, had its roots in the conception of a city-state. As long as a Greek colony survived as an independent unit, sometimes long after it had lost its independence, it retained its essential character as a polis. Hence, the development of social and political institutions among the Greek colonies is, as far as we can trace it, closely parallel to the development of society in Greece proper; only occasionally, where pressure from outside threatened the very existence of the Greek states do we find, as in Sicily under Dionysius, the sudden rise of a military despotism. And this continuity is reflected in the whole atmosphere of Greek colonial history. Tradition was a very living force in the Greek colonies, and there was nothing in their development, which can be compared to the characteristic features of modern colonial states. . . . The Greeks, on the other hand, were content with their isolated settlements, and never seem to have thought of establishing an empire in the interior of those countries whose seaboards they held. Perhaps it was the failure to convert the ideal of a city-state into the ideal of a nation; perhaps it was some inherent quality of the Greek mind—content with what it had and not caring for more than was sufficient to supply its material needs. Imperialism and apostolate are two conceptions, very different in their origin and their motives, yet both equally unfamiliar to the Greeks. What they had, they made perfect; and we must admit that the perfection of their civilization was due in no small measure to the existence of their colonies. Exchange of goods and interchange of thought are two very necessary conditions of human progress; and Greek colonisation ensured that, for two centuries at least, the Eastern Mediterranean should be the almost undisputed waterway of Greek merchants and travellers."—A. Gwynn, *Character of Greek colonization* (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, v. 38, 1918).—"The questions we have touched on have already illustrated the

fact that colonisation was always regarded as a public act in Greece; no settlement was regarded as quite legitimate unless this act of state had been performed by some city, which was then regarded as the metropolis, and might afterwards become the grandmother of the offshoots of its own colony, since ancient custom directed that the latter, in founding a fresh settlement, should seek a leader from its own parent state. The act of colonisation was preceded by certain formalities. A religious sanction was obtained by the consultation of an oracle, generally that of Delphi, which appears to have had the fullest information of the places best suited for settlement. Next came the charter of incorporation given by the government of the founding state. This charter set forth the conditions under which the colony was to be founded, and sometimes the relations, whether religious or political which were to be maintained between it and the parent state. The relation between a colony and its mother city was as a rule merely sentimental and religious, and was emphasised by the worship of the personal founder as a hero after his death. Sometimes, indeed, it was difficult to preserve even this sentimental relationship. Although directed by a single city, colonies were sometimes composed of very mixed elements, and in this case little attachment to the founders was to be looked for. It was an aggregate of races of this kind, planted by the Athenians at Thurii in 443 B.C., that declined to worship a founder of more limited nationality than Apollo Archegetes himself. But community of commercial and political interests often bound the two states closely together, and sometimes this community found expression in a fixed agreement included in the charter. A clause such as that in the charter given by the Locrians to Naupactus about 460—that the colonists should swear not to quit alliance with the mother city, and that thirty years later each state might call on the other to renew the oath—was, in spite of the late date of this document, probably not unusual. We have noticed the actual attempt at government of her colonies made by Corinth. Elsewhere we find tokens of dependence given by the colony, but on reasonable grounds. Cotyora, Trapezus, and Cerasus, colonies of Sinope, had to pay to the mother state a yearly tribute. It was merely, however, a sign of the precarious tenure of their soil, for these colonies had been founded on land which Sinope had taken from the barbarians. But dependence of any kind was rare; and although the slight bonds of Greek international law were here reinforced by the tie of sentiment, and it was considered impious to bear arms against the mother state, the general feeling in Greece seems to have been that all political interference on the part of the latter was sufficient to dissolve the bonds of sentimental allegiance. The chief reason for this independence of the colony is no doubt to be sought simply on the idea of the autonomy of the . . . foundation of Greek political life.”—A. H. Greenidge, *Greek constitutional history*, pp. 40-43.—See also COLONIZATION: Ancient: Greek, etc.; COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 2000-1000; ACHÆAN CITIES, LEAGUE OF THE.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *History of Sicily*, v. 1.—G. Botsford, and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, ch. 3.—W. Cunningham, *Western civilization in its economic aspects*, v. 2, ch. 1.

B.C. 8th century.—Rule of aristocracies.—Gens.—Tyrants.—“In some ethnè [tribe or nation], as in Epeiros and Macedon, monarchy persisted throughout historical times. The more progressive city-state, however, as the Ionian, began to adopt aristocracies about the middle of the

eighth century. The change was gradual. The great nobles who formed the council took an ever increasing part in the government till they usurped complete control. Their means of aggrandizement were the degradation of the king to a mere priest and judge, the institution of new officers in addition to the kingship, the reduction of the tenure of all offices to a single year, and the appointment and supervision of officials, rendering them responsible to the council for their administration. In this way the council made itself supreme, while the officers became its tools, and the assembly lost the little significance it had possessed under the monarchy.”—G. W. Botsford, *Hellenic history*, p. 71.—The transfer of government to the clans, or gens, could assume either of two forms: it could be kept within the ruling clan with authority vested in the members generally, as in the case of the Bacchiadæ of Corinth; or the government could lapse from the royal to the noble clans of the community as exemplified by that of the Eupatridæ at Athens; or again in the case of Argos where the hereditary principle was abandoned, and the power taken from the Heracleidæ and given to another house—that of Ægon. The clan or gen was a close corporation, the members (gentes) of which possessed a common worship closely dependent on their common ancestry. “The idea of law underwent a corresponding change. While it remained for a time purely customary as before, the nobles generally regarded themselves not as recipients of legal revelations, but as keepers of a body of law once divinely established and now handed down as a precious heritage from father to son. The nobles made use of their legal monopoly to decide cases capriciously or from motives of favoritism or in pursuit of bribes. . . . These evils, it was doubtless thought, could be partially remedied by the codification of legal usages. The state already possessed some written documents, including lists of magistrates and treaties, and it was but natural that writing should now be extended to the preservation of the laws. The earliest European code known to history was produced at Locri, Italy. . . . In Thessaly the aristocrats, who had wrested the supreme power from the king, long retained their supremacy. Elsewhere they usually were too weak to endure more than a century or thereabout. Often the aristocracy was overthrown by a tyrant—usurper, unconstitutional ruler. . . . Whatever the tyrant’s origin, his authority was generally exercised in the interest of peace, material prosperity and progress in civilization. Putting an end alike to the factional strife of nobles and the sectional conflicts of tribes, he reduced his people to harmony and established domestic peace. No force in the Hellenic world of the time contributed so much to cultural progress. . . . [By] fostering literary interest among the people and by attaching them to new cults [the cultivation of Dionysiac worship] he freed them in a degree from the priestly influence of the old nobility and educated them for self-government.”—G. W. Botsford, *Hellenic history*, pp. 71-72, 75.

ALSO IN: A. H. Greenidge, *Greek constitutional history*.—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*.

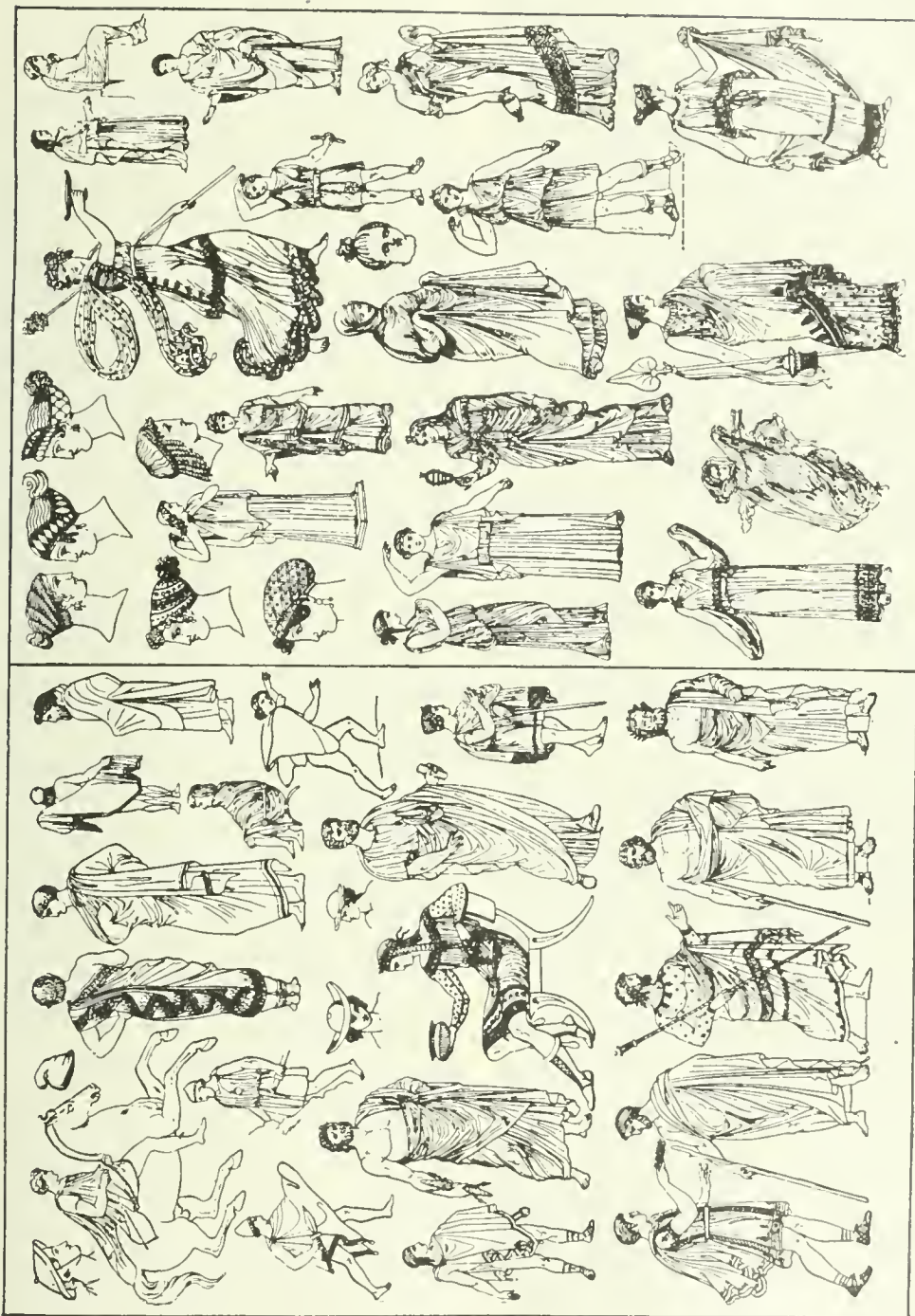
B.C. 8th-6th centuries.—Economic conditions.—Trade and commerce.—Amphictyonies.—Rise of the city-state.—“This period [eighth and seventh centuries, B.C.] is marked by the growth of commerce and the foundation of colonies, especially in the Euxine and the west; by the rise of commercial cities—Miletus preëminently, other Ionian cities, Chalcis, Eretria, Ægina, Corinth. Agriculture is still the staple industry, but is beginning to be supplemented by manufactures, as of woven

cloth, pottery, armour. The coinage of money is adopted from Lydia and quickly spreads all over Greece, working an economic revolution. . . . [In the sixth century] the Ionians reach the last stage of their development and begin rapidly to decline. All the Asiatic Greek cities pass under the protection of Cræsus; they entirely lose their independence to the Persians. . . . Further advance is made by the commercial cities. The growth of manufactures and the introduction of a currency bring economic evils in their train; loans, usury, mortgages and slavery for debt."—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*, pp. 83-87.—"In the sixth century B. C. the chief commercial centres were Miletus, Samos, Sinope, Byzantium, Phocæa, the cities of Rhodes, Ephesus, Ægina, Corinth, Athens, Chios and Corcyra: in the fifth century Athens was indisputably the leader, though the Ionian cities, with Corcyra, and Corinth, were still of first-rate importance [see also BOSPORUS: Ancient and Medieval periods]. The result of the Peloponnesian War ruined at once the political and the commercial pre-eminence of Athens. Corinth still enjoyed a considerable prosperity, and Athens recovered somewhat during the fourth century, but the conquests of Alexander, while they widened the sphere of commerce, . . . and brought East and West into closer relationship, diverted Greek trade to fresh centres, Alexandria, Antioch, Seleucia, and Rhodes, large towns of the modern type which held their own up to and during the Roman supremacy. The chief commodities which formed the basis of the Greek export-trade were the oil of Attica; the wine of Chios, Naxos, Lesbos, and Thasos; the agricultural produce of Megara and Bœotia; the purple of Cythera and other coast-places; the copper of Eubœa and Cyprus; the silver of Laureium; the gold of Thasos; the iron of Iaconia; and the tunny of Byzantium. The chief manufactures for export were the woollens, purples, and carpets of Miletus, Chios, and Samos; the metal-work of Corinth, Chalcis, and Argos; the trinkets of Ægina; the pottery of Chalcis, Corinth, and Athens. The principal import was corn, obtained from the Black Sea, Magna Græcia, Sicily, and Egypt: other articles shipped in large quantities were salt, salt fish, wool, timber and skins."—*Ibid.*, p. 427.—See also ASIA MINOR: B.C. 724-530.—"From time to time, however, a longing for union was felt. It showed itself first in the interests of religion, when leagues and associations were established between neighbouring cities for the protection of enrichment of some famous shrine lying in their midst. Of such associations the Amphictyonic league was the most notable. It grouped itself in turn about the temple of Apollo at Delphi, and about that of Demeter Amphictyonia at Thermopylæ, and comprised, at one time, most of the States of Central Greece, and, in its later epoch, several of the Dorian States of the Peloponnesus. The fulfilment of the various obligations was enforced by the Amphictyonic Council, which incidentally established rules prescribing rights and duties of a non-religious character [see also AMPHICTYONIC COUNCIL]. Other associations of cities for mutual profit and defence were occasionally established, but they were imperfect and transitory. Thus the idea of Themistocles to consolidate Greece came to nothing; and a similar project of Pericles, on the eve of the Peloponnesian war, had it been realized, might have altered the course of Greek history. He had issued a decree to the effect that all Greek towns, whether in Europe or in Asia, should be invited to send representatives to a general assembly at Athens, to deliberate on the restoration of temples

destroyed by the barbarians, on the sacrifices vowed to the gods in connection with the Persian wars, and on the best means of assuring to all freedom and security of navigation, and of establishing general peace. But this proposal came to nothing owing to Sparta's jealousy of Athens, and her apprehension that an Athenian hegemony might result. Indeed the temporary confederations that were set up proceeded under the leadership, if not virtual supremacy, of one or other of the more powerful States. Aristocracies and democracies found it impossible to be allied on a footing of real equality; the diversity occasioned by the Dorian and Ionian elements in Hellas could not be eliminated. It was, in truth, easier to subjugate a city and occupy its territory, than to retain it in friendly union."—C. Phillipson, *International law and custom of ancient Greece and Rome*, pp. 36-37.—The lack of union made for individual centralization, exemplified in the unparalleled growth of the city-state. "But they reached, it may be said, the utmost possibility of the city-state. The city-state was, as we have seen, probably evolved by natural survival from the physical conditions of the country. Being established, it entailed certain definite consequences. It involved a much closer bond of social union than any modern territorial state. Its citizens felt the unity and exclusiveness of a club or school. A much larger share of public rights and duties naturally fell upon them. They looked upon their city as a company of unlimited liability in which each individual citizen was a shareholder. They expected their city to feed and amuse them. They expected to divide the plunder when she made conquests, as they were certain to share the consequences if she was defeated. Every full citizen of proper age was naturally bound to fight personally in the ranks, and from that duty his rights as a citizen followed logically. He must naturally be consulted about peace and war, and must have a voice in foreign policy. Also, if he was to be a competent soldier he must undergo proper education and training for it. There will be little privacy inside the walls of a city-state; the arts and crafts will be under public patronage. Inequalities will become hatefully apparent."—J. C. Stobart, *Glory that was Greece*, pp. 10-11.

ALSO IN: H. N. Fowler, *City-state of Greeks and Romans*, ch. 1-6.—G. E. Howard, *Comparative federal institutions*.—G. W. Botsford, *Constitution and politics of the Bœotian league (Political Science Quarterly, v. 25, pp. 271-296)*.—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, p. 469 ff.—P. A. Gardner, *History of ancient coinage*.—B. V. Head, *Historic numeraorum*.—M. D. Volonakis, *Island of Roses and her eleven sisters*. B.C. 752-621.—Archonship at Athens.—Draconian legislation. See ATHENS: B.C. 753-650, to B.C. 624-621.

B.C. 8th-5th centuries.—Political evolution of the leading states.—Variety in the forms of government.—Rise of democracy at Athens.—"The Hellenes followed no common political aim. . . . Independent and self-centred, they created, in a constant struggle of citizen with citizen and state with state, the groundwork of those forms of government which have been established in the world at large. We see monarchy, aristocracy, democracy, rising side by side and one after another, the changes being regulated in each community by its past experience and its special interests in the immediate present. These forms of government did not appear in their normal simplicity or in conformity with a distinct ideal, but under the modifications necessary to give them vitality. An example of this is Lakedæmon. If one of the fami-



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lies of the Heraclidæ [the two royal families—see SPARTA: Constitution] aimed at a tyranny, whilst another entered into relations with the native and subject population, fatal to the prerogatives of the conquerors, we can understand that in the third case, that of the Spartan community, the aristocratic principle was maintained with the greatest strictness. Independently of this, the divisions of the Lakedæmonian monarchy between two lines, neither of which was to have precedence, was intended to guard against the repetition in Sparta of that which had happened in Argos. Above all, the members of the Gerusia, in which the two kings had only equal rights with the rest, held a position which would have been unattainable to the elders of the Homeric age. But even the Gerusia was not independent. There existed in addition to it a general assembly, which, whilst very aristocratic as regards the native and subject population, assumed a democratic aspect in contrast with the king and the elders. The internal life of the Spartan constitution depended upon the relations between the Gerusia and the aristocratic demos. . . . The Spartan aristocracy dominated the Peloponnesus. But the constitution contained a democratic element working through the Ephors, by means of which the conduct of affairs might be concentrated in a succession of powerful hands. Alongside of this system, the purely aristocratic constitutions, which were without such a centre, could nowhere hold their ground. The Bacchiadæ in Corinth, two hundred in number, with a prytanis at their head, and intermarrying only among themselves, were one of the most distinguished of these families. They were deprived of their exclusive supremacy by Kypselus, a man of humble birth on his father's side, but connected with the Bacchiadæ through his mother. . . . As the Kypselidæ rose in Corinth, the metropolis of the colonies towards the west, so in the corresponding eastern metropolis, Miletus, Thrasybulus raised himself from the dignity of prytanis to that of tyrant; in Ephesus, Pythagoras rose to power, and overthrew the Basilidæ; in Samos, Polycrates, who was master also of the Kyklades, and of whom it is recorded that he confiscated the property of the citizens and then made them a present of it again. By concentrating the forces of their several communities the tyrants obtained the means of surrounding themselves with a certain splendor, and above all of liberally encouraging poetry and art. To these Polycrates opened his citadel, and in it we find Anacreon and Ibycus; Kypselus dedicated a famous statue to Zeus, at Olympia. The school of art at Sikyon was without a rival, and at the court of Periander were gathered the seven sages—men in whom a distinguished political position was combined with the prudential wisdom derived from the experience of life. This is the epoch of the legislator of Athens, Solon [see ATHENS: B.C. 504], who more than the rest has attracted to himself the notice of posterity. He is the founder of the Athenian democracy. . . . His proverb 'Nothing in excess' indicates his character. He was a man who knew exactly what the time has a right to call for, and who utilized existing complications to bring about the needful changes. It is impossible adequately to express what he was to the people of Athens, and what services he rendered them. That removal of their pecuniary burdens, the *seisachtheia* [see DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: Ancient Greek], made life for the first time endurable to the humbler classes. Solon cannot be said to have introduced democracy, but, in making the share of the upper classes in the government dependent upon the good pleasure of the com-

munity at large, he laid its foundations [see also CENSUS: Ancient]. The people were invested by him with attributes which they afterwards endeavored to extend. . . . Solon himself lived long enough to see the order which he established serve as the basis of the tyranny which he wished to avoid; it was the Four Hundred themselves who lent a hand to the change. The radical cause of failure was that the democratic element was too feebly constituted to control or to repress the violence of the families. To elevate the democracy into a true power in the state other events were necessary, which not only rendered possible, but actually brought about, its further development. The conflicts of the principal families, hushed for a moment, were revived under the eyes of Solon himself with redoubled violence. The Alcæmonidæ [banished about 595 B.C.—(See ATHENS: B.C. 612-595)] were recalled, and gathered around them a party consisting mainly of the inhabitants of the seacoast, who, favored by trade, had the money in their hands; the genuine aristocrats, described as the inhabitants of the plains, who were in possession of the fruitful soil, were in perpetual antagonism to the Alcæmonidæ; and, whilst these two parties were bickering, a third was formed from the inhabitants of the mountain districts, inferior to the two others in wealth, but of superior weight to either in the popular assemblies. At its head stood Peisistratus, a man distinguished by warlike exploits, and at an earlier date a friend of Solon. It was because his adherents did not feel themselves strong enough to protect their leader that they were induced to vote him a body-guard chosen from their own ranks. . . . As soon, however, as the first two parties combined, the third was at a disadvantage, so that after some time sentence of banishment was passed upon Peisistratus. . . . Peisistratus . . . found means to gather around him a troop of brave mercenaries, with whom, and with the support of his old adherents, he then invaded Attica. His opponents made but a feeble resistance, and he became without much trouble master both of the city and of the country [see ATHENS: B.C. 560-510]. He thus attained to power; it is true, with the approbation of the people, but nevertheless by armed force. . . . We have almost to stretch a point in order to call Peisistratus a tyrant—a word which carries with it the invidious sense of a selfish exercise of power. No authority could have been more rightly placed than his; it combined Athenian with Panhellenist tendencies. But for him Athens would not have been what she afterwards became to the world. . . . Nevertheless, it must be admitted that Peisistratus governed Athens absolutely, and even took steps to establish a permanent tyranny. He did, in fact, succeed in leaving the power he possessed to his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus. . . . Of the two brothers it was the one who had rendered most service to culture, Hipparchus, who was murdered at the festival of the Panathenæa. It was an act of revenge for a personal insult. . . . In his dread lest he should be visited by a similar doom, Hippias actually became an odious tyrant and excited universal discontent. One effect, however, of the loss of stability which the authority of the dominant family experienced was that the leading exiles ejected by Peisistratus combined in the enterprise which was a necessary condition of their return, the overthrow of Hippias. The Alcæmonidæ took the principal part. . . . The revolution to which this opened the way could, it might seem, have but one result, the establishment of an oligarchical government. . . . But the matter had a very different issue," resulting in the



constitution of Cleisthenes and the establishment of democracy at Athens, despite the hostile opposition and interference of Sparta.—L. von Ranke, *Universal history: Oldest historical group of nations and the Greeks*, ch. 5.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 509-506; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: B.C. 5th century.

**B.C. 8th-5th centuries.—Growth of Sparta.—Culture of the seventh century.—Expansion.—**“Down to 550 Sparta underwent a political development closely analogous to that of the rest of Greece. From 550 onwards for nearly a century and a half the foreign policy of Sparta was dominated primarily by one consideration, and that not the population question, which did not arise at all until the beginning of the fifth century and only became of supreme importance in the fourth, but rather the issue of a conflict between the kings and the ephors lasting in an acute form for over fifty years and in a milder degree for almost the whole of Spartan history. Our best tradition definitely dates the spread of Spartan power in Laconia from the reign of Charilaus or Archelaus. The previous kings have no real history. If Sparta had not yet conquered Amyclæ, she can hardly have interfered much in Argos and Arcadia. If then the synœcism was the origin of Spartan strength as of that of nearly all other Greek cities, we must put it, in default of other evidence, at the time when a sudden growth of strength is really manifested. This comes about 800. The synœcism naturally entailed a revision and reconsideration of the constitution. . . . Greek tradition knowing Lycurgus as the composer of quarrels in Sparta inevitably hailed him as the author of this constitution, and Herodotus fell into the trap. Thucydides was a better judge of evidence. The establishment of a strong aristocracy about 700 at once led to a development in art and culture. That date is marked in the excavations of Sparta by the emergence of an oriental influence in Spartan pottery. . . . So far as can be judged from its archaeological remains Sparta developed during the seventh century on lines very similar to those of other Greek states. We find just the same break in the cruder native art that appears elsewhere in Athens or Corinth, and far earlier than in those towns the emergence of a fully fledged orientalising style. Combs, toilet-boxes, elaborate pins and bronze ornaments, seals, necklaces, and gold and ivory gewgaws, shew that there was no puritan reaction after 700, but rather a golden age of Spartan art, similar to the beginnings in other states. Foreigners with artistic pretensions were welcomed in Sparta. We soon reach the period of Theodorus and Bathycles, of Aleman and Tyrtæus, of Terpander and Timotheus. Art and music, poetry and dancing, were all honoured arts, and Sparta partook fully of the general Hellenic awakening. Sparta had, in the words of Thucydides, become fully settled. . . . The change comes soon after 550. . . . In a word historic Sparta, self-supporting, jealous of all foreign movements, utterly out of touch with the rest of the Greek world, and devoted to an almost monastic military regime, now begins to come into existence. Spartan professionalism in warfare can certainly be dated from about this time, for hitherto Sparta had shewn no essential superiority over her neighbours. The Messenians had been as good soldiers, the Argives had at least once severely defeated her armies, Tegea had proved too strong for her. The complete superiority which belonged to Spartan infantry, from the days of Cleomenes was clearly unknown before 550. We may therefore conclude with some certainty that the social changes of this period were due to an increased

demand for military efficiency and a drastic revival of the ‘Lycurgan’ which entailed a more or less complete abandonment of artistic development. Just as in Athens the abandonment of conscription is contemporaneous with the foundation of the schools of philosophy, so in Sparta the claims of barrack-life drove out the gentler arts of peace. The wars of Sparta prior to 550 had been wars of conquest. At first she had had to fight for her own existence against her neighbours of Argos and Arcadia. After the synœcism in 800 she was able to turn her attention to expansion, and in the next fifty years absorbed the length and breadth of Laconia and started on the struggle with Argos for Cynuria. Then came the first Messenian War, followed by the complete appropriation of the country and enslavement of its inhabitants. Then expansion abroad, a sure sign of over-population and prosperity, especially as a more settled regime was now introduced by Lycurgus. Sparta, as the first state to get a good constitution, expanded rapidly until she could fight against Argos on the field of Hysieæ (probably in 660 B.C.) with nearly half the Peloponnese at her back. The results of this battle were disaster, the loss of Thyreatis, a considerable setback to Spartan power, and soon afterwards the second Messenian War. More domestic troubles intervened, but soon after 620 Sparta was again able to start on a career of expansion. She occupied the Sciritis and much of Arcadia, though long wars against Tegea continued to baffle her armies. The reigns of Leon and Hegesicles were for all that successful on the whole. . . . But until Tegea was conquered there was no possibility of getting at Argos, and Tegea’s resistance was obstinate. The result, as we have seen, was a volte-face in Spartan policy. A treaty was made, and Tegea became an ally. The beginnings of a confederation had replaced the policy of direct conquest, and no new territory was again added to the Laconian heritage.”—G. Dickins, *Growth of Spartan policy* (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, v. 32, 1912).

ALSO IN: A. Holm, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 16.

c. B.C. 750-A.D. 30.—Influence of Greek religion on Rome.—Its value in the history of religious development.—Change of Greek sentiment during Macedonian era. See RELIGION: B.C. 750-A.D. 30; B.C. 600-A.D. 30: Value of Greek religion; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Secularism.

B.C. 7th-4th centuries.—Status of Greek women. See WOMAN’S RIGHTS: B.C. 600-300.

B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries.—Plato and Aristotle.—Greek pedagogy. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece.

B.C. 525.—Power in Egypt. See EGYPT: B.C. 670-525.

B.C. 500-493.—Rising of Ionians of Asia Minor against Persians.—Aid rendered to them by Athenians.—Provocation to Darius.—The Ionic Greek cities, or states, of Asia Minor, first subjugated by Cræsus, king of Lydia, in the sixth century B.C., were swallowed up, in the same century, with all other parts of the dominion of Cræsus, in the conquests of Cyrus, and formed part of the great Persian empire, to the sovereignty of which Cambyses and Darius succeeded. In the reign of Darius there occurred a revolt of the Ionians (about 502 B.C.), led by the city of Miletus, under the influence of its governor, Aristagoras. Aristagoras, coming over to Greece in person, sought aid against the Persians, first at Sparta, where it was denied to him, and then, with better success, at Athens. . . . So the Athenians, being

persuaded, made a decree to send twenty ships to help the men of Ionia, and appointed one Melanthius, a man of reputation among them, to be captain. These ships were the beginning of trouble both to the Greeks and the barbarians. . . . When the twenty ships of the Athenians were arrived, and with them five ships of the Eretrians, which came, not for any love of the Athenians, but because the Milesians had helped them in the old time against the men of Chalcis, Aristagoras sent an army against Sardis, but he himself abode in Miletus. This army, crossing Mount Tmolus, took the city of Sardis without any hindrance; but the citadel they took not, for Artaphernes held it with a great force of soldiers. But though they took the city they had not the plunder of it, and for this reason. The houses in Sardis were for the most part built of reeds, and such as were built of bricks had their roofs of reeds; and when a certain soldier set fire to one of these houses, the fire ran quickly from house to house till the whole city was consumed. And while the city was burning, such Lydians and Persians as were in it, seeing they were cut off from escape (for the fire was in all the outskirts of the city), gathered together in haste to the market-place. Through this market-place flows the river Pactolus, which comes down from Mount Tmolus, having gold in its sands, and when it has passed out of the city it flows into the Hermus, which flows into the sea. Here then the Lydians and Persians were gathered together, being constrained to defend themselves. And when the men of Ionia saw their enemies how many they were, and that these were preparing to give battle, they were stricken with fear, and fled out of the city to Mount Tmolus, and thence, when it was night, they went back to the sea. In this manner was burnt the city of Sardis, and in it the great temple of the goddess Cybele, the burning of which temple was the cause, as said the Persians, for which afterwards they burnt the temples in Greece. Not long after came a host of Persians from beyond the river Halys; and when they found that the men of Ionia had departed from Sardis, they followed hard upon their track, and came up with them at Ephesus. And when the battle was joined, the men of Ionia fled before them. Many indeed were slain, and such as escaped were scattered, every man to his own city. After this the ships of the Athenians departed, and would not help the men of Ionia any more, though Aristagoras besought them: to stay. Nevertheless the Ionians ceased not from making preparations of war against the king, making to themselves allies, some by force and some by persuasion, as the cities of the Hellespont and many of the Carians and the island of Cyprus. For all Cyprus, save Amathus only, revolted from the king under Onesilus, brother of King Gorgus. . . . Meanwhile the Persians took not a few cities of the Ionians and Æolians. But while they were busy about these, the Carians revolted from the king; whereupon the captains of the Persians led their army into Caria, and the men of Caria came out to meet them; and they met them at a certain place which is called the White Pillars, near to the river Mæander. Then there were many counsels among the Carians, whereof the best was this, that they should cross the river and so contend with the Persians, having the river behind them, that so there being no escape for them if they fled, they might surpass themselves in courage. But this counsel did not prevail. Nevertheless, when the Persians had crossed the Mæander, the Carians fought against them, and the battle was exceeding long and fierce. But at the last the Carians were vanquished, being

overborne by numbers, so that there fell of them ten thousand. And when they that escaped—for many had fled to Labranda, where there is a great temple of Zeus and a grove of plane trees—were doubting whether they should yield themselves to the king or depart altogether from Asia, there came to their help the men of Miletus with their allies. Thereupon the Carians, putting away their doubts altogether, fought with the Persians a second time, and were vanquished yet more grievously than before. But on this day the men of Miletus suffered the chief damage. And the Carians fought with the Persians yet again a third time; for, hearing that these were about to attack their cities one by one, they laid an ambush for them on the road to Pedasus. And the Persians, marching by night, fell into the ambush, and were utterly destroyed, they and their captains.—Herodotus, *Story of the Persian War* (version of A. J. Church), *ch. 2*.—See also PERSIA: B.C. 521-493; ATHENS: B.C. 492-479; B.C. 501-490.

B.C. 5th century.—Military organization in Athens and Sparta. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.

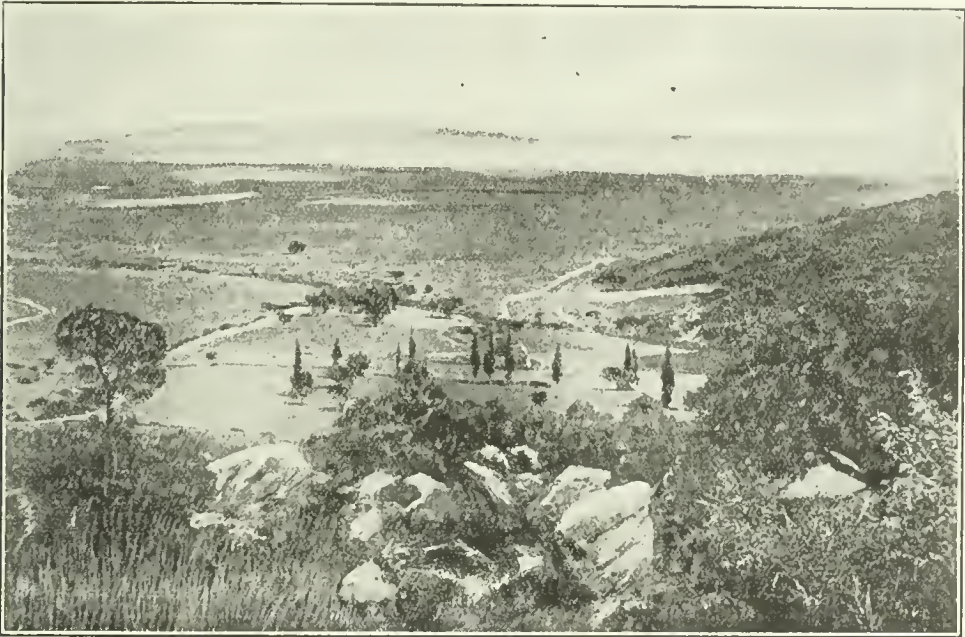
B.C. 5th-3rd centuries.—Balance of power. See BALANCE OF POWER: Ancient Greece.

B.C. 496.—War of Sparta with Argos.—Overwhelming reverse of the Argives. See ARGOS: B.C. 496-421.

B.C. 492-491.—Wrath of the Persian king against Athens.—Failure of his first expedition of invasion.—Submission of "Medizing" Greek states.—Coercion of Ægina.—Enforced union of Hellas.—Headship of Sparta recognized.—The assistance given by Athens to the Ionian revolt stirred the wrath of the Persian monarch very deeply, and when he had put down the rebellion he prepared to chastise the audacious and insolent Greeks. "A great fleet started from the Hellespont, with orders to sail round the peninsula of Mt. Athos to the Gulf of Therma, while Mardonius advanced by land. His march was so harassed by the Thracians that when he had effected the conquest of Macedonia his force was too weak for any further attempt. The fleet was overtaken by a storm off Mt. Athos, on whose rocks 300 ships were dashed to pieces, and 20,000 men perished. Mardonius returned in disgrace to Asia with the remnant of his fleet and army. This failure only added fury to the resolution of Darius. While preparing all the resources of his empire for a second expedition, he sent round heralds to the chief cities of Greece, to demand the tribute of earth and water as signs of his being their rightful lord. Most of them submitted; Athens and Sparta alone ventured on defiance. Both treated the demand as an outrage which annulled the sanctity of the herald's person. . . . The submission of Ægina, the chief maritime state of Greece, and the great enemy of Athens, entailed the most important results. The act was denounced by Athens as treason against Greece, and the design was imputed to Ægina of calling in the Persians to secure vengeance on her rival. The Athenians made a formal complaint to Sparta against the 'Medism' of the Æginetans; a charge which is henceforth often repeated both against individuals and states. The Spartans had recently concluded a successful war with Argos, the only power that could dispute her supremacy in Peloponnesus; and now this appeal from Athens, the second city of Greece, at once recognized and established Sparta as the leading Hellenic state. In that character, her king Cleomenes undertook to punish the Medizing party in Ægina 'for the common good of Greece'; but he was met by proofs of the intrigues of his colleague Demaratus

in their favour. . . . Cleomenes obtained his deposition on a charge of illegitimacy, and a public insult from his successor Leotychides drove Demaratus from Sparta. Hotly pursued as a 'Medist,' he effected his escape to Darius, whose designs against Athens and Sparta were now stimulated by the councils of their exiled sovereigns, Hippias and Demaratus. Meanwhile, Cleomenes and his new colleague returned to Ægina, which no longer resisted, and having seized ten of her leading citizens, placed them as hostages in the hands of the Athenians. Ægina was thus effectually disabled from throwing the weight of her fleet into the scale of Persia: Athens and Sparta, suspending their political jealousies, were united when their disunion would have been fatal: their conjunction drew after them most of the lesser states: and so the Greeks stood forth for the first time as a nation prepared to act in unison under the leadership of Sparta (B.C. 491). That city retained her proud

to their city, but met them at their landing-place. They were few in number—only 10,000, with 1,000 more from the grateful city of Plataea, which Athens had protected against Thebes. They had sent to Sparta for aid, but a superstition delayed the march of the Spartans and they came the day after the battle. "On the morning of the seventeenth day of the month of Meragition (September 12th), when the supreme command according to the original order of succession fell to Miltiades, he ordered the army to draw itself up according to the ten tribes. . . . The troops had advanced with perfect steadiness across the trenches and palisadings of their camp, as they had doubtless already done on previous days. But as soon as they had approached the enemy within a distance of 5,000 feet they changed their march to a double-quick pace, which gradually rose to the rapidity of a charge, while at the same time they raised the war-cry with a loud voice. When the Persians saw



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position till it was forfeited by the misconduct of her statesmen."—P. Smith, *History of the world: Ancient*, v. 1, ch. 13.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 492-479; B.C. 479.

ALSO IN: G. W. Cox, *Greeks and the Persians*, ch. 6.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 4, ch. 36.

B.C. 490.—Persian Wars: Marathon.—The second and greater expedition launched by Darius against the Greeks sailed from the Cilician coast in the summer of the year 490 B.C. It was under the command of two generals,—a Mede, named Datis, and the king's nephew, Artaphernes. It made the passage safely, destroying Naxos on the way, but sparing the sacred island and temple of Delos. Its landing was on the shores of Eubœa, where the city of Eretria was easily taken, its inhabitants dragged into slavery, and the first act of Persian vengeance accomplished. The expedition then sailed to the coast of Attica and came to land on the plain of Marathon, which spreads along the bay of that name. The Athenians waited for no nearer approach of the enemy

these men rushing down from the heights, they thought they beheld madmen: they quickly placed themselves in order of battle, but before they had time for an orderly discharge of arrows the Athenians were upon them, ready in their excitement to begin a closer contest, man against man in hand-to-hand fight, which is decided by personal courage and gymnastic agility, by the momentum of heavy-armed warriors, and by the use of lance and sword. Thus the well-managed and bold attack of the Athenians had succeeded in bringing into play the whole capability of victory which belonged to the Athenians. Yet the result was not generally successful. The enemy's centre stood firm. . . . But meanwhile both wings had thrown themselves upon the enemy; and after they had effected a victorious advance, the one on the way to Rhamnus, the other towards the coast, Miltiades . . . issued orders at the right moment for the wings to return from the pursuit, and to make a combined attack upon the Persian centre in its rear. Hereupon the rout speedily became general, and in their flight

the troubles of the Persians increased; . . . they were driven into the morasses and there slain in numbers."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.—The Athenian dead, when gathered for the solemn obsequies, numbered 192; the loss of the Persians was estimated by Herodotus at 6,400.—Herodotus, *History*, bk. 6.

ALSO IN: E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen decisive battles*, ch. 1.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 2, ch. 14.—G. W. Cox, *Greeks and Persians*, ch. 6.—E. Bulwer Lytton, *Athens: Its rise and fall*, bk. 2, ch. 5.

B.C. 489-480.—Æginetan War.—Naval power of Athens created by Themistocles. See ATHENS: B.C. 490-485.

B.C. 481-479.—Congress at Corinth.—Hellenic union against Persia.—Headship of Sparta.—"When it was known in Greece that Xerxes was on his march into Europe, it became necessary to take measures for the defence of the country. At the instigation of the Athenians, the Spartans, as the acknowledged leaders of Hellas and head of the Peloponnesian confederacy, called on those cities which had resolved to uphold the independence of their country to send plenipotentiaries to a congress at the Isthmus of Corinth. When the envoys assembled, a kind of Hellenic alliance was formed under the presidency of Sparta, and its unity was confirmed by an oath, binding the members to visit with severe penalties those Greeks who, without compulsion, had given earth and water to the envoys of Xerxes. This alliance was the nearest approach to a Hellenic union ever seen in Greece; but though it comprised most of the inhabitants of the Peloponnesus, except Argos and Achæa, the Megarians, Athenians, and two cities of Bœotia, Thespiæ and Plataea, were the only patriots north of the Isthmus. Others, who would willingly have been on that side, such as the common people of Thessaly, the Phocians and Locrians, were compelled by the force of circumstances to 'medize.' From the time at which it met in the autumn or summer of 481 to the autumn of 480 B.C., the congress at the Isthmus directed the military affairs of Greece. It fixed the plan of operations. Spies were sent to Sardis to ascertain the extent of the forces of Xerxes; envoys visited Argos, Crete, Corcyra, and Syracuse, in the hope, which proved vain, of obtaining assistance in the impending struggle. As soon as Xerxes was known to be in Europe, an army of 10,000 men was sent to hold the pass of Tempe, but afterwards, on the advice of Alexander of Macedon, this barrier was abandoned; and it was finally resolved to await the approaching forces at Thermopylæ and Artemisium. The supreme authority, both by land and sea, was in the hands of the Spartans; they were the natural leaders of any army which the Greeks could put into the field, and the allies refused to follow unless the ships also were under their charge. . . . When hostilities were suspended, the congress re-appears, and the Greeks once more meet at the Isthmus to apportion the spoil and adjudge the prizes of valour. In the next year we hear of no common plan of operations, the fleet and army seeming to act independently of each other; yet we observe that the chiefs of the medizing Thebans were taken to the Isthmus (Corinth) to be tried, after the battle of Plataea. It appears then that, under the stress of the great Persian invasion, the Greeks were brought into an alliance or confederation; and for the two years from midsummer 481 to midsummer 479 a congress continued to meet, with more or less interruption, at the Isthmus, consisting of plenipotentiaries from the various cities. This congress directed the affairs of the nation, so far as they were in any way connected with the Persian inva-

sion. When the Barbarians were finally defeated, and there was no longer any alarm from that source, the congress seems to have discontinued its meeting. But the alliance remained; the cities continued to act in common, at any rate, so far as naval operations were concerned, and Sparta was still the leading power."—E. Abbott, *Perciles and the golden age of Athens*, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: C. O. Müller, *History and antiquity of the Doric race*, v. 1, app. 4.

B.C. 480.—Persian Wars: Thermopylæ.—"Now when tidings of the battle that had been fought at Marathon [490 B.C.], reached the ears of King Darius, the son of Hystaspes, his anger against the Athenians," says Herodotus, "which had been already roused by their attack on Sardis, waxed still fiercer, and he became more than ever eager to lead an army against Greece. Instantly he sent off messengers to make proclamation through the several states that fresh levies were to be raised, and these at an increased rate; while ships, horses, provisions and transports were likewise to be furnished. So the men published his commands; and now all Asia was in commotion by the space of three years." But before his preparations were completed Darius died. His son Xerxes, who ascended the Persian throne, was cold to the Greek undertaking and required long persuasion before he took it up. When he did so, however, his preparations were on a scale more stupendous than those of his father, and consumed nearly five years. It was not until ten years after Marathon that Xerxes led from Sardis a host which Herodotus computes at 1,700,000 men, besides half a million more which manned the fleet he had assembled. [He bridged the Hellespont, and in order to avoid the dangers of the promontory of Mt. Athos he cut a canal through the Isthmus.] . . . The Greeks had determined at first to make their stand against the invaders in Thessaly, at the vale of Tempe; but they found the post untenable and were persuaded, instead, to guard the narrower pass of Thermopylæ. It was there that the Persians, arriving at Trachis, near the Malian gulf, found themselves faced by a small body of Greeks. The spot is thus described by Herodotus: "As for the entrance into Greece by Trachis, it is, at its narrowest point, about fifty feet wide. This, however, is not the place where the passage is most contracted; for it is still narrower a little above and a little below Thermopylæ. At Alpeni, which is lower down than that place, it is only wide enough for a single carriage; and up above, at the river Phoenix, near the town called Anthela, it is the same. West of Thermopylæ rises a lofty and precipitous hill, impossible to climb, which runs up into the chain of Cæta; while to the east the road is shut in by the sea and by marshes. In this place are the warm springs, which the natives call 'The Cauldrons'; and above them stands an altar sacred to Hercules. A wall had once been carried across the opening; and in this there had of old times been a gateway. . . . King Xerxes pitched his camp in the region of Malis called Trachinia, while on their side the Greeks occupied the straits. . . . The Greeks who at this spot awaited the coming of Xerxes were the following:—from Sparta, 300 men-at-arms; from Arcadia, 1,000 Tegeans and Mantinæans, 500 of each people; 120 Orchomenians, from the Arcadian Orchomenus; and 1,000 from other cities; from Corinth, 400 men; from Phlius, 200; and from Mycenæ 80. Such was the number from the Peloponnesus. There were also present, from Bœotia, 700 Thespians and 400 Thebans. Besides these troops, the Locrians of Opus and the Phocians had obeyed the call of

their countrymen, and sent the former all the force they had, the latter 1,000 men. . . . The various nations had each captains of their own under whom they served; but the one to whom all especially looked up, and who had the command of the entire force, was the Lacedæmonian, Leonidas. . . . The force with Leonidas was sent forward by the Spartans in advance of their main body, that the sight of them might encourage the allies to fight, and hinder them from going over to the Medes, as it was likely they might have done had they seen Sparta backward. They intended presently, when they had celebrated the Carneian festival, which was what now kept them at home, to leave a garrison in Sparta, and hasten in full force to join the army. The rest of the allies also intended to act similarly; for it happened that the Olympic festival fell exactly at this same period. None of them looked to see the contest at Thermopylæ decided so speedily." For two days Leonidas and his little army held the pass against the Persians. Then, there was found a traitor, a man of Malis, who betrayed to Xerxes the secret of a pathway across the mountains, by which he might steal into the rear of the post held by the Greeks. A thousand Phocians had been stationed on the mountain to guard this path; but they took fright when the Persians came upon them in the early dawn, and fled without a blow. When Leonidas learned that the way across the mountain was open to the enemy he knew that his defense was hopeless, and he ordered his allies to retreat while there was yet time. But he and his Spartans remained, thinking it "unseemly" to quit the post they had been specially sent to guard. The Thespians remained with them, and the Thebans—known partisans at heart of the Persians—were forced to stay. The latter deserted when the enemy approached; the Spartans and the Thespians fought and perished to the last man.—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by Rawlinson), *bk.* 7.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 492-479.

ALSO IN: E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 1.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, *v.* 4, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 40.

B.C. 480.—Persian Wars: Artemisium.—On the approach of the great invading army and fleet of Xerxes, the Greeks resolved to meet the one at the pass of Thermopylæ and the other at the northern entrance of the Eubæan channel. The Persian fleet, after suffering heavily from a destructive storm on the Magnesian coast, reached Aphetæ, opposite Artemisium, at the mouth of the Pagasæan gulf. Notwithstanding its losses, it still vastly outnumbered the armament of the Greeks, and feared nothing but the escape of the latter. But, in the series of conflicts which ensued, the Greeks were generally victorious and proved their superior naval genius. They could not, however, afford the heavy losses which they sustained, and, upon hearing of the disaster at Thermopylæ and the Persian possession of the all-important pass, they deemed it necessary to retreat.—W. Mitford, *History of Greece*, *v.* 2, *ch.* 8, *sect.* 4.—"Thermopylæ and Artemisium display most clearly the strategy of the two contending sides. It did not perhaps demand much knowledge or much intelligence to fix upon Thermopylæ as a point of defence. It would be difficult to mention any other great highway in the world on which a defensive position so strong by nature is afforded. It was, on the other hand, a great strategic blunder on the part of Sparta that, having sent a small force to the pass, she did not later forward reinforcements. That was no doubt part of a still greater strategic blunder,—the desire to concentrate the defence at the Isthmus. The three days' fighting at Thermopylæ proved conclusively that, had an adequate force been present,

there, the army of Xerxes would in all probability never have carried the pass. Sparta and the Peloponnese generally neither did, nor wished to, appreciate the immense strength of the position."—G. B. Grundy, *Great Persian War*, *p.* 541.

B.C. 480.—Persian Wars: Salamis.—Leonidas and his Spartan band having perished vainly at Thermopylæ, in their heroic attempt to hold the pass against the host of Xerxes, and the Greek ships at Artemisium having vainly beaten their overwhelming enemies, the whole of Greece north of the isthmus of Corinth lay completely at the mercy of the invader. The Thebans and other false-hearted Greeks joined his ranks, and saved their own cities by helping to destroy their neighbors. The Plataeans, the Thespians and the Athenians abandoned their homes in haste, conducted their families, and such property as they might snatch away, to the nearer islands and to places of refuge in Peloponnesus. The Greeks of Peloponnesus rallied in force to the isthmus and began there the building of a defensive wall. Their fleet, retiring from Artemisium, was drawn together, with some re-enforcements, behind the island of Salamis, which stretches across the entrance to the bay of Eleusis, off the inner coast of Attica, near Athens. Meantime the Persians had advanced through Attica, entered the deserted city of Athens, taken the Acropolis, which a small body of desperate patriots resolved to hold, had slain its defenders and burned its temples. Their fleet had also been assembled in the bay of Phalerum, which was the more easterly of the three harbors of Athens. At Salamis the Greeks were in dispute. At length Themistocles, the Athenian leader, a man of fertile brain and overbearing resolution, determined the question by sending a secret message to Xerxes that the Greek ships had prepared to escape from him. This brought down the Persian fleet upon them at once and left them no chance for retreat. Of the memorable fight which ensued (Sept. 20 B.C. 480) the following is a part of the description given by Herodotus: "Far the greater number of the Persian ships engaged in this battle were disabled, either by the Athenians or by the Eginetans. For as the Greeks fought in order and kept their line, while the barbarians were in confusion and had no plan in anything that they did, the issue of the battle could scarce be other than it was. Yet the Persians fought far more bravely here than at Eurbæa, and indeed surpassed themselves; each did his utmost through fear of Xerxes, for each thought that the king's eye was upon himself. . . . When the rout of the barbarians began, and they sought to make their escape to Phalerum, the Eginetans, awaiting them in the channel, performed exploits worthy to be recorded. Through the whole of the confused struggle the Athenians employed themselves in destroying such ships as either made resistance or fled to shore; while the Eginetans dealt with those which endeavoured to escape down the straits; so that the Persian vessels were no sooner clear of the Athenians than straightway they fell into the hands of the Eginetan squadron. . . . Such of the barbarian vessels as escaped from the battle fled to Phalerum, and there sheltered themselves under the protection of the land army. . . . Xerxes, when he saw the extent of his loss, began to be afraid lest the Greeks might be counselled by the Ionians, or without their advice might determine, to sail straight to the Hellespont and break down the bridges there, in which case he would be blocked up in Europe and run great risk of perishing. He therefore made up his mind to fly."—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by Rawlinson), *v.* 4, *bk.* 8, *sect.* 85-97.—"The results

of Salamis were immediate. The defeat and moral disorganization of the Persian fleet made it incapable of maintaining its position on the west side of the Ægean, though in point of material damage, relative to numbers, it is probable that it had not suffered more severely than the fleet which had been opposed to it. Its departure withdrew, as it were, the keystone of the Persian plan of invasion; and the whole edifice of design fell into ruin which was incapable of repair, though the wreck was not so complete as to render it impossible for Mardonius to make use of the materials in the ensuing year. The blow had fallen on the indispensable half of the invading force; and, bereft of the aid of the fleet, the land army could no longer maintain itself in a country whose natural resources were wholly inadequate to supply its wants."—G. B. Grundy, *Great Persian War*, p. 545.

ALSO IN: E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 4, pt. 2, ch. 4.—W. W. Goodwin, *Battle of Salamis (Papers of the American school at Athens, v. 1)*.

B.C. 479.—Persian Wars: Platæa.—When Xerxes, after the defeat of his fleet at Salamis, fled back to Asia with part of his disordered host, he left his lieutenant, Mardonius, with a still formidable army, to repair the disaster and accomplish, if possible, the conquest of the Greeks. The Spartans and other Peloponnesians who had promised support to the Athenians were slow in coming, but they came in strong force at last. Mardonius fell back into Boeotia, where he took up a favorable position in a plain on the left bank of the Asopus, near Platæa. This was in September, 479 B.C. According to Herodotus, he had 300,000 "barbarian" troops and 50,000 Greek allies. The opposing Greeks, who followed him to the Asopus, were 110,000 in number. The two armies watched one another for more than ten days, unwilling to offer battle because the omens were on both sides discouraging. At length the Greeks undertook a change of position and Mardonius, mistaking this for a movement of retreat, led his Persians on a run to attack them. It was a fatal mistake. The Spartans, who bore the brunt of the Persian assault, soon convinced the deluded Mardonius that they were not in flight, while the Athenians dealt roughly with his Theban allies. Of the remainder of the 300,000 of Mardonius' host, only 3,000, according to Herodotus, outlived the battle. It was the end of the Persian invasions of Greece.—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by Rawlinson), bk. 9.

ALSO IN: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 5, pt. 2, ch. 42.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 16.—G. W. Cox, *History of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 7.

In celebration of the victory an altar to Zeus was erected and consecrated by the united Greeks with solemn ceremonies, a quintennial festival, called the Feast of Liberty, was instituted at Platæa, and the territory of the Platæans was declared sacred and inviolable, so long as they should maintain the appointed sacrifices and funeral honors to the dead. But these agreements did not avail to protect the Platæans when the subsequent Peloponnesian War broke out, and they stood faithfully among the allies of Athens. "The last act of the assembled army was the expedition against Thebes, in order, according to the obligation incumbent upon them, to take revenge on the most obstinate ally of the national enemy. Eleven days after the battle Pausanias appeared before the city and demanded the surrender of the party-leaders, responsible for the policy of Thebes. Not until the siege had lasted twenty days was the surrender ob-

tained. . . . Timagenidas and the other leaders of the Thebans were executed as traitors against the nation, by order of Pausanias, after he had dismissed the confederate army."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.

B.C. 479.—Persian Wars: Mycale.—The same day, in September, 479 B.C., on which the Greeks at Platæa destroyed the army of Mardonius, witnessed an almost equal victory won by their compatriots of the fleet, on the coast of Asia Minor. The Persian fleet, to avoid a battle with them, had retreated to Mycale on the narrow strait between the island of Samos and the mainland, where a land-army of 60,000 men was stationed at the time. Here they drew their ships on shore and surrounded them with a rampart. The Greeks, under Leotychides the Lacedæmonian, landed and attacked the whole combined force. The Ionians in the Persian army turned against their masters and helped to destroy them. The rout was complete and only a small remnant escaped to reach Sardis, where Xerxes was still lingering.—Herodotus, *History* (tr. by Rawlinson), bk. 9.—"The best strategy on the Greek side in this year's campaigning was carried out by the commanders of the fleet; especially by Zanthippos, the admiral of the Athenian contingent. The caution displayed in waiting in the Western Ægean until the Ionians gave some signal was probably wise. A move eastward before receipt of information as to the real state of affairs on the Asian coast, as to the numbers and position of the Persian fleet, and especially as to the whereabouts of the Phœnician section of it, might have unduly hazarded the results of the success already obtained on the western coast of the Ægean. On arrival at Samos, a bold and successful attack was made on the Persian force at Mycale. It was necessary to crush the main resistance before further operations were attempted. After this the Spartans went home, while the Athenians continued the campaign by a strategic move of the highest importance. In attacking Sastos and the Thracian Chersonese, they assailed the all-important tête-du-pont in Europe, and by their success rendered Persian operations from the Asiatic side to the north of the Propontis difficult, if not impossible, as the Chersonese lay on the flank of any advance from the direction of the Bosphorus towards Macedonia and Greece. The command of the Hellespont was also the first step towards the freeing of the great trade route to the corn regions on the north coast of the Euxine."—G. B. Grundy, *Great Persian War*, pp. 51-53.—"The land tactics were naturally dictated by the armament of the two opponents, the nature of the forces at their disposal, and the ground on which at different times they came into conflict. The composition of the Persian army placed it at a considerable disadvantage in such a country as Greece. This disadvantage was much emphasized by the fact that, during that of 479 also, it was the attacking force in a country which greatly favoured the defence. Not until Mardonius took up the defensive in Boeotia was it possible for the Persians to choose ground favourable to the nature of their force. Against a foe of greatly superior mobility, the policy of the defensive was the only one which the Greek army could adopt with any suitability to his force. The difference between the two armies was, that the Greek had everything to hope from close fighting, the Persian from the opposite; and in every case throughout the war in which reverse or disaster fell on either party, it was due to its having been forced, either by the nature of the position or by some tactical error of its own, into adopting that method of combat



ATTACK OF THE GREEKS AT MARATHON  
(After painting by A. G. M. Roehgrösse)





for which it was least adapted. If it were not a misnomer to speak of that which is manifest as a secret, it might be said that this is the whole secret of tactical success and failure in the war. It was illustrated in the most marked manner in all the three great land battles, at Thermopylae, at Plataea, at Mykale. The circumstances at Thermopylae forced the Persians to adopt tactics involving close fighting. But it is noticeable that the Persian soldiers and the Persian commanders did not altogether take the same view on this question. The commanders evidently thought that they must win the pass by mere pressure of numbers, and be prepared to sustain losses, absolutely great, but, considering the immense disparity between the two armies, relatively small. Probably also circumstances rendered it all-important for them to force the pass as soon as possible; and this could, owing to the nature of the ground, only be accomplished by close fighting. But the Persian soldier, soon after the attack began, discovered that he was no match for the better-armed Greek, and proceeded, on his own responsibility, to adopt tactics less dangerous to himself, an assault with missiles, to which the enemy could make no effective reply. This is clearly shown by the tactics which the Spartans were compelled to resort to, the charge forward, and then a pretended retreat, with a view to drawing the enemy on. But the circumstances were such that neither side could absolutely force the other to adopt disadvantageous tactics; nor even with whips and other severe methods of encouragement could the Persian commanders induce their men to a sustained assault at close quarters. In the last battle on the mound the Greeks were not cut down, but buried beneath a shower of missiles. Plataea affords three very remarkable examples of the contrast of tactics. It was a battle of mistakes, in which each side conspicuously failed to play its own game. At the first position of the Greeks the Persian threw away his excellent cavalry in an attack on a necessarily limited portion of the front of the unshaken Greek heavy infantry, where outflanking was impossible, and only close fighting could be really effective. The result was inevitable. In the second position, the Greeks made the mistake of seeking to maintain an advanced position in the plain, after the object with which they had in all probability attained it, a surprise flank attack on the Persians, had miscarried. In view of the excessive immobility of their army as compared with that of the enemy, the danger that their line of communication with the passes, short though it was, might be cut, was evident; and their position permitted the cavalry to harass them on all sides by that form of attack to which it was best adapted. The mistake cost them dearly; it ought to have cost them the battle. On the retirement of the Greeks from this position Mardonius threw away the success he had gained by hurling his light-armed infantry against the large Spartan contingent. By doing so he threw away all the advantage which he possessed by reason of his mobile force, of cavalry. The tactics of Pausanias were excellent, but could only have been possible with a highly trained force, such as that which he had under his command. He held his men back, despite a galling shower of missiles, until, as it would seem, the foremost ranks of the enemy behind their barrier of shields were deprived of all power of retreating by the pressure of the ranks in rear of them. Then he charged; and in the close fighting which ensued, the Persian had no chance, despite that quality of conspicuous bravery in which he appears never to

have been lacking. The same inevitable issue of battle resulted from the close fighting at the assault on the Persian stockade. At Mykale the Persians again made the mistake of meeting the Greeks in that form of battle which was most eminently favourable to the more heavily armed man, though in that case the extreme embarrassment of the circumstances in which they found themselves may have necessitated the line of action which they adopted."—*Ibid.*, pp. 553-555.

ALSO IN: M. D. Volonakis, *Island of Roses and her eleven sisters*.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 16.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 5, pt. 2, ch. 42.

B.C. 479-478.—Athens the first state of Hellas.—Fortification of Peiræus.—Transfer of naval leadership from Sparta to Athens. See ATHENS: B.C. 479; B.C. 470-476; B.C. 478.

B.C. 478-477.—Reduction of Byzantium.—Recall of Pausanias.—Alienation of the Asiatic Greeks from Sparta.—Closer union with Athens.—Withdrawal of the Spartans from the war.—Formation of the Delian confederacy.—"Sestos had fallen: but Byzantium and the Thracian Doriskos, with Eion on the Strymon and many other places on the northern shores of the Egean, were still held by Persian garrisons, when, in the year after the battle of Plataiai, Pausanias, as commander of the confederate fleet, sailed with 20 Peloponnesian and 30 Athenian ships to Kypros (Cyprus) and thence, having recovered the greater part of the island, to Byzantium. The resistance here was as obstinate perhaps as at Sestos; but the place was at length reduced, and Sparta stood for the moment at the head of a triumphant confederacy. It was now in her power to weld the isolated units, which made up the Hellenic world, into something like an organised society, and to kindle in it something like national life. . . . But she had no statesman capable, like Themistokles, of seizing on a golden opportunity, while in her own generals she found her greatest enemies." Pausanias "was, it would seem, dazzled by Persian wealth and enamoured of Persian pleasures. . . . The reports of this significant change in the behaviour of Pausanias led to his recall. He was put on his trial; but his accusers failed to establish the personal charges brought against him while his Medism also was dismissed as not fully proved. The suspicion, however, was so strong that he was deprived of his command. . . . All these events were tending to alienate the Asiatic Greeks and the islanders of the Egean from a state which showed itself incapable of maintaining its authority over its own servants." Even before the recall of Pausanias, "the Asiatic Greeks intreated Aristides the Athenian commander to admit them into direct relations with Athens; and the same change of feeling had passed over all the non-medising Greek states with the exception of the Peloponnesian allies of Sparta. In short, it had become clear that all Hellas was divided into two great sections, the one gravitating as naturally to Sparta, the great land power, as the other gravitated to Athens with her maritime preponderance. When therefore a Spartan commission headed by Dorkis arrived with a small force to take the place of Pausanias, they were met by passive resistance where they had looked for submission; and their retirement from the field in which they were unable to compel obedience left the confederacy an accomplished fact."—G. W. Cox, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 8.—This confederacy of the Asiatic Greeks with Athens, now definitely organized, is known as the Confederacy of Delos, or the Delian League. "To Athens, as decidedly the prepon-

derant power, both morally and materially, was of necessity, and also with free good-will, assigned the headship and chief control of the affairs and conduct of the alliance; a position that carried with it the responsibility of the collection and administration of a common fund, and the presidency of the assemblies of delegates. As time went on and circumstances altered, the terms of confederation were modified in various instances; but at first the general rule was the contribution, not only of money or ships, but of actual personal service. . . . We have no precise enumeration of the allies of Athens at this early time, but the course of the history brings up the mention of many. . . . Crete was never directly affected by these events, and Cyprus was also soon to be left aside; but otherwise all the Greek islands of the Aegean northwards—except Melos, Thera, Aegina, and Cythera—were contributory, including Euboea; as were the cities on the coasts of Thrace and the Chalcidic peninsula from the Macedonian boundary to the Hellespont; Byzantium and various cities on the coasts of the Propontis, and less certainly of the Euxine; the important series of cities on the western coast of Asia Minor—though apparently with considerable exceptions—Aeolian, Ionian, Dorian, and Carian, as far as Caunus at least on the borders of Lycia, if not even round to the Chelidonian isles. The sacred island of Delos was chosen as the depository of the common treasure and the place of meeting of the contributors. Apart from its central convenience and defensibility as an island, and the sanctity of the reunion, . . . it was a traditional centre for solemn reunions of Ionians from either side of the Aegean. . . . At the distinct request of the allies the Athenians appointed Aristides to superintend the difficult process of assessing the various forms and amounts of contribution. . . . The total annual amount of the assessment was the large sum of 460 talents (£112,125), and this perhaps not inclusive of, but only supplementary to, the costly supply of equipped ships.”—W. W. Lloyd, *Age of Pericles*, v. 1, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: E. Abbott, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 6, 8.

B.C. 477-462.—Advancing democracy of Athens.—Sustentation of the Commons from the Confederate treasury.—Stripping of power from the Areopagus. See ATHENS: B.C. 477; B.C. 472-462.

B.C. 477-461.—Athens as the head of the Delian League.—Triumph of anti-Spartan policy at Athens and approach of war.—Ostracism of Cimon.—“Between the end of the Persian war and the year 464 B. C., Sparta had sunk from the champion of the whole of Hellas to the half-discredited leader of the Peloponnese only. Athens, on the contrary, had risen from a subordinate member of the league controlled by Sparta to be the leader and almost the mistress of a league more dangerous than that over which Sparta held sway. Sparta unquestionably entertained towards Athens the jealous hatred of a defeated rival. By what steps Athens was increasing her control over the Delian League, and changing her position from that of a president to that of an absolute ruler [see ATHENS: B. C. 478; B. C. 477], will be explained. . . . She was at the same time prosecuting the war against Persia with conspicuous success. Her leader in this task was Cimon. . . . Under his guidance the Athenian fleet struck Persia blow on blow. . . . In 466, near the mouth of the Eurymedon in Pamphylia, the Persian fleet was destroyed, and after a fierce struggle her land forces also were defeated with very great slaughter. It was long

before Persian influence counted for anything again on the waters of the Mediterranean. Cimon, with the personal qualities of Aristides, had obtained the successes of Themistocles. Opposition to Cimon was not wanting. The Athenian democracy had entered on a path that seemed blocked by his personal supremacy. And now the party of advancing democracy possessed a leader, the ablest and greatest that it was ever to possess. Pericles was about thirty years of age. . . . He was related to great families through both father and mother, and to great families that had championed the democratic side. His father Zanthippus had prosecuted Miltiades, the father of Cimon. . . . To lead the party of advanced democracy was to attack Cimon, against whom he had hereditary hostility. . . . When in 465 Thasos rebelled from Athens, defeat was certain unless she found allies [see also ATHENS: B. C. 466-454]. She applied to Sparta for assistance. Athens and Sparta were still nominally allies, for the creation of the Delian League had not openly destroyed the alliance that had subsisted between them since the days of the Persian war. But the Thasians hoped that Sparta's jealousy of Athens might induce her to disregard the alliance. And they reckoned rightly. The Spartan fleet was so weak that no interference upon the sea could be thought of, but if Attica were attacked by land the Athenians would be forced to draw off some part of their armament from Thasos. Sparta gave a secret promise that this attack should be made. But before they could fulfil their promise their own city was overwhelmed by a terrible earthquake. . . . Only five houses were left standing, and twenty thousand of the inhabitants lost their lives. . . . Archidamus's presence of mind saved them from even greater danger than that of earthquake. The disaster seemed to the masses of Helots that surrounded Sparta clear evidence of the wrath of the god Poseidon. . . . The Helots seized arms, therefore, and from all sides rushed upon Sparta. Thanks to Archidamus's action, they found the Spartans collected and ready for battle. They fell back upon Messenia, and concentrated their strength round Mount Ithome, the natural Acropolis of that district. . . . All the efforts of their opponents, never very successful in sieges, failed to dislodge them. At last, in 464, Sparta had to appeal to her allies for help against her own slaves; and, as Athens was her ally, she appealed to Athens. Should the help be granted? . . . Cimon advocated the granting of Sparta's demand with all his strength. . . . But there was much to be said on the other side, and it was said by Ephialtes and Pericles. The whole of Pericles's foreign policy is founded on the assumption that union between Athens and Sparta was undesirable and impossible. In everything they stood at opposite poles of thought. . . . Cimon gained the vote of the people. He went at once with a force of four thousand heavy-armed soldiers to Ithome. Athenian soldiers enjoyed a great reputation for their ability in the conduct of sieges; but, despite their arrival, the Helots in Ithome still held out. And soon the Spartans grew suspicious of the Athenian contingent. The failure of Sparta was so clearly to the interest of Athens that the Spartans could not believe that the Athenians were in earnest in trying to prevent it; and at last Cimon was told that Sparta no longer had need of the Athenian force. The insult was all the more evident because none of the other allies were dismissed. Cimon at once returned to Athens [see MESSENIAN WARS]. . . . On his return he still opposed those complete democratic changes that Pericles and Ephialtes were at this time in-

roducing into the state. A vote of ostracism was demanded. The requisite number of votes fell to Cimon, and he had to retire into exile (461). . . . His ostracism doubtless allowed the democratic changes, in any case inevitable, to be accomplished without much opposition or obstruction, but it also deprived Athens of her best soldier at a time when she needed all her military talent. [See ATHENS: B.C. 462-461.] For Athens could not forget Sparta's insult. In 461 she renounced the alliance with her that had existed since the Persian wars; and that this rupture did not mean neutrality was made clear when, immediately afterwards, Athens contracted an alliance with Argos, always the enemy and now the dangerous enemy of Sparta, and with the Thessalians, who also had grounds of hostility to Sparta. Under such circumstances war could not be long in coming."—A. J. Grant, *Greece in the Age of Pericles*, ch. 5.

Also IN: Plutarch, *Cimon*; *Pericles*.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 3, ch. 17.—E. Abbott, *Pericles and the golden age of Athens*, ch. 5-6.

B.C. 461-431.—Golden Age of Greece.—Greatness of the Athenian empire under Pericles. See ATHENS: B.C. 466-431; B.C. 461-431; EUROPE: Ancient; Greek civilization; CAPITALISM: In antiquity; SLAVERY: Greek.

B.C. 460-458.—Disastrous expedition to Egypt.—Defeat at Tanagra.—Athenian triumph over Corinth. See ATHENS: B.C. 460-455; B.C. 458.

B.C. 458-456.—Alliance of Corinth and Ægina against Athens and Megara.—Athenian victories.—Siege and conquest of Ægina.—Spartans in Bœotia.—Defeat of Athens at Tanagra.—Success at Ænophyta.—Humiliation of Thebes.—Athenian ascendancy restored.—Crippled by the great earthquake of 464 B.C., and harassed by the succeeding Messenian War, "nothing could be done, on the part of Sparta, to oppose the establishment and extension of the separate alliance between Athens and Argos; and accordingly the states of Northern Peloponnesus commenced their armaments against Athens on their own account, in order to obtain by force what formerly they had achieved by secret intrigues and by pushing forward Sparta. To stop the progress of the Attic power was a necessary condition of their own existence; and thus a new warlike group of states formed itself among the members of the disrupted confederation. The Corinthians entered into a secret alliance with Ægina and Epidaurus, and endeavored to extend their territory and obtain strong positions beyond the Isthmus at the expense of Megara. This they considered of special importance to them, inasmuch as they knew the Megareans, whose small country lay in the midst between the two hostile alliances, to be allies little deserving of trust. . . . The fears of the Corinthians were realized sooner than they had anticipated. The Megareans, under the pressure of events, renounced their treaty obligations to Sparta, and joined the Attico-Argive alliance. . . . The passes of the Geranea, the inlets and outlets of the Doric peninsula, now fell into the hands of the Athenians; Megara became an outwork of Athens; Attic troops occupied its towns; Attic ships cruised in the Gulf of Corinth, where harbors stood open to them at Pegæ and Ægosthena. The Athenians were eager to unite Megara as closely as possible to themselves, and for this reason immediately built two lines of walls, which connected Megara with its port Nisæa, eight stadia off, and rendered both places impregnable to the Peloponnesians. This extension of the hostile power to the boundaries of the Isthmus, and into the waters of the western gulf, seemed to the maritime cities of

Peloponnesus to force them into action. Corinth, Epidaurus, and Ægina commenced an offensive war against Athens—a war which opened without having been formally declared; and Athens unhesitatingly accepted the challenge thrown out with sufficient distinctness in the armaments of her adversaries. Myronides, an experienced general and statesman, . . . landed with an Attic squadron near Haliæis (where the frontiers of the Epidaurians and Argives met), and here found a united force of Corinthians, Epidaurians, and Æginetans awaiting him. Myronides was unsuccessful in his campaign. A few months later the hostile fleets met off the island of Cecryphalæa, between Ægina and the coast of Epidaurus. The Athenians were victorious, and the struggle now closed round Ægina itself. Immediately opposite the island ensued a second great naval battle. Seventy of the enemy's ships fell into the hands of the Athenians, whose victorious fleet without delay surrounded Ægina. The Peloponnesians were fully aware of the importance of Ægina to them. Three hundred hoplites came to the relief of the island, and the Corinthians marched across the Geranea into Megaris to the relief of Ægina. . . . Myronides advanced to meet the Corinthians with troops composed of those who had passed the age of military service or not yet reached it. In the first fight he held his ground; when the hostile forces returned for the second time, they were routed with tremendous loss. Megara was saved, and the energy of the Athenians had been most splendidly established. In attestation of it the sepulchral pillars were erected in the Ceramicus, on which were inscribed the names of the Athenian soldiers who had fallen in one and the same year (Ol. lxxx 3; B.C. 458-7) off Cyprus, in Egypt, Phœnicia, Haliæis, Ægina, and Megara. A fragment of this remarkable historical document is preserved to this day. While thus many years' accumulation of combustible materials had suddenly broken out into a flame of the fiercest war in Central Greece, new complications also arose in the north. The Thebans, who had suffered so deep a humiliation, believed the time to have arrived when the events of the past were forgotten, and when they could attain to new importance and power. In opposition to them the Phocians put forth their strength. . . . After the dissolution of the Hellenic Confederation, and the calamities which had befallen the Spartans, the Phocians thought they might venture an attack upon the Dorian tetrapolis, in order to extend their frontiers in this direction. . . . For Sparta it was a point of honor not to desert the primitive communities of the Dorian race. She roused herself to a vigorous effort, and, notwithstanding all her losses and the continuance of the war in Messenia, was able to send 11,500 men of her own troops and those of the confederates across the Isthmus before the Athenians had time to place any obstacles in their way [457 B.C.]. The Phocians were forced to relinquish their conquests. But when the Spartan troops were about to return home across the Isthmus they found the mountain-passes occupied by Athens, and the Gulf of Corinth made equally insecure by the presence of hostile ships. Nothing remained for the Lacedæmonians but to march into Bœotia, where their presence was welcome to Thebes. They entered the valley of the Asopus, and encamped in the territory of Tanagra, not far from the frontiers of Attica. Without calculating the consequences, the Athenians had brought themselves into an extremely dangerous situation. . . . Their difficulties increased when, contemporaneously, evil signs of treasonable plots made their appearance in the interior of the

city. . . . Thus, then, it was now necessary to contend simultaneously against foes within and foes without, to defend the constitution as well as the independence of the state. Nor was the question merely as to an isolated attack and a transitory danger; for the conduct of the Spartans in Bœotia clearly showed that it was now their intention to restore to power Thebes . . . because they were anxious to have in the rear of Athens a state able to stop the extension of the Attic power in Central Greece. This intention could be best fulfilled by supporting Thebes in the subjugation of the other Bœotian cities. For this purpose the Peloponnesians had busily strengthened the Theban, i. e., the oligarchical party, in the whole of the country, and encircled Thebes itself with new fortifications. Thebes was from a country town to become a great city, an independent fortified position, and a base for the Peloponnesian cause in Central Greece. Hence Athens could not have found herself threatened by a more dangerous complication. The whole civic army accordingly took the field, amounting, together with the Argives, and other allies, to 14,000 men, besides a body of Thessalian cavalry. In the low ground by the Asopus below Tanagra the armies met. . . . For a long time the result was doubtful; till in the very thick of the battle the cavalry went over to the enemy, probably at the instigation of the Læconian party. This act of treason decided the day in favor of Sparta, although patriotic Athenians would never consent to count this among the battles lost by Athens. . . . But whatever the Spartans did, they did only by halves: they concluded a truce for four months, and quitted the ground. The Athenians, on the other hand, had no intention of allowing a menacing power to establish itself on the frontiers of their country. Without waiting for the return of the fair season, they crossed Mount Parnes two months after the battle, before any thoughts of war were entertained in Bœotia; Myronides, who was in command, defeated the Theban army which was to defend the valley of the Asopus, near Ænophyta. This battle with one blow put an end to all the plans of Thebes; the walls of Tanagra were razed. Myronides continued his march from town to town; everywhere the existing governments were overthrown, and democratic constitutions established with the help of Attic partisans. . . . Thus, after a passing humiliation, Athens was soon more powerful than ever, and her sway extended as far as the frontiers of the Phocians. Nay, during the same campaign she extended her military dominion as far as Locris. . . . Meanwhile the Æginetans also were gradually losing their power of resistance. . . . The Peloponnesian confederation was shaken to its very foundations; and Sparta was still let and hindered by the Messenian revolt, while the Athenians were able freely to dispose of their military and naval forces."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 2.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 460-458.

ALSO IN: G. W. Cox, *History of Greece*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 9.—Thucydides, *Peloponnesian War* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 1, sect. 107-108.

B. C. 449-446.—Cimon's last expedition.—Peace with Persia. See ATHENS: B. C. 449-446.

B. C. 449-445.—Quarrel of Delphians and Phocians.—Interference of Sparta and Athens.—Revolt of Eubœa and Megara.—Thirty Years' Truce.—In 440 B. C. "on occasion of a dispute between the Delphians and the Phocians as to which should have the care of the temple and its treasures, the Lacedæmonians sent an army, and gave them to the former; but as soon as they were gone, Pericles led thither an Athenian army, and

put the Phocians in possession. . . . Eubœa was now (Ol. 83, 3) [B. C. 466] in revolt; and while Pericles was at the head of an army reducing it, the party in Megara adverse to Athens rose and massacred all the Athenian garrisons except that of Nisæa. Corinthians, Sicyonians, and Epidaurians came to their aid; and the Peloponnesians, led by one of the Spartan kings, entered and wasted the plain of Eleusis. Pericles led back his army from Eubœa, but the enemy was gone; he then returned and reduced that island, and having expelled the people of Hestîæa, gave their lands to Athenian colonists; and the Athenians, being unwilling to risk the chance of war with the Dorian confederacy, gladly formed (Ol. 83, 4) [445 B. C.] a truce for thirty years, surrendering Nisæa and Pegæ, and withdrawing a garrison which they had in Træzen, and ceasing to interfere in Achaia."—T. Keightley, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 1.—"The Athenians saw themselves compelled to give up their possessions in Peloponnesus, especially Achaia, as well as Træzene and Pagæ, an important position for their communication with the peninsula. Even Nisæa was abandoned. Yet these losses, sensibly as they affected their influence upon the Grecian continent, were counterbalanced by a concession still more significant, the acknowledgment of the Delian League. It was left open to states and cities which were members of neither confederacy to join either at pleasure. These events happened in B. C. 445—the revolt of Megara and Eubœa, the invasion of Pleistoanax, the reconquest of Eubœa, and the conclusion of the treaty, which assumed the form of an armistice for thirty years. Great importance must be attributed to this settlement, as involving an acknowledgment which satisfied both parties and did justice to the great interests at stake on either side. If Athens renounced some of her possessions, the sacrifice was compensated by the fact that Sparta recognized the existence of the naval supremacy of Athens, and the basis on which it rested. We may perhaps assume that the compromise between Pericles and Pleistoanax was the result of the conviction felt by both these leading men that a fundamental dissociation of the Peloponnesian from the Delian League was a matter of necessity. The Spartans wished to be absolutely supreme in the one, and resigned the other to the Athenians."—L. von Ranke, *Universal history: Oldest historical group of nations and the Greeks*, ch. 7, sect. 2.—See also ATHENS: B. C. 447; B. C. 446-445.

ALSO IN: E. B. Lytton, *Athens: Its rise and fall*, bk. 5, ch. 1.

B. C. 435-432.—Causes of the Peloponnesian War.—"In B. C. 431 the war broke out between Athens and the Peloponnesian League, which, after twenty-seven years, ended in the ruin of the Athenian empire. It began through a quarrel between Corinth and Kerkyra [or Corcyra], in which Athens assisted Kerkyra. A congress was held at Sparta; Corinth and other States complained of the conduct of Athens, and war was decided on. The real cause of the war was that Sparta and its allies were jealous of the great power that Athens had gained. A far greater number of Greek States were engaged in this war than had ever been engaged in a single undertaking before. States that had taken no part in the Persian war were now fighting on one side or the other. Sparta was an oligarchy, and the friend of the nobles everywhere; Athens was a democracy, and the friend of the common people; so that the war was to some extent a struggle between these classes all over Greece."—C. A. Fyffe, *History of Greece (History primer)*, ch. 5.—"The Peloponnesian War was a

protracted struggle, and attended by calamities such as Hellas had never known within a like period of time. Never were so many cities captured and depopulated—some by Barbarians, others by Hellenes themselves fighting against one another; and several of them after their capture were repopled by strangers. Never were exile and slaughter more frequent, whether in the war or brought about by civil strife. . . . There were earthquakes unparalleled in their extent and fury, and eclipses of the sun more numerous than are recorded to have happened in any former age; there were also in some places great droughts causing famines, and lastly the plague which did immense harm and destroyed numbers of the people. All these calamities fell upon Hellas simultaneously with the war, which began when the Athenians and Peloponnesians violated the thirty years' truce concluded by them after the recapture of Euboea. Why they broke it and what were the grounds of quarrel I will first set forth, that in time to come no man may be at a loss to know what was the origin of this great war. The real though unavowed cause I believe to have been the growth of the Athenian power, which terrified the Lacedæmonians and forced them into war."—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), *bk. 1, sect. 23*.—The quarrel between Corinth and Corcyra out of which, as an immediate excitement, the Peloponnesian War grew, concerned "the city of Epidamnus, known afterwards, in the Roman times, as Dyrrachium, hard by the modern Durrazzo—a colony founded by the Korkyreans on the coast of Illyria, in the Ionic gulf, considerably to the north of their own island." The oligarchy of Epidamnus, driven out by the people, had allied themselves with the neighboring Illyrians and were harassing the city. Corcyra refused aid to the latter when appealed to, but Corinth (of which Corcyra was itself a colony) promptly rendered help. This involved Corinth and Corcyra in hostilities, and Athens gave support to the latter.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, *v. 3, bk. 4*.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, *ch. 19-30*.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, *v. 5, pt. 2, ch. 47-48*.

**B.C. 432.**—Great sea-fight of the Corinthians with the Corcyrians and Athenians.—Revolt of Potidæa.—"The Corinthians lost no time in bringing the quarrel to an issue. . . . The conflict which ensued exhibited a scene of confusion which the Athenian seamen probably regarded with infinite contempt. After a hard struggle the Korkyraians routed the right wing of the enemy's fleet, and chasing it to its camp on shore, lost time in plundering it and burning the tents. For this folly they paid a terrible price. The remainder of the Korkyraian fleet, borne down by sheer force of numbers, was put to flight, and probably saved from utter ruin only by the open interference of the Athenians, who now dashed into the fight without scruple, and came into direct conflict with the Corinthians. The latter were now resolved to press their advantage to the utmost. Sailing through the enemy's ships, they applied themselves to the task not of taking prizes, but of indiscriminate slaughter, to which not a few of their own people fell victims. After this work of destruction, they conveyed their disabled ships with their dead to Sybota, and, still unwearied, advanced again to the attack, although it was now late in the day. Their Paian, or battle cry, had already rung through the air, when they suddenly backed water. Twenty Athenian ships had come into sight, and the Corinthians, supposing them to be only the vanguard of a larger force, hastily retreated. . . . So ended

the greatest sea-fight in which Hellenes had thus far contended not with barbarians but with their own kinsfolk."—G. W. Cox, *General history of Greece*, *bk. 3, ch. 1*.—"The evils of this imprudent interference of the Athenians began now to be seen. In consequence of the Corcyrian alliance, the Athenians issued an order to Potidæa, a Macedonian town acknowledging their supremacy, to demolish its walls; to send back certain officers whom they had received from Corinth, and to give hostages for their good conduct. Potidæa, although an ally of Athens, had originally been a colony of Corinth, and thus arose the jealousy which occasioned these harsh and peremptory orders. Symptoms of universal hostility to Athens now appeared in the states around. . . . The Potidæans, however, deputed ambassadors to Athens to deprecate the harsh orders which had been sent them; but in the mean time to prepare for the worst, they also sent messengers to Sparta entreating support, where they met deputies from Corinth and Megara. By these loud and general complaints Sparta was at length roused to head the conspiracy against Athens, and the universal flames of war shortly afterwards broke forth throughout Greece." The revolt of Potidæa followed immediately; the Corinthians placed a strong force in the town, under Aristæus, and the Athenians sent an army under Phormion to lay siege to it.—*Early history of Greece (Encyclopædia Metropolitana)*, *p. 283*.

**B.C. 432-431.**—Charges brought by Corinth against Athens.—Hearing and the Congress at Sparta.—Decision for war.—Theban attack on Plataea.—Peloponnesian War begun.—The Corinthians "invited deputies from the other states of the confederacy to meet them at Sparta, and there charged the Athenians with having broken the treaty, and trampled on the rights of the Peloponnesians. The Spartans held an assembly to receive the complaints of their allies, and to discuss the question of peace or war. . . . The congress decided on the war; but the confederacy was totally unprepared for commencing hostilities, and though the necessary preparations were immediately begun and vigorously prosecuted, nearly a year elapsed before it was ready to bring an army into the field. In the meantime embassies were sent to Athens with various remonstrances and demands, for the double purpose of amusing the Athenians with the prospect of peace, and of multiplying pretenses for war. . . . Still, war had been only threatened, not declared; and peaceful intercourse, though not wholly free from distrust, was still kept up between the subjects of the two confederacies. But early in the following spring, B.C. 431, in the fifteenth year of the Thirty Years' Truce, an event took place which closed all prospects of peace, precipitated the commencement of war, imbittered the animosity of the contending parties, and prepared some of the most tragical scenes of the ensuing history. In the dead of night the city of Plataea was surprised by a body of 300 Thebans, commanded by two of the great officers called Bæotarchs. They had been invited by a Plataean named Naclidæ, and others of the same party, who hoped, with the aid of the Thebans, to rid themselves of their political opponents, and to break off the relation in which their city was standing to Athens, and transfer its alliance to Thebes. The Thebans, foreseeing that a general war was fast approaching, felt the less scruple in strengthening themselves by this acquisition, while it might be made with little cost and risk. The gates were unguarded, as in time of peace, and one of them was secretly opened to the

invaders, who advanced without interruption into the marketplace. . . . The Plataeans, who were not in the plot, imagined the force by which their city had been surprised to be much stronger than it really was, and, as no hostile-treatment was offered to them, remained quiet, and entered into a parley with the Thebans. In the course of these conferences they gradually discovered that the number of the enemy was small, and might be easily overpowered. . . . Having barricaded the streets with wagons, and made such other preparations as they thought necessary, a little before daybreak they suddenly fell upon the Thebans. The little band made a vigorous defence, and twice or thrice repulsed the assailants; but . . . they at length lost their presence of mind, and took to flight. . . . On the first entrance of the Thebans into Plataea, a messenger had been despatched to Athens with the intelligence, and the Athenians had immediately laid all the Bœotians in Attica under arrest; and when another messenger brought the news of the victory gained by the Plataeans, they sent a herald to request that they would reserve the prisoners for the disposal of the Athenians. The herald came too late to prevent the execution; and the Athenians, foreseeing that Plataea would stand in great need of defence, sent a body of troops to garrison it, supplied it with provisions, and removed the women and children and all persons unfit for service in a siege. After this event it was apparent that the quarrel could only be decided by arms. Plataea was so intimately united with Athens, that the Athenians felt the attack which had been made on it as an outrage offered to themselves, and prepared for immediate hostilities. Sparta, too, instantly sent notice to all her allies to get their contingents ready by an appointed day for the invasion of Attica."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 1, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 1, 2.

B.C. 431-429.—Peloponnesian War: How Hellas was divided.—Lacedæmon, Athens and their Allies.—Peloponnesian invasions of Attica.—Plague at Athens.—Surrender of Potidæa to the Athenians.—"All Hellas was excited by the coming conflict between her two chief cities. . . . The feeling of mankind was strongly on the side of the Lacedæmonians; for they professed to be the liberators of Hellas. . . . The general indignation against the Athenians was intense; some were longing to be delivered from them, others fearful of falling under their sway. . . . The Lacedæmonian confederacy included all the Peloponnesians with the exception of the Argives and the Achæans—they were both neutral; only the Achæans of Pellene took part with the Lacedæmonians at first; afterwards all the Achæans joined them. Beyond the borders of the Peloponnese, the Megarians, Phocians, Locrians, Bœotians, Ambraciots, Leucadians, and Anactorians were their allies. Of these the Corinthians, Megarians, Sicyonians, Pelenians, Eleans, Ambraciots, and Leucadians provided a navy, the Bœotians, Phocians, and Locrians furnished cavalry, the other states only infantry. The allies of the Athenians were Chios, Lesbos, Plataea, the Messenians of Naupactus, the greater part of Acarnania, Corcyra, Zacynthus, and cities in many other countries which were their tributaries. There was the maritime region of Caria, the adjacent Dorian peoples, Ionia, the Hellespont, the Thracian coast, the islands that lie to the east within the line of Peloponnesus and Crete, including all the Cyclades with the exception of Melos and Thera. Chios, Lesbos and Corcyra furnished a navy; the rest, land forces and money.

Thus much concerning the two confederacies, and the character of their respective forces. Immediately after the affair at Plataea the Lacedæmonians determined to invade Attica, and sent round word to their Peloponnesian and other allies, bidding them equip troops and provide all things necessary for a foreign expedition. The various states made their preparations as fast as they could, and at the appointed time, with contingents numbering two-thirds of the forces of each, met at the Isthmus." Then followed the invasion of Attica, the siege of Athens, the plague in the city . . . and the success won by the indomitable Athenians, at Potidæa, in the midst of their sore distress.—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), v. 1, bk. 2, sect. 8-70.—See also ATHIENS: B.C. 431; 431-429; 428-427.

ALSO IN: E. Abbott, *Pericles and the Golden Age of Athens*, ch. 13-15.

B.C. 430.—Funeral oration of Pericles.—During the winter of the year B.C. 431-430, "in accordance with an old national custom, the funeral of those who first fell in this war was celebrated by the Athenians at the public charge. The ceremony is as follows: Three days before the celebration they erect a tent in which the bones of the dead are laid out, and every one brings to his own dead any offering which he pleases. At the time of the funeral the bones are placed in chests of cypress wood, which are conveyed on hearses; there is one chest for each tribe. They also carry a single empty litter decked with a pall for all whose bodies are missing, and cannot be recovered after the battle. The procession is accompanied by any one who chooses, whether citizen or stranger, and the female relatives of the deceased are present at the place of interment and make lamentation. The public sepulchre is situated in the most beautiful spot outside the walls; there they always bury those who fall in war; only after the battle of Marathon the dead, in recognition of their pre-eminent valour, were interred on the field. When the remains have been laid in the earth, some man of known ability and high reputation, chosen by the city, delivers a suitable oration over them; after which the people depart. Such is the manner of interment; and the ceremony was repeated from time to time throughout the war. Over those who were the first buried Pericles was chosen to speak. At the fitting moment he advanced from the sepulchre to a lofty stage, which had been erected in order that he might be heard as far as possible by the multitude, and spoke as follows:—"Most of those who have spoken here before me have commended the lawgiver who added this oration to our other funeral customs; it seemed to them a worthy thing that such an honour should be given at their burial to the dead who had fallen on the field of battle. But I should have preferred that, when men's deeds have been brave, they should be honoured in deed only, and with such an honour as this public funeral, which you are now witnessing. Then the reputation of many would not have been imperilled on the eloquence or want of eloquence of one, and their virtues believed or not as he spoke well or ill. For it is difficult to say neither too little nor too much; and even moderation is apt not to give the impression of truthfulness. The friend of the dead who knows the facts is likely to think that the words of the speaker fall short of his knowledge and of his wishes; another who is not so well informed, when he hears of anything which surpasses his own powers, will be envious and will suspect exaggeration. Mankind are tolerant of the praises of others so long as each hearer thinks that he can do as well or nearly as well himself,

but, when the speaker rises above him, jealousy is aroused and he begins to be incredulous. However, since our ancestors have set the seal of their approval upon the practice, I must obey, and to the utmost of my power shall endeavor to satisfy the wishes and beliefs of all who hear me. I will speak of our ancestors, for it is right and becoming that now, when we are lamenting the dead, a tribute should be paid to their memory. There has never been a time when they did not inhabit this land, which by their valour they have handed down from generation to generation, and we have received from them a free state. But if they were worthy of praise, still more were our fathers who added to their inheritance, and after many a struggle transmitted to us their sons this great empire. And we ourselves assembled here to-day, who are still most of us in the vigour of life, have chiefly done the work of improvement, and have richly endowed our city with all things, so that she is sufficient for herself both in peace and war. Of the military exploits by which our various possessions were acquired, or of the energy with which we or our fathers drove back the tide of war, Hellenic or Barbarian, I will not speak; for the tale would be long and is familiar to you. But before I praise the dead, I should like to point out by what principles of action we rose to power, and under what institutions and through what manner of life our empire became great. For I conceive, that such thoughts are not unsuited to the occasion, and that this numerous assembly of citizens and strangers may profitably listen to them. Our form of government does not enter into rivalry with the institutions of others. We do not copy our neighbours, but are an example to them. It is true that we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike in their private disputes, the claim of excellence is also recognised; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as the reward of merit. Neither is poverty a bar, but a man may benefit his country whatever be the obscurity of his condition. There is no exclusiveness in our public life, and in our private intercourse we are not suspicious of one another, nor angry with our neighbour if he does what he likes; we do not put on sour looks at him which, though harmless, are not pleasant. While we are thus unconstrained in our private intercourse, a spirit of reverence pervades our public acts; we are prevented from doing wrong by respect for authority and for the laws, having an especial regard to those which are ordained for the protection of the injured as well as to those unwritten laws which bring upon the transgressor of them the reprobation of the general sentiment. And we have not forgotten to provide for our weary spirits many relaxations from toil; we have regular games and sacrifices throughout the year; at home the style of our life is refined; and the delight which we daily feel in all these things helps to banish melancholy. Because of the greatness of our city the fruits of the whole earth flow in upon us; so that we enjoy the goods of other countries as freely as of our own. Then, again, our military training is in many respects superior to that of our adversaries. Our city is thrown open to the world, and we never expel a foreigner or prevent him from seeing or learning anything of which the secret if revealed to an enemy might profit him. We rely not upon management or trickery, but upon our own hearts and hands. And in the

matter of education, whereas they from early youth are always undergoing laborious exercises which are to make them brave, we live at ease, and yet are equally ready to face the Lacedæmonians come into Attica not by themselves, but with their whole confederacy following; we go alone into a neighbour's country; and although our opponents are fighting for their homes and we on a foreign soil we have seldom any difficulty in overcoming them. Our enemies have never yet felt our united strength; the care of a navy divides our attention, and on land we are obliged to send our own citizens everywhere. But they, if they meet and defeat a part of our army, are as proud as if they had routed us all, and when defeated they pretend to have been vanquished by us all. If then we prefer to meet danger with a light heart but without laborious training, and with a courage which is gained by habit and not enforced by law, are we not greatly the gainers? Since we do not anticipate the pain, although, when the hour comes, we can be as brave as those who never allow themselves to rest; and thus too our city is equally admirable in peace and in war. For we are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. Wealth we employ, not for talk and ostentation, but when there is a real use for it. To avow poverty with us is no disgrace; the true disgrace is in doing nothing to avoid it. An Athenian citizen does not neglect the state because he takes care of his own household; and even those of us who are engaged in business have a very fair idea of politics. We alone regard a man who takes no interest in public affairs, not as a harmless, but as a useless character; and if few of us are originators, we are all sound judges of a policy. The great impediment to action is, in our opinion, not discussion, but the want of that knowledge which is gained by discussion preparatory to action. For we have a peculiar power of thinking before we act and of acting too, whereas other men are courageous from ignorance but hesitate upon reflection. And they are surely to be esteemed the bravest spirits who, having the clearest sense both of the pains and pleasures of life, do not on that account shrink from danger. In doing good, again, we are unlike others; we make our friends by conferring, not by receiving favours. Now he who confers a favour is the firmer friend, because he would fain by kindness keep alive the memory of an obligation; but the recipient is colder in his feelings, because he knows that in requiting another's generosity he will not be winning gratitude but only paying a debt. We alone do good to our neighbours not upon a calculation of interest, but in the confidence of freedom and in a frank and fearless spirit. To sum up; I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, and that the individual Athenian in his own person seems to have the power of adapting himself to the most varied forms of action with the utmost versatility and grace. This is no passing and idle word, but truth and fact; and the assertion is verified by the position to which these qualities have raised the state. For in the hour of trial Athens alone among her contemporaries is superior to the report of her. No enemy who comes against her is indignant at the reverses which he sustains at the hands of such a city; no subject complains that his masters are unworthy of him. And we shall assuredly not be without witnesses; there are mighty monuments of our power which will make us the wonder of this and of succeeding

ages; we shall not need the praises of Homer or of any other panegyrist whose poetry may please for the moment, although his representation of the facts will not bear the light of day. For we have compelled every land and every sea to open a path for our valour, and have everywhere planted eternal memorials of our friendship and of our enmity. Such is the city for whose sake these men nobly fought and died; they could not bear the thought that she might be taken from them; and every one of us who survive should gladly toil on her behalf. I have dwelt upon the greatness of Athens because I want to show you that we are contending for a higher prize than those who enjoy none of these privileges, and to establish by manifest proof the merit of these men whom I am now commemorating. Their loftiest praise has been already spoken. For in magnifying the city I have magnified them, and men like them whose virtues made her glorious. And of how few Hellenes can it be said as of them, that their deeds when weighed in the balance have been found equal to their fame! Methinks that a death such as theirs has been given the true measure of a man's worth;

a more heroic spirit although they may pray for a less fatal issue. The value of such a spirit is not to be expressed in words. Any one can discourse to you for ever about the advantages of a brave defence which you know already. But instead of listening to him I would have you day by day fix your eyes upon the greatness of Athens, until you become filled with the love of her; and when you are impressed by the spectacle of her glory reflect that this empire has been acquired by men who knew their duty and had the courage to do it; who in the hour of conflict had the fear of dishonour always present to them, and who, if ever they failed in an enterprise, would not allow their virtues to be lost to their country, but freely gave their lives to her as the fairest offering which they could present at her feast. The sacrifice which they collectively made was individually repaid to them; for they received again each one for himself a praise which grows not old, and the noblest of all sepulchres—I speak not of that in which their remains are laid, but of that in which their glory survives, and is proclaimed always and on every fitting occasion both in word and deed. For the



TEMPLE OF THESEUS, ATHENS

it may be the first revelation of his virtues, but is at any rate their final seal. For even those who come short in other ways may justly plead the valour with which they have fought for their country; they have blotted out the evil with the good, and have benefited the state more by their public services than they have injured her by their private actions. None of these men were enervated by wealth or hesitated to resign the pleasures of life; none of them put off the evil day in the hope, natural to poverty, that a man, though poor, may one day become rich. But, deeming that the punishment of their enemies was sweeter than any of these things, and that they could fall in no nobler cause, they determined at the hazard of their lives to be honourably avenged, and to leave the rest. They resigned to hope their unknown chance of happiness; but in the face of death they resolved to rely upon themselves alone. And when the moment came they were minded to resist and suffer, rather than to fly and save their lives; they ran away from the word of dishonour, but on the battle-field their feet stood fast, and in an instant, at the height of their fortune, they passed away from the scene, not of their fear, but of their glory. Such was the end of these men; they were worthy of Athens, and the living need not desire to have

whole earth is the sepulchre of famous men; not only are they commemorated by columns and inscriptions in their own country, but in foreign lands there dwells also an unwritten memorial of them, graven not on stone but in the hearts of men. Make them your examples, and esteeming courage to be freedom and freedom to be happiness, do not weigh too nicely the perils of war. The unfortunate who has no hope of a change for the better has less reason to throw away his life than the prosperous who, if he survive, is always liable to a change for the worse, and to whom any accidental fall makes the most serious difference. To a man of spirit, cowardice and disaster coming together are far more bitter than death striking him unperceived at a time when he is full of courage and animated by the general hope. Wherefore I do not now commiserate the parents of the dead who stand here; I would rather comfort them. You know that your life has been passed amid manifold vicissitudes; and that they may be deemed fortunate who have gained most honour, whether an honourable death like theirs, or an honourable sorrow like yours, and whose days have been so ordered that the term of their happiness is likewise the term of their life. I know how hard it is to make you feel this, when



the good fortune of others will too often remind you of the gladness which once lightened your hearts. And sorrow is felt at the want of those blessings, not which a man never knew, but which were a part of his life before they were taken from him. Some of you are of an age at which they may hope to have other children, and they ought to bear their sorrow better; not only will the children who may hereafter be born make them forget their own lost ones, but the city will be doubly a gainer. She will not be left desolate, and she will be safer. For a man's counsel cannot have equal weight or worth, when he alone has no children to risk in the general danger. To those of you who have passed their prime I say: "Congratulate yourselves that you have been happy during the greater part of your days; remember that your life of sorrow will not last long, and be comforted by the glory of those who are gone. For the love of honour alone is ever young, and not riches, as some say, but honour is the delight of men when they are old and useless." To you who are the sons and brothers of the departed, I see that the struggle to emulate them will be an arduous one. For all men praise the dead, and, however pre-eminent your virtue may be, hardly will you be thought, I do not say to equal, but even to approach them. The living have their rivals and detractors, but when a man is out of the way, the honour and good-will which he receives is unalloyed. And, if I am to speak of womanly virtues to those of you who will henceforth be widows, let me sum them up in one short admonition: To a woman not to show more weakness than is natural to her sex is a great glory, and not to be talked about for good or for evil among men. I have paid the required tribute, in obedience to the law, making use of such fitting words as I had. The tribute of deeds has been paid in part; for the dead have been honourably interred, and it remains only that their children should be maintained at the public charge until they are grown up: this is the solid prize with which, as with a garland, Athens crowns her sons living and dead, after a struggle like theirs. For where the rewards of virtue are greatest, there the noblest citizens are enlisted in the service of the state. And now, when you have duly lamented, every one his own dead, you may depart.' Such was the order of the funeral celebrated in this winter, with the end of which ended the first year of the Peloponnesian War."—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), v. 1, bk. 2, sect. 34-47.

**B.C. 429-427.—Peloponnesian War: Siege, capture and destruction of Plataea.**—"In the third spring of the war, the Peloponnesians changed their plan of offence. By the invasion and ravage of Attica for two following summers, the much injury had been done to the Athenians, little advantage had accrued to themselves; the booty was far from paying the expence of the expedition; the enemy, it was found, could not be provoked to risk a battle, and the great purpose of the war was little forwarded. The Peloponnesians were yet very unequal to attempt naval operations of any consequence. Of the continental dependencies of Athens none was so open to their attacks, none so completely excluded from naval protection, none so likely by its danger to superinduce that war of the field which they wished, as Plataea. Against that town therefore it was determined to direct the principal effort. . . . Under the command still of Archidamus, the confederate army accordingly entered the Plataeid, and ravage was immediately begun."—W. Mitford, *History of Greece*, v. 2, ch. 15, sect. 1.—When the blockade had endured for

more than a year, and food in the city grew scarce, about half of the defending force made a bold dash for liberty, one stormy night, scaled the walls of circumvallation, and escaped. The remainder held out until some time in the next year, when they surrendered and were all put to death, the city being destroyed. The families of the Plataeans had been sheltered at Athens before the siege began.—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 2-3.

**B.C. 429-427.—Peloponnesian War: Phormio's sea-fights.—Revolt of Lesbos.—Siege and capture of Mitylene.—Ferocious decree of Cleon reversed.**—"At the same time that Archidamus laid siege to Plataea, a small Peloponnesian expedition, under a Spartan officer named Cnemus, had crossed the mouth of the Gulf of Corinth, and joined the land forces of the Leucadians and Ambraciots. They were bent on conquering the Acarnanians and the Messenians of Naupactus, the only continental allies whom Athens possessed in Western Greece. . . . When Cnemus had been joined by the troops of Leucas and the other Corinthian towns, and had further strengthened himself by summoning to his standard a number of the predatory barbarian tribes of Epirus, he advanced on Stratus, the chief city of Acarnania. At the same time a squadron of Peloponnesian ships collected at Corinth, and set sail down the gulf towards Naupactus. The only Athenian force in these waters consisted of twenty galleys under an able officer named Phormio, who was cruising off the straits of Rhium, to protect Naupactus and blockade the Corinthian Gulf. Both by land and by sea the operations of the Peloponnesians miscarried miserably. Cnemus collected a very considerable army, but as he sent his men forward to attack Stratus by three separate roads, he exposed them to defeat in detail. . . . By sea the defeat of the Peloponnesians was even more disgraceful; the Corinthian admirals Machaon and Isocrates were so scared, when they came across the squadron of Phormio at the mouth of the gulf, that, although they mustered 47 ships to his 20, they took up the defensive. Huddling together in a circle, they shrank from his attack, and allowed themselves to be hustled and worried into the Achaian harbour of Patrae, losing several ships in their flight. Presently reinforcements arrived; the Peloponnesian fleet was raised to no less than 77 vessels, and three Spartan officers were sent on board, to compel the Corinthian admirals, who had behaved so badly, to do their best in future. The whole squadron then set out to hunt down Phormio. They found him with his 20 ships coasting along the Aetolian shore towards Naupactus, and at once set out in pursuit. The long chase separated the larger fleet into scattered knots, and gave the fighting a disconnected and irregular character. While the rear ships of Phormio's squadron were compelled to run on shore a few miles outside Naupactus, the 11 leading vessels reached the harbour in safety. Finding that he was now only pursued by about a score of the enemy—the rest having stayed behind to take possession of the stranded Athenian vessels—Phormio came boldly out of port again. His 11 vessels took 6, and sunk one of their pursuers; and then, pushing on westward, actually succeeded in recapturing most of the 9 ships which had been lost in the morning. This engagement, though it had no great results, was considered the most daring feat performed by the Athenian navy during the whole war. . . . The winter passed uneventfully, and the war seemed as far as ever from showing any signs of producing a definite result. But although the Spartan invasion of 428 B.C. had no

more effect than those of the preceding years, yet in the late summer there occurred an event so fraught with evil omens for Athens, as to threaten the whole fabric of her empire. For the first time since the commencement of hostilities, an important subject state made an endeavour to free itself by the aid of the Spartan fleet."—C. W. C. Oman, *History of Greece*, ch. 28.—"In the year after Cleon had come to the front, the oligarchs of Lesbos induced Mitylene and the other cities of the island except Methymna, to revolt [see also ATHENS: B.C. 428-427]. There was danger that all the maritime cities would follow this example. But the Peloponnesians were too slow in sending the promised aid, and the Athenians made desperate efforts to conquer the island. As a last resort (427 B.C.) the oligarchs of Mitylene armed the commons; but the latter promptly surrendered the city to Paches, the Athenian commander. Thereupon he sent the oligarchs, who alone were guilty of revolt, to Athens, and kept guard over the other Mitylenaeans, awaiting the judgment of the assembly. The Athenians were angry because the Lesbians had revolted without cause; they feared, too, for the safety of their empire and, indeed, for their own lives. Under the excitement of the moment, they decreed to kill all the men of Mitylene and to enslave the women and children. . . . Cleon, the author of this policy of terrorism toward the cities of the empire, wished to make an example of the Lesbians so that the other communities would fear to revolt. But on the next day the decree was reconsidered in the assembly [and was countermanded]. But the thousand Lesbian oligarchs at Athens were massacred. . . . In putting down this revolt, Athens passed the dangerous crisis and was again undisputed mistress of the Ægean Sea."—G. W. Botsford, *Ancient history*, pp. 165-166.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 426-422.

ALSO IN: Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 2, sect. 80-92, bk. 3, sect. 1-50.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 2.

B.C. 425.—Peloponnesian War: Spartan catastrophe at Sphacteria.—Peace pleaded for and refused by Athens.—In the seventh year of the Peloponnesian War (425 B.C.), the enterprising Athenian general, Demosthenes, obtained permission to seize and fortify a harbor on the west coast of Messenia, with a view to harassing the adjacent Spartan territory and stirring up revolt among the subjugated Messenians. The position he secured was the promontory of Pylus, overlooking the basin now called the bay of Navarino, which latter was protected from the sea by the small island of Sphacteria, stretching across its front. The seizure of Pylus created alarm in Sparta at once, and vigorous measures were taken to expel the intruders. The small force of Demosthenes was assailed, front and rear, by a strong land army and a powerful Peloponnesian fleet; but he had fortified himself with skill and stoutly held his ground, waiting for help from Athens. Meantime his assailants had landed 420 men on the island of Sphacteria, and these were mostly hoplites, or heavy-armed soldiers, from the best citizenship of Sparta. In this situation an Athenian fleet made its sudden and unexpected appearance, defeated the Peloponnesian fleet completely, took possession of the harbor and surrounded the Spartans on Sphacteria with a ring from which there was no escape. To obtain the release of these citizens the Spartans were reduced to plead for peace on almost any terms, and Athens had her opportunity to end the war at that moment with great advantage to herself. But Cleon, the demagogue, persuaded the people to refuse peace.

The beleaguered hoplites on Sphacteria were made prisoners by force, and little came of it in the end.—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 4, sect. 2-38.—Pylus remained in the possession of the Athenians until 408 B.C., when it was retaken by the Spartans.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 52.

ALSO IN: E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 2.

B.C. 424-421.—Peloponnesian War: Brasidas in Chalcidice.—Athenian defeat at Delium.—Year's truce.—Renewed hostilities.—Death of Brasidas and Cleon at Amphipolis.—Peace of Nicias.—"About the beginning of 424 B.C. Brasidas did for Sparta what Demosthenes had done for the Athenians. Just as Demosthenes had understood that the severest blow which he could inflict on Sparta was to occupy the coasts of Laconia, so Brasidas understood that the most effective method of assailing the Athenians was to arouse the allies to revolution, and by all means to aid the uprising. . . . With this small force of 1,700 hoplites, Brasidas resolved to undertake this adventurous and important expedition. He started in the spring of 424, and reached Macedonia through eastern Hellas and Thessaly. He effected the march with great daring and wisdom, and on his way he also saved Megara, which was in extreme danger from the Athenians. Reaching Macedonia and uniting forces with Perdikkas, Brasidas detached from the Athenians many cities, promising them liberty from the tyranny they suffered, and their association in the Peloponnesian alliance on equal terms. He made good these promises by great military experience and perfectly honest dealings. In December he became master of Amphipolis, perhaps the most important of all the foreign possessions of Athens. The historian Thucydides, to whom was intrusted the defense of that important town, was at Thasos when Brasidas surprised it. He hastened to the assistance of the threatened city, but did not arrive in time to prevent its capture. Dr. Thirlwall says it does not appear that human prudence and activity could have accomplished anything more under the same circumstances; yet his unavoidable failure proved the occasion of a sentence under which he spent twenty years of his life in exile, where he composed his history. . . . The revolution of the allied cities in Macedonia astonished the Athenians, who almost at the same time sustained other misfortunes. Following the advice of Kleon, instead of directing their main efforts to the endangered Chalkidike, they decided, about the middle of 424, to recover Bœotia itself, in conjunction as usual with some malcontents in the Bœotian towns, who desired to break down and democratize the oligarchical governments. The undertaking, however, was not merely unsuccessful, but attended with a ruinous defeat. . . . The Athenians suffered a complete defeat [at Delium], and were driven away with great loss. Such was the change of affairs which took place in 424 B.C. During the preceding year they could have ended the war in a manner most advantageous to them. They did not choose to do so, and were now constantly defeated. Worse still, the seeds of revolt spread among the allied cities. The best citizens, among whom Nicias was a leader, finally persuaded the people that it was necessary to come to terms of peace, while affairs were yet undecided. For, although the Athenians had suffered the terrific defeat near Delium, and had lost Amphipolis and other cities of Macedonia, they were still masters of Pylos, of Kythera, of Methone, of Nisæa, and of the Spartans captured in Sphacteria; so that there was now an equality of advantages and

of losses. Besides, the Lacedæmonians were ever ready to lay aside the sword in order to regain their men. Again, the oligarchy in Sparta envied Brasidas, and did not look with pleasure on his splendid achievements. Lately they had refused to send him any assistance whatever. The opportunity, therefore, was advantageous for the conclusion of peace. . . . Such were the arguments by which Nicias and his party finally gained the ascendancy over Kleon, and in the beginning of 423 B. C. persuaded the Athenians to enter into an armistice of one year, within which they hoped to be able to put an end to the destructive war by a lasting peace. Unfortunately, the armistice could not be carried out in Chalkidike. The cities there continued in their rebellion against the Athenians. Brasidas could not be prevailed upon to leave them unprotected in the struggle which they had undertaken, relying on his promises of assistance. The warlike party of Athens, taking advantage of this, succeeded in frustrating any definite conditions of peace. On the other hand, the Lacedæmonians, seeing that the war was continued, sent an ample force to Brasidas. This army did not succeed in reaching him, because the king of Macedonia, Perdikkas, had in the meantime become angered with Brasidas, and persuaded the Thessalians to oppose the Lacedæmonians in their passage. The year of the armistice passed, and Kleon renewed his expostulations against the incompetency of the generals who had the control of affairs in Chalkidike. . . . The Athenians decided to forward a new force, and intrusted its command to Kleon. He therefore, in August, 422 B. C., started from the Peiræus, with 1,200 hoplites, 300 horsemen, a considerable number of allies, and thirty triremes. Reaching Chalkidike, he engaged in battle against Brasidas in Amphipolis, suffered a disgraceful defeat, and was killed while fleeing. Brasidas also ended his short but glorious career in this battle, dying the death of a hero. The way in which his memory was honored was the best evidence of the deep impression that he had made on the Hellenic world. All the allies attended his funeral in arms, and interred him at the public expense, in front of the market-place of Amphipolis. . . . Thus disappeared the two foremost champions of the war—its good spirit, Brasidas, and its evil, Kleon. The party of Nicias finally prevailed at Athens, and that general soon after arranged a conference with King Pleistoanax of Sparta, who was also anxious for peace. Discussions continued during the whole autumn and winter after the battle of Amphipolis, without any actual hostilities on either side. Finally, at the beginning of the spring of 421 B. C., a peace of fifty years was agreed upon [see also ATHENS: B. C. 421]. The principal conditions of this peace, known in history as the 'peace of Nicias,' were as follows: 1. The Lacedæmonians and their allies were to restore Amphipolis and all the prisoners to the Athenians. They were further to relinquish to the Athenians Argilus, Stageirus, Acanthus, Skolus, Olynthus, and Spartolus. But, with the exception of Amphipolis, these cities were to remain independent, paying to the Athenians only the usual tribute of the time of Aristides. 2. The Athenians should restore to the Lacedæmonians Koryphasium, Kythera, Methone, Pteleum, and Atalante, with all the captives in their hands from Sparta or her allies. 3. Respecting Skione, Torone, Sermylus, or any other town in the possession of Athens, the Athenians should have the right to adopt such measures as they pleased. 4. The Lacedæmonians and their allies should restore Pânaktum to the Athenians. When these terms were submitted at Sparta to the consideration of

the allied cities, the majority accepted them. The Bœotians, Megarians, and Corinthians, however, summarily refused their consent. The Peloponnesian war was now considered to be at an end, precisely ten years from its beginning. Both the combatants came out from it terribly maimed. Sparta not only did not attain her object—the emancipation of the Hellenic cities from the tyranny of the Athenians—but even officially recognized this tyranny, by consenting that the Athenians should adopt such measures as they choose toward the allied cities. Besides, Sparta obtained an ill repute throughout Hellas, because she had abandoned the Greeks in Chalkidike, who had at her instigation revolted, and because she had also sacrificed the interests of her principal allies. . . . Athens, on the other hand, preserved intact her supremacy, for which she undertook the struggle. This, however, was gained at the cost of Attica ravaged, a multitude of citizens slain, the exhaustion of the treasury, and the increase of the common hatred."—T. T. Timayenis, *History of Greece*, v. 1, pt. 5, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 3, ch. 23.

B.C. 421-418.—Peloponnesian War: New combinations.—Argive League against Sparta.—Conflicting alliances of Athens with both.—Rising influence of Alcibiades.—War in Argos.—Spartan victory at Mantinea.—Revolution in Argos.—"All the Spartan allies in Peloponnesus and the Bœotians refused to join in this treaty [of Nicias]. The latter concluded with the Athenians only a truce of ten days, . . . probably on condition, that, if no notice was given to the contrary, it was to be constantly renewed after the lapse of ten days. With Corinth there existed no truce at all. Some of the terms of the peace were not complied with, though this was the case much less on the part of Athens than on that of Sparta. . . . The Spartans, from the first, were guilty of infamous deception, and this immediately gave rise to bitter feelings. But before matters had come to this, and when the Athenians were still in the full belief that the Spartans were honest, all Greece was startled by a treaty of alliance between Athens and Sparta against their common enemies. This treaty was concluded very soon after the peace. . . . The consequence was, that Sparta suddenly found herself deserted by all her allies; the Corinthians and Bœotians renounced her, because they found themselves given over to the Athenians, and the Bœotians perhaps thought that the Spartans, if they could but reduce the Eleans to the condition of Helots, would readily allow Bœotia to be subdued by the Athenians. Thus Argos found the means of again following a policy which ever since the time of Cleomenes it had not ventured to think of, and . . . became the centre of an alliance with Mantinea, 'which had always been opposed to the Lacedæmonians,' and some other Arcadian towns, Achaia, Elis, and some places of the Acte. The Arcadians had dissolved their union, the three people of the country had separated themselves, though sometimes they united again; and thus it happened that only some of their towns were allied with Argos. Corinth at first would listen to neither party, and chose to remain neutral; 'for although for the moment it was highly exasperated against Sparta, yet it had at all times entertained a mortal hatred of Argos, and its own interests drew it towards Sparta.' But when, owing to Sparta's dishonesty, the affairs on the coasts of Thrace became more and more complicated, when the towns refused to submit to Athens, and when it became evident that this was the

consequence of the instigations of Sparta, then the relation subsisting between the two states became worse also in Greece, and various negotiations and cavillings ensued. . . . After much delay, the Athenians and Spartans were already on the point of taking up arms against each other; but then they came to the singular agreement (Olymp. 89, 4), that the Athenians should retain possession of Pylos, but keep in it only Athenian troops, and not allow the Helots and Messenians to remain there. After this the loosened bonds between the Spartans, Corinthians, and Boeotians, were drawn more closely. The Boeotians were at length prevailed upon to surrender Panacton to the Spartans, who now restored it to the Athenians. This was in accordance with the undoubted meaning of the peace; but the Boeotians had first destroyed the place, and the Spartans delivered it to the Athenians only a heap of ruins. The Athenians justly complained, that this was not an honest restoration, and that the place ought to have been given back to them with its fortifications uninjured. The Spartans do not appear to have had honest intentions in any way. . . . While thus the alliance between Athens and Sparta, in the eyes of the world, still existed, it had in reality ceased and become an impossibility. Another alliance, however, was formed between Athens and Argos (Olymp. 89, 4) through the influence of Alcibiades, who stood in the relation of an hereditary proxenus to Argos. A more natural alliance than this could not be conceived, and by it the Athenians gained the Mantineans, Eleans, and other Peloponnesians over to their side. Alcibiades now exercised a decisive influence upon the fate of his country. . . . We generally conceive Alcibiades as a man whose beauty was his ornament, and to whom the follies of life were the main thing, and we forget that part of his character which history reveals to us. . . . Thucydides, who cannot be suspected of having been particularly partial to Alcibiades, most expressly recognises the fact, that the fate of Athens depended upon him, and that, if he had not separated his own fate from that of his native city, at first from necessity, but afterwards of his own accord, the course of the Peloponnesian war, through his personal influence alone, would have taken quite a different direction, and that he alone would have decided it in favour of Athens. This is, in fact, the general opinion of all antiquity, and there is no ancient writer of importance who does not view and estimate him in this light. It is only the moderns that entertain a derogatory opinion of him, and speak of him as an eccentric fool, who ought not to be named among the great statesmen of antiquity. . . . Alcibiades is quite a peculiar character; and I know no one in the whole range of ancient history who might be compared with him, though I have sometimes thought of Caesar. . . . Alcibiades was opposed to the peace of Nicias from entirely personal, perhaps even mean, motives. . . . It was on his advice that Athens concluded the alliance with Argos and Elis. Athens now had two alliances which were equally binding, and yet altogether opposed to each other: the one with Sparta, and an equally stringent one with Argos, the enemy of Sparta. This treaty with Argos, the Peloponnesians, etc., was extremely formidable to the Spartans; and they accordingly, for once, determined to act quickly, before it should be too late. The alliance with Argos, however, did not confer much real strength upon Athens, for the Argives were lazy, and Elis did not respect them, whence the Spartans had time again to unite themselves more closely with Corinth, Boeotia, and Megara. When, therefore, the war between the

Spartans and Argives broke out, and the former resolutely took the field, Alcibiades persuaded the Athenians to send succour to the Argives, and thus the peace with Sparta was violated in an unprincipled manner. But still no blow was struck between Argos and Sparta. . . . King Agis had set out with a Spartan army, but concluded a truce with the Argives (Olymp. 90, 2); this, however, was taken very ill at Sparta, and the Argive commanders who had concluded it were censured by the people and magistrates of Argos. Soon afterwards the war broke out again, and, when the Athenian auxiliaries appeared, decided acts of hostility commenced. The occasion was an attempt of the Mantineans to subdue Tegea: the sad condition of Greece became more particularly manifest in Arcadia, by the divisions which tore one and the same nation to pieces. The country was distracted by several parties; had Arcadia been united, it would have been invulnerable. A battle was fought (Olymp. 90, 3) in the neighbourhood of Mantinea, between the Argives, their Athenian allies, the Mantineans, and part of the Arcadians ('the Eleans, annoyed at the conduct of the Argives, had abandoned their cause'), on the one hand, and the Spartans and a few allies on the other. The Spartans gained a most decisive victory; and, although they did not follow it up, yet the consequence was, that Argos concluded peace, the Argive alliance broke up, and at Argos a revolution took place, in which an oligarchical government was instituted, and by which Argos was drawn into the interest of Sparta (Olymp. 90, 4). This constitution, however, did not last, and very soon gave way to a democratic form of government. Argos, even at this time, and still more at a later period, is a sad example of the most degenerate and deplorable democracy, or, more properly speaking, anarchy."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient history*, v. 2, lect. 49.

ALSO IN: Plutarch, *Alcibiades*.—W. Mitford, *History of Greece*, v. 3, ch. 17.

B.C. 416.—Siege and conquest of Melos by the Athenians.—Massacre of the inhabitants.—"It was in the beginning of summer 416 B. C. that the Athenians undertook the siege and conquest of the Dorian island of Melos, one of the Cyclades, and the only one, except Thera, which was not already included in their empire. Melos and Thera were both ancient colonies of Lacedaemon, with whom they had strong sympathies of lineage. They had never joined the confederacy of Delos, nor been in any way connected with Athens; but, at the same time, neither had they ever taken part in the recent war against her, nor given her any ground of complaint, until she landed and attacked them in the sixth year of the recent war. She now renewed her attempt, sending against the island a considerable force under Kleomedes and Tisias."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 56.—"They desired immediate submission on the part of Melos, any attempt at resistance being regarded as an inroad upon the omnipotence of Athens by sea. For this reason they were wroth at the obstinate courage of the islanders, who broke off all further negotiations, and thus made it necessary for the Athenians to commence a costly circumvallation of the city. The Melians even succeeded on two successive occasions in breaking through part of the wall built round them by the enemy, and obtaining fresh supplies; but no relief arrived; and they had to undergo sufferings which made the 'Melian famine' a proverbial phrase to express the height of misery; and before the winter ended the island was forced to surrender unconditionally. . . . There was no question of quarter. All the islanders

capable of bearing arms who had fallen into the hands of the Athenians were sentenced to death, and all the women and children to slavery."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 4.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 410-416.

ALSO IN: Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 5, sect. 84-116.

B.C. 415-413.—Peloponnesian War: Disastrous Athenian expedition against Syracuse.—Alcibiades a fugitive in Sparta.—Enmity to Athens. See SYRACUSE: B.C. 415-413.

B.C. 413.—Peloponnesian War: Effects and consequences of the Sicilian expedition.—Prostration of Athens.—Strengthening of Sparta.—Negotiations with the Persians against Athens.—Peloponnesian invasion of Attica.—Decelean War.—“The Sicilian expedition ended in a series of events which, to this day, it is impossible to recall without a feeling of horror. . . . Since the Persian wars it had never come to pass, that on the one side all had been so completely lost, while on the other all was won. . . . When the Athenians recovered from the first stupefaction of grief, they called to mind the causes of the whole calamity, and hereupon in passionate fury turned round upon all who had advised the expedition, or who had encouraged vain hopes of victory, as orators, prophets, or soothsayers. Finally, the general excitement passed into the phase of despair and terror, conjuring up dangers even greater and more imminent than existed in reality. The citizens every day expected to see the Sicilian fleet with the Peloponnesians appear off the harbor, to take possession of the defenceless city; and they believed that the last days of Athens had arrived. . . . Athens had risked all her military and naval resources for the purpose of overcoming Syracuse. . . . In the hopes of enormous booty and an abundance of new revenues, no expense had been spared; and the resources of the city were entirely exhausted. . . . But, far heavier than the material losses in money, ships, and men, was the moral blow which had been received by Athens, and which was more dangerous in her case than in that of any other state, because her whole power was based on the fear inspired in the subject states, so long as they saw the fleets of Athens absolutely supreme at sea. The ban of this fear had now been removed; disturbances arose in those island-states which were most necessary to Athens, and whose existence seemed to be most indissolubly blended with that of Attica,—in Eubœa, Chios, and Lesbos; everywhere the oligarchical parties raised their head, in order to overthrow the odious dominion of Athens. . . . Sparta, on the other hand, had in the course of a few months, without sending out an army or incurring any danger or losses, secured to herself the greatest advantages, such as she could not have obtained from the most successful campaign. Gylippus had again proved the value of a single Spartan man: inasmuch as in the hour of the greatest danger his personal conduct had altered the course of the most important and momentous transaction of the entire war. He was, in a word, the more fortunate successor of Brasidas. The authority of Sparta in the Peloponnesus, which the peace of Nicias had weakened, was now restored; with the exception of Argos and Elis, all her allies were on amicable terms with her; the brethren of her race beyond the sea, who had hitherto held aloof, had, by the attack made by the Athenian invasion, been drawn into the war, and had now become the most zealous and ardent allies of the Peloponnesians. . . . Moreover, the Athenians had driven the most capable of all living statesmen and commanders into the enemy's camp. No man was

better adapted than Alcibiades for rousing the slowly-moving Lacedæmonians to energetic action; and it was he who supplied them with the best advice, and with the most accurate information as to Athenian politics and localities. Lastly, the Spartans were at the present time under a warlike king, the enterprising and ambitious Agis, the son of Archidamus. . . . Nothing was now required, except pecuniary means. And even these now unexpectedly offered themselves to the Spartans, in consequence of the events which had in the meantime occurred in the Persian empire. . . . Everywhere [in that empire] sedition raised its head, particularly in Asia Minor. Pisuthnes, the son of Hystaspes, who had on several previous occasions interfered in Greek affairs, rose in revolt. He was supported by Greek soldiers, under the command of an Athenian of the name of Lycon. The treachery of the latter enabled Darius to overthrow Pisuthnes, whose son, Amorges, maintained himself by Athenian aid in Caria. After the fall of Pisuthnes, Tissaphernes and Pharnabazus appear in Asia Minor as the first dignitaries of the Great King. Tissaphernes succeeded Pisuthnes as satrap in the maritime provinces. He was furious at the assistance offered by Athens to the party of his adversary; moreover, the Great King (possibly in consequence of the Sicilian war and the destruction of the Attic fleet) demanded that the tributes long withheld by the coast-towns, which were still regarded as subject to the Persian empire, should now be levied. Tissaphernes was obliged to pay the sums according to the rate at which they were entered in the imperial budget of Persia; and thus, in order to reimburse himself, found himself forced to pursue a war policy. . . . Everything now depended for the satrap upon obtaining assistance from a Greek quarter. He found opportunities for this purpose in Ionia itself, in all the more important cities of which a Persian party existed. . . . The most important and only independent power in Ionia was Chios. Here the aristocratic families had with great sagacity contrived to retain the government. . . . It was their government which now became the focus of the conspiracy against Athens, in the first instance establishing a connection on the opposite shore with Erythræ. Hereupon Tissaphernes opened negotiations with both cities, and in conjunction with them despatched an embassy to Peloponnesus charged with persuading the Spartans to place themselves at the head of the Ionian movement, the satrap at the same time promising to supply pay and provisions to the Peloponnesian forces. The situation of Pharnabazus was the same as that of Tissaphernes. Pharnabazus was the satrap of the northern province. . . . Pharnabazus endeavored to outbid Tissaphernes in his promises; and two powerful satraps became rival suitors for the favor of Sparta, to whom they offered money and their alliance. . . . While thus the most dangerous combinations were on all sides forming against Athens, the war had already broken out in Greece. This time Athens had been the first to commence direct hostilities. . . . A Peloponnesian army under Agis invaded Attica, with the advent of the spring of B. C. 413 (Ol. xci. 3); at which date it was already to be anticipated how the Sicilian war would end. For twelve years Attica had been spared hostile invasions, and the vestiges of former wars had been effaced. The present devastations were therefore doubly ruinous; while at the same time it was now impossible to take vengeance upon the Peloponnesians by means of naval expeditions. And the worst point in the case was that they were now fully resolved, instead of recurring to their former

method of carrying on the war and undertaking annual campaigns, to occupy permanently a fortified position on Attic soil." The invaders seized a strong position at Decelea, only fourteen miles northward from Athens, on a rocky peak of Mount Parnes, and fortified themselves so strongly that the Athenians ventured on no attempt to dislodge them. From this secure station they ravaged the surrounding country at pleasure. "This success was of such importance that even in ancient times it gave the name of the Decelean War to the entire last division of the Peloponnesian War. The occupation of Decelea forms the connecting link between the Sicilian War and the Attico-Peloponnesian, which now broke out afresh. . . . Its immediate object . . . it failed to effect; inasmuch as the Athenians did not allow it to prevent their despatching a fresh armament to Sicily. But when, half a year later, all was lost, the Athenians felt more heavily than ever the burden imposed upon them by the occupation of Decelea. The city was cut off from its most important source of supplies, since the enemy had in his power the roads communicating with Eubœa. . . . One-third of Attica no longer belonged to the Athenians, and even in the immediate vicinity of the city communication was unsafe; large numbers of the country-people, deprived of labor and means of subsistence, thronged the city; the citizens were forced night and day to perform the onerous duty of keeping watch."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 4-5.

ALSO IN: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 7, ch. 61.

B.C. 413-412.—Peloponnesian War: Revolt of Chios, Miletus, Lesbos, and Rhodes from Athens.—Revolution at Samos.—Intrigues of Alcibiades for a revolution at Athens and for his own recall.—"Alcibiades . . . persuaded the Spartans to build a fleet, and send it over to Asia to assist the Ionians in revolting. He himself crossed at once to Chios with a few ships, in order to begin the revolt. The government of Chios was in the hands of the nobles; but they had hitherto served Athens so well that the Athenians had not altered the government to a democracy. Now, however, they revolted (B.C. 413). This was a heavy blow to Athens, for Chios was the most powerful of the Ionian States, and others would be sure to follow its example. Miletus and Lesbos revolted in B.C. 412. The nobles of Samos prepared to revolt, but the people were in favour of Athens, and rose against the nobles, killing 200 of them, and banishing 400 more. Athens now made Samos its free and equal ally, instead of its subject, and Samos became the head-quarters of the Athenian fleet and army. . . . The Athenians . . . had now manned a fresh navy. They defeated the Peloponnesian and Persian fleets together at Miletus, and were only kept from besieging Miletus by the arrival of a fleet from Syracuse. [This reinforcement of the enemy held them powerless to prevent a revolt in Rhodes, carried out by the oligarchs though opposed by the people.] Alcibiades had made enemies among the Spartans, and when he had been some time in Asia Minor an order came ever from Sparta to put him to death. He escaped to Tissaphernes, and now made up his mind to win back the favour of Athens by breaking up the alliance between Tissaphernes and the Spartans. He contrived to make a quarrel between them about the rate of pay, and persuaded Tissaphernes that it would be the best thing for Persia to let the Spartans and Athenians wear one another out, without giving help to either. Tissaphernes therefore kept the Spartans idle for months, always

pretending that he was on the point of bringing up his fleet to help them. Alcibiades now sent a lying message to the generals of the Athenian army at Samos that he could get Athens the help of Tissaphernes, if the Athenians would allow him to return from his exile: but he said that he could never return while there was a democracy; so that if they wished for the help of Persia they must change the government to an oligarchy (B.C. 412). In the army at Samos there were many rich men willing to see an oligarchy established at Athens, and peace made with Sparta. . . . Therefore, though the great mass of the army at Samos was democratical, a certain number of powerful men agreed to the plan of Alcibiades for changing the government. One of the conspirators, named Pisander, was sent to Athens to instruct the clubs of nobles and rich men to work secretly for this object. In these clubs the overthrow of the democracy was planned. Citizens known to be zealous for the constitution were secretly murdered. Terror fell over the city, for no one except the conspirators knew who did, and who did not, belong to the plot; and at last, partly by force, the assembly was brought to abolish the popular government."—C. A. Fyffe, *History of Greece (History primer)*, ch. 5, sect. 36-39.

ALSO IN: G. W. Cox, *Athenian empire*, ch. 6.—Thucydides, *History* (tr. by Jowett), bk. 8, ch. 4-51.

B.C. 411-407.—Peloponnesian War: Athenian victories at Cynossema and Abydos.—Exploits of Alcibiades.—Return to Athens and to supreme command.—Second deposition and exile.—While Athens was in the throes of its revolution, "the war was prosecuted with vigour on the coast of Asia Minor. Mindarus, who now commanded the Peloponnesian fleet, disgusted at length by the often-broken promises of Tissaphernes, and the scanty and irregular pay which he furnished, set sail from Miletus and proceeded to the Hellespont, with the intention of assisting the satrap Pharnabazus, and of effecting, if possible, the revolt of the Athenian dependencies in that quarter. Hither he was pursued by the Athenian fleet under Thrasylus. In a few days an engagement ensued (in August, 411 B.C.), in the famous straits between Sestos and Abydos, in which the Athenians, though with a smaller force, gained the victory, and erected a trophy on the promontory of Cynossema [see CYNOSSEMA] near the tomb and chapel of the Trojan queen Hecuba. The Athenians followed up their victory by the reduction of Cyzicus, which had revolted from them. A month or two afterward, another obstinate engagement took place between the Peloponnesian and Athenian fleets near Abydos, which lasted a whole day, and was at length decided in favour of the Athenians by the arrival of Alcibiades with his squadron of 18 ships from Samos."—W. Smith, *Smaller history of Greece*, ch. 13.—Alcibiades, although recalled, had "resolved to delay his return until he had performed such exploits as might throw fresh lustre over his name, and endear him to all classes of his fellow-citizens. With this ambition he sailed with a small squadron from Samos, and having gained information that Mindarus, with the Peloponnesian fleet, had gone in pursuit of the Athenian navy, he hastened to afford his countrymen succour. Happily he arrived at the scene of action, near Abydos, at a most critical moment; when, after a severe engagement, the Spartans had on one side obtained an advantage, and were pursuing the broken lines of the Athenians. . . . He speedily decided the fortune of the day, completely routed the Spartans, . . . broke many of their ships in pieces, and took

30 from them. . . . His vanity after this signal success had, however, nearly destroyed him; for, being desirous of appearing to Tissaphernes as a conqueror instead of a fugitive, he hastened with a splendid retinue to visit him, when the crafty barbarian, thinking he should thus appease the suspicions of the Spartans, caused him to be arrested and confined in prison at Sardis. Hence, however, he found means to escape. . . . He sailed immediately for the Athenian camp to diffuse fresh animation among the soldiers, and induce them hastily to embark on an expedition against Mindarus and Pharnabazus, who were then with the residue of the Peloponnesian fleet at Cyzicum" (Cyzicus). Mindarus was defeated and killed and Pharnabazus driven to flight (410 B.C.). "Alcibiades pursued his victory, took Cyzicum without difficulty, and, staining his conquest with a cruelty with which he was not generally chargeable, put to death all the Peloponnesians whom he found within the city. A very short space of time elapsed after this brilliant success before Alcibiades found another occasion to deserve the gratitude of Athens," by defeating Pharnabazus, who had attacked the troops of Thrasyllus while they were wasting the territory of Abydos. He next reduced Chalcedon, bringing it back into the Athenian alliance, and once more defeating Pharnabazus, when the Persian satrap attempted to relieve the town. He also recovered Selymbria, and took Byzantium (which had revolted) after a severe fight (408 B.C.). "Alcibiades having raised the fortunes of his country from the lowest state of depression, not only by his brilliant victories, but his conciliating policy, prepared to return and enjoy the praise of his successes. . . . His next measure heightened, if possible, the brief lustre of his triumph. In consequence of the fortification of Decelea by the Lacedæmonians, and their having possession of the passes of the country, the procession to Eleusis, in honour of Athene, had been long unable to take its usual course, and being conducted by sea, had lost many of its solemn and august ceremonials. He now, therefore, offered to conduct the solemnity by land. . . . His proposal being gladly accepted, he placed sentinels on the hills; and, surrounding the consecrated band with his soldiers, conducted the whole to Eleusis and back to Athens, without the slightest opposition, or breach of that order and profound stillness which he had exhorted the troops to maintain. After this graceful act of homage to the religion he was once accused of destroying, he was regarded by the common people as something more than human; they looked on him as destined never to know defeat, and believed their triumph was certain so long as he was their commander. But, in the very height of his popularity, causes of a second exile were maturing. The great envied him in proportion to the people's confidence, and that confidence itself became the means of his ruin: for, as the people really thought the spell of invincibility was upon him, they were prepared to attribute the least pause in his career of glory to a treacherous design. He departed with a hundred vessels, manned under his inspection, with colleagues of his own choice, to reduce the isle of Chios to obedience. At Andros he once more gained a victory over both the natives and the Spartans, who attempted to assist them. But, on his arrival at the chief scene of action, he found that he would be unable to keep the soldiers from deserting, unless he could raise money to pay them sums more nearly equal to those which the Lacedæmonians offered, than the pay he was able to bestow. He was compelled, therefore, to leave the fleet [at Notium] and go into Caria in order to

obtain supplies. While absent on this occasion, he left Antiochus in the command. . . . To this officer Alcibiades gave express directions that he should refrain from coming to an engagement, whatever provocations he might receive. Anxious, however, to display his bravery, Antiochus took the first occasion to sail out in front of the Lacedæmonian fleet, which lay near Ephesus, under the command of Lysander, and attempt, by insults, to incite them to attack him. Lysander accordingly pursued him; the fleets came to the support of their respective admirals, and a general engagement ensued, in which Antiochus was slain, and the Athenians completely defeated. On receiving intelligence of this unhappy reverse, Alcibiades hastened to the fleet, and eager to repair the misfortune, offered battle to the Spartans; Lysander, however, did not choose to risk the loss of his advantage by accepting the challenge, and the Athenians were compelled to retire. This event, for which no blame really attached to Alcibiades, completed the ruin of his influence at Athens. It was believed that this, the first instance of his failure, must have arisen from corruption, or, at least, from a want of inclination to serve his country. He was also accused of leav-



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ing the navy under the direction of those who had no other recommendation to the charge but having been sharers in his luxurious banquets, and of having wandered about to indulge in profligate excesses. . . . On these grounds, the people in his absence took from him his command, and confided it to other generals. As soon as he heard of this new act of ingratitude, he resolved not to return home, but withdrew into Thrace, and fortified three castles . . . near to Perinthus. Here, having collected a formidable band, as an independent captain, he made incursions on the territories of those of the Thracians who acknowledged no settled form of government, and acquired considerable spoils."—T. N. Talfourd, *Early history of Greece* (*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*), ch. 11.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 4, ch. 29.—Plutarch, *Alcibiades*.—Xenophon, *Hellenica*, bk. 1, ch. 1-4.

B.C. 410.—Conquest of Cyprus. See **CYPRUS**: Early history.

B.C. 406.—Peloponnesian War: Battle of Arginusæ.—Trial and execution of the generals at Athens.—Alcibiades was succeeded by Conon and nine colleagues in command of the Athenian fleet on the coast of Asia Minor. The Athenians, soon afterwards, were driven into the harbor of

Mitylene, on the island of Lesbos, by a superior Peloponnesian fleet, commanded by Callicratidas, and were blockaded there with small chance of escape. Conon contrived to send news of their desperate situation to Athens, and vigorous measures were promptly taken to rescue the fleet and to save Mitylene. In the battle that ensued, which was the greatest naval conflict of the Peloponnesian War, the Athenians were completely victorious; Callicratidas was drowned and no less than seventy-seven of the Peloponnesian ships were destroyed, while the Athenians themselves lost twenty-five. As the result of this battle Sparta again made overtures of peace, as she had done after the battle of Cyzicus, and Athens, led by her demagogues, again rejected them. But the Athenian demagogues and populace did worse. They summoned home the eight generals who had won the battle of Arginusæ, to answer to a charge of having neglected, after their victory, to pick up the floating bodies of the Athenian dead and to rescue the drowning from the wrecked ships of their fleet. Six of the accused generals came home to meet the charge; but two thought it prudent to go into voluntary exile. The six were brought to trial; the forms of legality were violated to their prejudice and all means were unscrupulously employed to work up the popular passion against them. One man, only, among the prytanes—senators, that is, of the tribe then presiding, and who were the presidents of the popular assembly—stood out, without flinching, against the lawless rage of his fellow citizens, and refused, in calm scorn of all fierce threats against himself, to join in taking the unconstitutional vote. That one was the philosopher Socrates. The generals were condemned to death and received the fatal draught of hemlock from the same populace which pressed it a little later to the lips of the philosopher.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 424-406.

**B.C. 405.—Peloponnesian War: Decisive battle of Ægospotami.—Defeat of the Athenians.**—After the execution of the generals, "no long time passed before the Athenians repented of their madness and their crimes: but, yielding still to their old besetting sin, they insisted, as they had done in the days of Miltiades and after the catastrophe at Syracuse, on throwing the blame not on themselves but on their advisers. This great crime began at once to produce its natural fruits. The people were losing confidence in their officers, who, in their turn, felt that no services to the state could secure them against illegal prosecutions and arbitrary penalties. Corruption was eating its way into the heart of the state, and treason was losing its ugliness in the eyes of many who thought themselves none the worse for dallying with it. . . . The Athenian fleet had fallen back upon Samos; and with this island as a base, the generals were occupying themselves with movements, not for crushing the enemy, but for obtaining money. . . . The Spartans, whether at home or on the Asiatic coast, were now well aware that one more battle would decide the issue of the war; for with another defeat the subsidies of the Persians would be withdrawn from them as from men doomed to failure, and perhaps be transferred to the Athenians. In the army and fleet the cry was raised that Lysandros was the only man equal to the emergency. Spartan custom could not appoint the same man twice to the office of admiral; but when Arakos was sent out with Lysandros [Lysander] as his secretary, it was understood that the latter was really the man in power." In the summer of 405 B.C. Lysander made a sudden movement from the southern Ægean to the Hellespont, and laid siege

to the rich town of Lampsacus, on the Asiatic side. The Athenians followed him, but not promptly enough to save Lampsacus, which they found in his possession when they arrived. They took their station, thereupon, at the mouth of the little stream called the Aegospotami (the Goat's stream), directly opposite to Lampsacus, and endeavored for four successive days to provoke Lysander to fight. He refused, watching his opportunity for the surprise which he effected on the fifth day, when he dashed across the narrow channel and caught the Athenian ships unprepared, their crews mostly scattered on shore. One only, of the six Athenian generals, Conon, had foreseen danger and was alert. Conon, with twelve triremes, escaped. The remaining ships, about one hundred and seventy in number, were captured almost without the loss of a man on the Peloponnesian side. Of the crews, some three or four thousand Athenians were pursued on shore and taken prisoners, to be afterwards slaughtered in cold blood. Two of the incapable generals shared their fate. Of the other generals who escaped, some at least were believed to have been bribed by Lysander to betray the fleet into his hands. The blow to Athens was deadly. She had no power of resistance left, and when her enemies closed around her, a little later, she starved within her walls until resistance seemed no longer heroic, and then gave herself up to their mercy.—G. W. Cox, *Athenian empire*, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 4, ch. 30.—Plutarch, *Lysander*.—Xenophon, *Hellenica* (tr. by Dakyns), bk. 1, ch. 5-7, bk. 2, ch. 1.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 4, ch. 5.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 64.

**B.C. 404.—End of the Peloponnesian War.—Fall of Athens.** See ATHENS: B.C. 404.

**B.C. 404-403.—Year of anarchy at Athens.—Reign of the Thirty.** See ATHENS: B.C. 404-403.

**B.C. 404-359.—Greek government.—Types in Athens, Sparta, Thebes.**—"These are the great factors always present in the period from 404 to 359—the growth of the nations in population and wealth, the decline of Greece in both, and the heightened impossibility of concerted Greek action. The promised goal of autonomy for every town was by now an absurdity; it was still talked of, it was put into practice, but never for any other purpose than to weaken a rival power. The real guiding principles of the age are to be looked for elsewhere. Three types of government with more than a small local outlook are to be recognized. There is, of course, the Empire or Hegemony of a Greek city-state. Sparta took it over from Athens at the end of the war, and managed it very badly—with an amount of oppression and exasperation for everybody that soon made enemies of all her allies. Athens tried to revive the glories of her old Confederacy with some accommodation to the newer ideas of the period. And then Thebes broke for ever the power of Sparta, and introduced fresh elements of confusion everywhere. One aspect of the work of Thebes comes pleasantly to the modern student. Whatever her motive—and it was frankly the crippling of Sparta—she gave freedom to two oppressed nationalities of the Peloponnese, the Arcadians, and the Messenians. These liberated races give us two striking examples of another type of government, which was now beginning to be tried in a quiet way in a good many corners of Greece, and which had a great future—Federalism."—F. R. Glover, *From Pericles to Philip*, pp. 367-368.—"The Federal Constitution [of the Arcadian League] was modelled on the ordinary type of democratic constitutions. There was an Assembly, which met at third periods to consider all



important questions. Every citizen of the federal communities was a member of this Assembly, of which the official title was the *Ten Thousand*. The name indicates an approximate, not an exact, number, like the Five Thousand in the constitution of Theramenes at Athens. We have no information as to the working of this body, but from the analogy of other ancient federations it is probable that the votes were taken by cities, the vote of each city being determined by the majority of the votes of those of its citizens who were present. The Ten Thousand made war and peace, concluded alliances, and sat in judgment on offenders against the League. There was also a *Council*, composed of fifty members from the various cities, and this body had doubtless the usual executive and deliberative functions which belonged to the Greek conception of a Council. . . . Messene, like Megalopolis, was founded by 'synoecizing' the districts round about. But its political position was entirely different from that of Megalopolis. Messene was not a federal capital; it was the Messenian state—a city with the whole country for its territory. . . . The relation of Messene to Messenia was that of Athens to Attica, not that of Megalopolis to Arcadia."—J. B. Bury, *History of Greece*, pp. 600-605.—"But so far the federal governments of Greece were weak, and the system had a rival in a new variety of monarchy [Macedonia under Philip]. . . . The problem was one of leadership. The city-state failed to retain the hegemony of the Greek world; the federal league hardly attempted it; and before Philip princely government had not so wide an outlook. But whatever the power was to be that should unite the world, certain qualifications, it was growingly clear, were necessary. First of all, the dominant power must have a strong hold upon the tools of war. . . . But as important as wealth for the hegemony of the Greek world was some clear, strong, and wide outlook in the ruler, whether demos, or council, or prince. Whoever was to rule must have enough political intelligence and insight to realize the unity of the world and the other new elements in the situation before him. Most men are limited in outlook and intelligence; the Greeks were becoming very limited. . . . The Greek's local attachments stood in the way of his sympathies and his power of grasping a world-situation. In the third place, the future ruler must be able to secure that mankind should not recede in culture and civilization. He must have an intelligent feeling for the great achievements of Greek genius. Pericles was right; Athens had been, and was, an education of mankind, and he who was to rule and guide mankind must be trustee for this splendid heritage. Such a task meant some depth of nature, a capacity not quickly found in Spartan, Theban, or Roman. The fourth qualification for the new ruler—perhaps the hardest to find—was some power of enlisting the ruled, of winning at least their consent if not their co-operation."—F. R. Glover, *From Pericles to Philip*, pp. 368-369.

B.C. 401-400.—Expedition of Cyrus, and the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks. See PERSIA: B.C. 401-400.

B.C. 4th century.—General conditions.—Spartan rule.—Revival of Athens.—"The opening events of the fourth century proved that the Peloponnesian war, which was to accomplish so much for the peace of Hellas, had actually settled nothing. Sparta feared too much the growing power of Thebes as well as the condemnation of all Hellenes to allow Athens to be destroyed. Athens was crippled but not beyond repair. Ere long, with Persian help, she rose afresh, became

once more a rival of Sparta, and even hoped for a renewal of her former greatness and empire. The tyranny of the Thirty was overthrown and there was no further hope of establishing an oligarchy in Athens. She remained a democracy and the rallying point for all democratic cities and for all democratic parties in cities against oligarchic Sparta. No real attempt had been made to lessen the differences which held them apart. Nor had their hatred and distrust of each other grown any the less. To complicate matters a new power had arisen. Thebes had grown strong on the misfortunes of Athens. Her population had been increased by refugees, her wealth had been magnified greatly by plunder and her control over the Bœotian League had been strengthened. On the outside stood the Persian king and his satraps. They were interested in keeping any Hellenic power from becoming too strong and in regaining control over the Asiatic cities. Once this were accomplished, it would be to the interest of Persian trade to have peace in the Ægean. The wealth of the Persian Empire, for which both sides among the warring Hellenes bargained, gave it a dominating influence in Hellenic affairs. The gift of freedom to Hellas by the Spartans proved to be a delusion. The small states had but exchanged masters. Spartan military hegemony interposed its iron hand in place of Athenian control. Ly-sander, anxious to secure power and glory for himself as well as for Sparta, saw to it that Spartan influence was established among the former allies of Athens. The democratic leaders who were favorable to Athens were driven out and boards of ten men were put into control of the states. With such bodies Sparta knew how to deal. To keep them in power Lacedæmonian garrisons under harmosts were placed in the cities. The result was 'plunder, oppression and murder.' Spartan power was based on military force, and therefore required military force to maintain it. It would endure only so long as Sparta was supreme on land and sea. Meanwhile her enemies were increasing. Everywhere the exiles were planning revenge and the populace was becoming restive. With the decline of the power of Ly-sander the decarchies fell, but the hatred and fear of Sparta did not decrease. Thebes and Corinth, who had borne their share of the war against Athens, felt that they had been deprived of their share of the rewards. Spartan ambition frightened them and they refused to follow Sparta's lead. . . . To the north a group of states were offering a new solution to the problem of peace and unity. Olynthus in the Chalcidice had become the center of a federal union. Citizens in each state of the league were given full rights of citizenship in every other state and thus were held together by a common interest. Even those who had been forced into the organization soon lost their local interests in the welfare of the whole. Its growing power was regarded as a menace by its neighbors and by the Spartans. Federalism had no place in a world ruled by Sparta. When the Olynthian union had been destroyed by a short war, Spartan power had reached its climax. Agesilaus had attained the goal of his desires. The man who led his city to these achievements was Agesilaus, the embodiment of the Lacedæmonian spirit, patriotic, ambitious and efficient, but with stunted ideals, unprogressive alike in military art, in statesmanship and in humanism—a man who tested the right or wrong of every action by the sole advantage of Sparta, whose vision, limited to brute power, took no account of the moral forces roused through

Hellas by his policy of blood and iron. The armed forces of Athens and Thebes, supported by these moral forces of disappointment and indignation, were preparing to crush the power of Sparta, to punish her for her breach of the peace and to compel her to allow the Hellenes to live in peace, free and secure. Athens had been busy in the formation of a new confederacy. Alliances with Chios, Byzantium and Chalcis were secured, and in 377 the second Athenian Confederacy was launched, with the support of the maritime states. In this Athens had been careful to keep the peace. No one was forced to come in; each treaty provided for local freedom and autonomy. The assembly of the allies met free from Athenian interference and only required Athenian sanction for action. No tribute was collected, but ships and money were to be contributed when needed. The purpose of the league was defence against Sparta."

—W. E. Caldwell, *Hellenic conceptions of peace*, pp. 108-109, 113-114.—See also below: B.C. 399-387; B.C. 385-383; B.C. 383-379; B.C. 379-371.

**B.C. 4th century.—Economic conditions.—Public expenditures. — Industry. — Mining. — Trade.—Labor.**—"An advanced Greek democracy was an expensive form of government. The State spent annually vast sums on the sacrifices, public feasts and processions, dramatic, musical, and gymnastic competitions, chariot and horse races, which gratified the people at the great festivals. The distributions of money common on these occasions were especially wasteful and demoralizing. . . . Under the Athenian democracy the reasonable principle that servants of the State should be paid issued in the practice of taking into the service of the State as many citizens as possible. Magistrates were unnecessarily numerous, and the majority seem to have drawn salaries. The Prytaneis of the Council received 1 Dr. [a drachma was equivalent to eighteen cents] a day, an ordinary Councillor 5 obols [one obol was equivalent to three cents] for each meeting. A court of judges never contained less than 201 members, each of whom received 3 obols. In the fourth century the citizens were even paid for attending the Assembly; this fee was at first only 1 obol but rose to 3 obols before 390 B.C., and finally in Aristotle's time was 1 dr. for an ordinary meeting and 9 obols for that specially important assembly in each Prytany which was called. . . . Further, among ordinary expenses of administration we have to reckon the wages of many subordinate functionaries not accounted magistrates, such as clerks, under-clerks, heralds, assessors, etc., the maintenance of the public slaves, and in particular of the police force of Scythian archers, the allowance of 2 obols a day granted to citizens possessing less than 300 dr. who were crippled and unable to work, and the education of the sons of citizens killed in war. Even in peace the naval and military organisation involved considerable outlay. All Athenians spent their 19th and 20th years in a course of military training at the expense of the State. The cavalry, 1000 in number, cost in Xenophon's time 40 t. [a talent was equivalent to \$1080] a year. Some ships were always in commission and new ships were built every year. The fortifications, arsenals, and docks needed repairs, and war materials had to be kept ready both for fleet and army. But for a long and obstinate war the Athens of Demosthenes was utterly unprepared. The democracy had left itself no resources but voluntary contributions and the property tax, and these proved burdens too heavy for the patriotism, and indeed for the means, of the majority of Athenians. Under normal conditions financial administration centred in the

Council, which checked and supervised all financial officers and all magistrates handling public money, and kept the Assembly informed about the public resources. The letting of contracts and the sale of taxes, confiscated property, etc. were delegated to ten magistrates called 'The Vendors,' and took place in the presence of the Council, which in the case of taxes decided between the bidders by a show of hands, and had power to imprison the purchaser and his sureties if the specified instalments were not punctually paid. Lists of the sums due in each Prytany were kept by a slave in the service of the Council, and the payments were made in the Council Chamber to the ten Receivers-General. These officials at once distributed what they received among the various departments, and on the next day submitted to the Council their scheme of allotment. The details of the distribution were fixed by laws and did not depend on an annual budget based on the forecasts of experts. . . . The distribution of revenue, being established by law, could only be changed by law, not by a simple decree of the people, but the Assembly had no difficulty in enforcing its will; it could order the presidents of the Nomothetae under penalties to submit a prescribed motion at their first session, and it is not likely that such motions were often rejected. Whether in times of peace the Assembly had a constitutional right to draw upon special funds for purposes which the law establishing them did not specify may be open to debate, but we may be sure that a decree ordering a payment could not be resisted by any treasurer. Athenian statesmen invented elaborate precautions to prevent embezzlement on the part of magistrates; they had not the good fortune to discover a method of preventing extravagance on the part of the sovereign people."

—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*, pp. 409-411.

"One of the first objects of an Athenian statesman was to provide for an adequate supply of imported grain, seeing that the country produced scarcely half the amount needed for consumption. Two-thirds of every cargo brought to Peiraeus had to be sold in the country; the rest might be carried farther. State regulations were established to prevent cornering the market and unreasonable profits of dealers. Among the regulations was one which forbade a profit of more than an obol to the basket, phormos, holding about a medimnus, i.e., a bushel and a half. It was ordered further that no one should buy more than fifty phormi at a time. To enforce these regulations a board of Grain Inspectors . . . was instituted. Death was the penalty for the violation of these laws."—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, p. 426.—"Wine and oil were important articles of export. The vine was probably a Phoenician introduction, and found a home in many of the islands, in Sicyon, Chalcidice, Asia Minor, and Magna Graecia. . . . The producers or wholesale merchants sold by sample to retail dealers in the markets: for the purposes of carriage pitched skins were used. The olive, which is heard of in Greece at the end of the Homeric Age, early became associated with Attica, where it was established at least as soon as 700 B.C.: it was also cultivated at Cyrene, Cyprus, Massilia, Clazomenae, and Sinope."—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*, p. 429.—"Within its [the land of Greece] folds lies embedded by nature an unstinted store of marble, out of which are chiselled temples and altars of rarest beauty and the most comely images of worship for the gods. This marble, moreover, is an object of desire to many foreigners, Hellenes and barbarians alike. Then there is land which

although it yields no fruit to the sower, needs only to be mined in order to feed many times more mouths than it could as corn-land. Doubtless we owe it to a divine dispensation that our land is veined with silver."—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, p. 431.—"Greek mining owes its introduction to the Phoenicians, who probably copied Egyptian methods; these were often irrational, from an ignorance of geology. The exacting labour of the mines was carried on by gangs of slaves, by whom the ore was extracted from the richest veins; from the pit's mouth galleries were hewn out, pillars being left for support. Hard by outside were furnaces and workshops, where the processes of crushing, washing, sifting and smelting were carried out, until the metal was freed of slag. Diodorus Siculus and Agatharchides have given vivid pictures of gold-mining in their own times; and the other metals seem to have been similarly worked. Besides the simple metals various alloys were commonly used: of gold; . . . of silver; . . . of copper; . . . while from iron a kind of steel . . . was made by tempering the red-hot metal in water. Of the numerous metal-working centres Corinth attained a special pre-eminence by excellent workmanship; the evidence of terminology shows us to what an extent this industry was elaborated and subdivided. Gold was principally used for jewellery; silver for the vessels of the table; bronze or copper for larger vessels, or works of art; and iron for general purposes. Wholesale trade was developed comparatively later among the Greeks, but the progress of commerce and the verdict of society rapidly differentiated it from the retail business conducted by producers and petty tradesmen just as wholesale manufactories were distinguished from the workshops of single craftsmen. Wholesale traders frequently did not confine themselves to one commodity, but shipped various cargoes for colonial ports: they would often accompany their goods in person, unless they had some authorised traveller, or agent abroad. At most large ports a spacious hall was provided at public expense for the purpose of displaying samples, while commission-agents and interpreters facilitated the relations of seller and buyer. It was customary to purchase a return-cargo with the proceeds of sale, as foreign moneys might involve a loss on exchange at home: on the other hand it is to be noted that the coinage of Athens was accepted everywhere. At the ports of call on the voyage merchants usually contrived to ascertain where the prices were best, and sometimes they resorted to questionable artifices in order to rig the markets. The centre of trade in each city was the market-place where most of the retail establishments were to be found, though shops were scattered over the rest of the city as well. At Athens, which city we may take as a type, business was carried on in permanent bazaars and colonnades under the wicker roofs of temporary booths or under umbrellas. Here the various trades and crafts were grouped, so that the separate corners came to be called after the articles sold—fish, meal, wine, pots, or slaves. Special importance attached to the monthly market, at which slaves were generally sold. . . . [There] were occasional fairs and the great religious and athletic festivals incidentally furthered commercial transactions on a large scale. Although there seem to have been no proper guilds or corporations of workmen until the Roman supremacy, there were instances of association, whether local, such as the settlement of similar workmen in distinct quarters, . . . or commercial, such as the frequent combination of kindred trades, tanners and shoemakers, fullers and tailors, innkeepers and vintners.

Except in certain cases (the heralds, cooks, and flute-players at Sparta) there was no obligation on the son to take up his father's trade or craft, though this would naturally be a frequent occurrence. Certain terms of apprenticeship obtained, for which a definite fee was paid to a master of the craft. The cheapness of foodstuffs and the existence of slave-labour combined to reduce the wages obtainable by free labourers. Some difficulty is involved in the study of this question, as it is often uncertain whether the wages recorded in inscriptions and elsewhere include rations or not. The unskilled labour of porters, scavengers, farmhands, was paid at the rate of 3 or 4 obols daily: the better class of workman received about 2 drachmae 3 obols, the lower class 1 drachma 3 obols (to include rations in both cases), and even an architect earned sometimes no more than 1 drachma a day, an instance of the confusion of artist and artisan. The prejudice against trades and handicrafts was most pronounced in Sparta: elsewhere, though the political disabilities might be reduced or removed, the social stigma was scarcely diminished—indeed, even the fullest development of democracy at Athens did but stereotype the conventional horror of hard work, and proclaimed leisure, and not labour, to be the citizen's privilege. The philosophers took the same view, branding as mean . . . and unworthy of citizens the necessary, it humble, occupations on which society rests, and discountenancing the principle of loans. Intellectual labour was hardly considered at all on its merits, and the artist often suffered with the artisan; the marvel is that, amid all this depreciation, mechanical skill and artistic taste should have attained so high a standard of excellence. The capitalist was generally exempt from adverse criticism, but usury met with special disfavour: doubtless there was some justification for this in the unscrupulous methods and exorbitant percentages to which lenders sometimes had recourse, and often the natural animosity between citizens and aliens was the real cause; but the truth remains that even the best-intentioned Greeks had no conception of the real significance of money and capital, and in their short-sighted superiority discouraged a free circulation, thus deliberately courting economic ruin."—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*, pp. 430-432, 436-437.

ALSO IN: J. B. Bury, *History of Greece*, v. 3, ch. 13.—P. A. Gardner, *History of ancient coinage*.—C. B. Gulick, *Life of the ancient Greeks*.

**B.C. 399-387.—Spartan war with Persia.—Greek confederacy against Sparta.—Corinthian War.—Peace of Antalcidas.**—The successful retreat of the Ten Thousand from Cunaxa, through the length of the Persian dominions (401-400 B. C.), and the account which they brought of the essential hollowness of the power of the great king, produced an important change among the Greeks in their estimate of the Persian monarchy as an enemy to be feared. Sparta became ashamed of having abandoned the Greek cities of Asia Minor to their old oppressors, as she did after breaking the strength of their protector, Athens, in the Peloponnesian War. When, therefore, the Persians began to lay siege to the coast cities which resisted them, Sparta found spirit enough to interfere (390 B. C.) and sent over a small army, into which the surviving Cyreans were also enlisted. The only immediate result was a truce with the Persian satrap. But, meantime, the Athenian general Conon—he who escaped with a few triremes from Ægospotami and fled to Cyprus—had there established relations with the Persian court at Susa and had acquired a great influence, which he used to bring

about the creation of a powerful Persian armament against Sparta, himself in command. The news of this armament, reaching Sparta, provoked the latter to a more vigorous prosecution of the war in Asia Minor. King Agesilaus took the field in Ionia with a strong army and conducted two brilliant campaigns (396-395 B.C.) pointing the way, as it were, to the expedition of Alexander a couple of generations later. The most important victory won was on the Pactolus, not far from Sardis. But, in the midst of his successes, Agesilaus was called home by troubles which arose in Greece. Sparta, by her arrogance and oppressive policy, had already alienated all the Greek states which helped her to break down Athens in the Peloponnesian War. Persian agents, with money, had assisted her enemies to organize a league against her. Thebes and Athens, first, then Argos and Corinth, with several of the lesser states, became confederated in an agreement to overthrow her domination. In an attempt to crush Thebes, the Spartans were badly beaten at Haliartus (395 B.C.), where their famous Lysander, conqueror of Athens, was killed. Their power in central and northern Greece was virtually annihilated, and then followed a struggle with their leagued enemies for the control of the Corinthian isthmus, whence came the name of the Corinthian War. It was this situation of things at home which called back King Agesilaus from his campaigns in Asia Minor. He had scarcely crossed the Hellespont on his return, in July 394 B.C., before all his work in Asia was undone by an overwhelming naval victory achieved at Cnidus by the Athenian Conon, commanding the Persian-Phœnician fleet. With his veteran army, including the old Cyreans, now returning home after seven years of incredible adventures and hardships, he made his way through all enemies into Bœotia and fought a battle with the league at Coronea, in which he so far gained a victory that he held the field, although the fruits of it were doubtful. The Spartans on the isthmus had also just gained a considerable success near Corinth, on the banks of the Nemea. On the whole, the results of the war were in their favor, until Conon and the Persian satrap, Pharnabazus, came over with the victorious fleet from Cnidus and lent its aid to the league. The most important proceeding of Conon was to rebuild (393 B.C.), with the help of his Persian friends, the long walls of Athens, which the Peloponnesians had required to be thrown down eleven years before. By this means he restored to Athens her independence and secured for her a new career of commercial prosperity. During six years more the war was tediously prolonged, without important or decisive events, while Sparta intrigued to detach the Persian king from his Athenian allies and the latter intrigued to retain his friendship. In the end, all parties were exhausted—Sparta, perhaps, least so—and accepted a shameful peace which was practically dictated by the Persian and had the form of an edict or mandate from Susa, in the following terms: "The king, Artaxerxes, deems it just that the cities in Asia, with the islands of Clazomenae and Cyprus, should belong to himself; the rest of the Hellenic cities he thinks it just to leave independent, both small and great, with the exception of Lemnos, Imbros, and Seyros, which three are to belong to Athens as of yore. Should any of the parties concerned not accept this peace, I, Artaxerxes, will war against him or them with those who share my views. This will I do by land and by sea, with ships and with money." By this, called the Peace of Antalcidas (387 B.C.) from the Lacedæmonian who was instrumental in bringing it about, the Ionian

Greeks were once more abandoned to the Persian king and his satraps, while Sparta, which assumed to be the administrator and executor of the treaty, was confirmed in her supremacy over the other Grecian states.—Xenophon, *Hellenica* (tr. by Dakyns), v. 2, bk. 3-5.

ALSO IN: C. Sankey, *Spartan and Theban supremacies*, ch. 7-9.—W. Mitford, *History of Greece*, v. 4, ch. 24-25.—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies*, v. 3: *Persia*, ch. 7.

B.C. 385-383.—Further aggressions of Sparta.—**Destruction of Mantinea.**—**Seizure of Thebes.**—"On the strength of this understanding with Persia, and a similar understanding with the Sicilian tyrant Dionysius, the Spartans began again to act in a high-handed fashion... The city of Mantinea, in Arcadia, had at times given them trouble. They now razed it and dispersed the population into the five country villages of which it had originally been formed—an act worthy of Darius or Xerxes. Three years later (382) Lacedæmonian troops on their way towards Macedonia (where a confederation was beginning to cause Sparta suspicions) seized the citadel of Thebes—a violation of peace and an act of tyrannical insolence denounced by all right-minded men in Hellas, such as the venerable orator Lysias and Isocrates, and regarded sorrowfully by Xenophon, the lover of Sparta, as the fatal deed that brought down heaven's just retribution. This retribution came surely but somewhat slowly. The Cadmeian citadel was recaptured by Pelopidas with a band of Theban exiles, disguised as women, and under the new tactics and the discipline of his friend, the great Theban general Epameinondas, the military power of Thebes rapidly grew till she became the head of a Bœotian confederacy, and as the rival of Sparta won the alliance even of Athens, her hereditary enemy."—H. B. Cotterill, *Ancient Greece*, pp. 393-394.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 5, ch. 37.

B.C. 383-379.—**Overthrow of the Olynthian confederacy by Sparta.**—Among the Greek cities which were founded at an early day in that peninsula of Macedonia called Chalcidice, from Chaleis, in Eubœa, which colonized the greater number of them, Olynthus became the most important. It long maintained its independence against the Macedonian kings, on one hand, and against Athens, when Athens ruled the Ægean and its coasts, on the other. As it grew in power, it took under its protection the lesser towns of the peninsula and adjacent Macedonia, and formed a confederacy among them, which gradually extended to the larger cities and acquired a formidable character. But two of the Chalcidian cities watched this growth of Olynthus with jealousy and refused to be confederated with her. More than that, they joined the Macedonians in sending an embassy (383 B.C.) to Sparta, then all-powerful in Greece, after the Peace of Antalcidas, and invoked her intervention to suppress the rising Olynthian confederacy. The response of Sparta was prompt, and although the Olynthians defended themselves with valor, inflicting one severe defeat upon the Lacedæmonian allies, they were forced at last (379 B.C.) to submit and the confederacy was dissolved. "By the peace of Antalcidas, Sparta had surrendered the Asiatic Greeks to Persia; by crushing the Olynthian confederacy, she virtually surrendered the Thracian Greeks to the Macedonian princes. . . . She gave the victory to Amyntas [king of Macedonia], and prepared the indispensable basis upon which his son Philip afterwards rose, to reduce not only Olynthus, but . . . the major part of the

Grecian world, to one common level of subjection."

—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 9, pt. 2, ch. 76.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 4, sect. 3.

**B.C. 379-371.**—Liberation of Thebes and her rise to supremacy.—Humbling of Sparta.—For three years after the betrayal of the Acropolis, or Cadmea, of Thebes to the Spartans, the city groaned under the tyranny of the oligarchical party of Leontiades, whom the Spartans supported. Several hundreds of the more prominent of the democratic and patriotic party found a refuge at Athens, and the deliverance of Thebes was effected at last, about December, 379 B.C., by a daring enterprise on the part of some of these exiles. Their plans were concerted with friends at Thebes, especially with one Phyllidas, who had retained the confidence of the party in power, being secretary to the polemarchs. The leader of the undertaking was Melon. . . . The party of the oppression was totally crushed and its prominent members put to death. The Spartan garrison in the Cadmea capitulated and was suffered to march out without molestation. The government of Thebes was reorganized on a more popular basis, and with a view to restoring the Bœotian League, in a perfected state, with Thebes for its head (see THEBES: B.C. 378). In the war with Sparta which followed, Athens was soon involved, and the Spartans were driven from all their footholds in the Bœotian towns. Then Athens and Thebes quarreled afresh, and the Spartans, to take advantage of the isolation of the latter, invaded her territory once more. But Thebes, under the training of her great statesman and soldier, Epaminondas, had become strong enough to face her Lacedæmonian enemy without help, and in the momentous battle of Leuctra, fought July 6, 371 B.C., on a plain not far from Platæa, the domineering power of Sparta was broken forever. "It was the most important of all the battles ever fought between Greeks. On this day Thebes became an independent power in Greece, and a return of Spartan despotism was henceforth impossible for all times."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 4, bk. 6, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: Plutarch, *Pelopidas*.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 77-78.—C. Sankey, *Spartan and Theban supremacies*, ch. 10-11.—Xenophon, *Hellenica* (tr. by Dakyns), bk. 5, ch. 4.

**B.C. 378-357.**—New Athenian confederacy.—Social war. See ATHENS: B.C. 378-357.

**B.C. 371.**—Arcadian union.—Restoration of Mantinea.—Building of Megalopolis.—One of the first effects of the battle of Leuctra (371 B.C.), which ended the domination of Sparta in Greek affairs, was to emancipate the Arcadians and to work great changes among them. Mantinea, which the Spartans had destroyed, was rebuilt the same year. Then "the chiefs of the parties opposed to the Spartan interest in the principal Arcadian towns concerted a plan for securing the independence of Arcadia, and for raising it to a higher rank than it had hitherto held in the political system of Greece. With a territory more extensive than any other region of Peloponnesus, peopled by a hardy race, proud of its ancient origin and immemorial possession of the land, and of its peculiar religious traditions, Arcadia—the Greek Switzerland—had never possessed any weight in the affairs of the nation; the land only served as a thoroughfare for hostile armies, and sent forth its sons to recruit the forces of foreign powers. . . . The object was to unite the Arcadian people in one body, yet so as not to destroy the independence of the particular states; and with this view it was proposed to found a metropolis, to institute a national council which

should be invested with supreme authority in foreign affairs, particularly with regard to peace and war, and to establish a military force for the protection of the public safety. . . . Within a few months after the battle of Leuctra, a meeting of Arcadians from all the principal towns was held to deliberate on the measure; and under its decree a body of colonists, collected from various quarters, proceeded to found a new city, which was to be the seat of the general government, and was called Megalepolis, or Megalopolis (the Great City). The site chosen was on the banks of the Helisson, a small stream tributary to the Alpheus. . . . The city was designed on a very large scale, and the magnitude of the public buildings corresponded to its extent; the theatre was the most spacious in Greece. . . . The population was to be drawn . . . from a great number of the most ancient Arcadian towns. Pausanias gives a list of forty which were required to contribute to it. The greater part of them appear to have been entirely deserted by their inhabitants."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 5, ch. 30.—"The patriotic enthusiasm, however, out of which Megalopolis had first arisen, gradually became enteebled. The city never attained that preëminence or power which its founders contemplated, and which had caused the city to be laid out on a scale too large for the population actually inhabiting it."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 78.

**B.C. 371-362.**—Popular fury in Argos.—Arcadian union and disunion.—Restoration of Mantinea.—Expeditions of Epaminondas into Peloponnesus.—His attempts against Sparta.—His victory and death at Mantinea.—"In many of the Peloponnesian cities, when the power of Sparta seemed, visibly on the wane, internal commotions had arisen, and much blood had been shed on both sides. But now Argos displayed the most fearful example of popular fury recorded in Greek annals, red as they are with tales of civil bloodshed. The democratic populace detected a conspiracy among the oligarchs, and thirty of the chief citizens were at once put to death. The excitement of the people was inflamed by the harangues of demagogues, and the mob, arming itself with cudgels, commenced a general massacre. When 1,200 citizens had fallen, the popular orators interfered to check the atrocities, but met with the same fate; and, sated at length with bloodshed, the multitude stayed the deadly work. But where the pressure of Spartan interference had been heaviest and most constant, there the reaction was naturally most striking. The popular impulses which were at work in Arkadia [see above] found their first outlet in the rebuilding of Mantinea." But there was far from unanimity in the Arcadian national movement. "In Tegea . . . public opinion was divided. The city had been treated by Sparta with special consideration, and had for centuries been her faithful ally; hence the oligarchical government looked with disfavour upon the project of union. But the democratical party was powerful and unscrupulous; and, with the help of the Mantineians, they effected a revolution, in which many were killed, and 800 exiles fled to Sparta." The Spartans, under Agesilaus, avenged them by ravaging the plain in front of Mantinea. "This invasion of Arkadia is chiefly important for the pretext which it furnished for Theban intervention. The Mantineians applied for help at first to Athens, and, meeting with a refusal, went on to Thebes. For this request Epaminondas must have been thoroughly prepared beforehand, and he was soon on the march with a powerful army. . . . On his arrival in the Peloponnesus [370 B.C.], he found that

Agesilaos had already retired; and some of the Theban generals, considering the season of the year, wished at once to return." But Epaminondas was persuaded by the allies of Thebes to make an attempt upon Sparta itself. "After one unsuccessful cavalry skirmish, the Theban general, who, in a campaign undertaken on his sole responsibility, dared not risk the chance of defeat, decided to leave the 'wasps'-nest' untaken. He completed his work of devastation by ravaging the whole of southern Lakonia, . . . and then turned back into Arkadia to devote himself to the more permanent objects of his expedition." Messene was now rebuilt (see MESSENIAN WARS), and "the descendants of the old Messenian stock were gathered to form a new nation from Rhegion and Messene [Sicily], and from the parts of Lybia round Kyrene. . . . By thus restoring the Messenians to their ancient territory, Epaminondas deprived Sparta at one blow of nearly half her possessions. . . . At last Epaminondas had done his work; and, leaving Pammenes with a garrison in Tegea, he hastened to lead his soldiers home. At the Isthmus he found a hostile army from Athens," which had been persuaded to send succor to Sparta; but the Athenians did not care to give battle to the conquering Thebans, and the latter passed unopposed. On the arrival of Epaminondas at Thebes, "the leaders of a petty faction threatened to bring him and his colleagues to trial for retaining their command for four months beyond the legal term of office. But Epaminondas stood up in the assembly, and told his simple tale of victorious generalship and still more triumphant statesmanship; and the invidious cavils of snarling intriguers were at once forgotten." Sparta and Athens now formed an alliance, with the senseless agreement that command of the common forces "should be given alternately to each state for five days. . . . The first aim of the confederates was to occupy the passes of the isthmus," but Epaminondas forced a passage for his army, captured Sicyon, ravaged the territory of Epidaurus, and made a bold but unsuccessful attempt to surprise Corinth. Then, on the arrival of reinforcements to the Spartans from Syracuse, he drew back to Thebes (368 B.C.). For a time the Thebans were occupied with troubles in Thessaly, and their Arcadian protégés in Peloponnese were carrying on war against Sparta independently, with so much momentary success that they became over-confident and rash. They paid for their foolhardiness by a frightful defeat, which cost them 10,000 men, whilst no Spartan is said to have fallen; hence the fight was known in Sparta as the Tearless Battle. "This defeat probably caused little grief at Thebes, for it would prove to the arrogant Arkadians that they could not yet dispense with Theban aid; and it decided Epaminondas to make a third expedition into the Peloponnese." The result of his third expedition was the enrolment of a number of Achæan cities as Theban allies, which gave to Thebes "the control of the coast-line of the Corinthian gulf." But the broad and statesmanlike terms on which Epaminondas arranged these alliances were set aside by his narrow-minded fellow citizens, and a policy adopted by which Achæa was "converted from a lukewarm neutral into an enthusiastic supporter of Sparta. In this unsettled state of Greek politics the Thebans resolved to have recourse, like the Spartans before them, to the authority of the Great King. Existing treaties, for which they were not responsible, acknowledged his right to interfere in the internal affairs of Greece." Pelopidas and other envoys were accordingly sent to Susa (366 B.C.), where they procured from Artaxerxes a rescript

"which recognised the independence of Messene and ordered the Athenians to dismantle their fleet." But the mandate of the great king proved void of effect. "After this the confusion in Greece grew infinitely worse. An accident transferred the town of Oropos . . . from the hands of Athens to those of Thebes; and as the Peloponnesian allies of the Athenians refused to help them to regain it, they broke with them, and, in spite of the efforts of Epaminondas, formed an alliance with Arkadia. . . . The Athenians made soon after a vain attempt to seize the friendly city of Corinth, and the disgusted Corinthians, together with the citizens of Epidaurus and Phlious, . . . obtained the grudging consent of Sparta, and made a separate peace with Thebes. As soon as tranquillity was restored in one quarter, in another the flame of war would again burst forth." Its next outbreak (365 B.C.) was between Elis and Arkadia, the former being assisted by Sparta, and its principal event was a desperate battle fought for the possession of Olympia. Soon afterwards, Mantinea separated herself wholly from the Arcadian confederacy and entered the Spartan alliance. This was among the causes which drew Epaminondas once more, and for the last time, into the Peloponnese (362 B.C.). "The armies of Greece were now gathering from all quarters for the great struggle. On the one side stood Sparta, Athens, Elis, Achaia, and a part of Arkadia, led by Mantinea; on the other side were ranged Boiotia [Thebes], Argos, Messenia, and the rest of Arkadia, while a few of the smaller states—as Phokis, Phlious, and Corinth—remained neutral." At the outset of his campaign, Epaminondas made a bold attempt, by a rapid night march, to surprise Sparta; but a traitorous warning had been given, the Spartans were barricaded and prepared for defence, and the undertaking failed. Then he marched quickly to Mantinea, and failed in his design there, likewise. A pitched battle was necessary to decide the issue, and it was fought on the plain between Mantinea and Tegea, on the 3d day of July, B.C. 362. The fine discipline of the Theban troops and the skilful tactics of Epaminondas had given the victory into his hands, when, "suddenly, the aspect of the battle changed. Except among the light troops on the extreme right, the advance was everywhere stayed. The Spartan hoplites were in full flight, but the conquerors did not stir a step in the pursuit. . . . The fury of the battle had instantly ceased. . . . Epaminondas had fallen wounded to death, and this was the result. . . . Every heart was broken, every arm paralysed. . . . Both sides claimed the victory in the battle, and erected the usual trophies but the real advantage remained with the Thebans. . . . By the peace that ensued, the independence of Messenia was secured, and Megalopolis and the Pan-Arcadian constitution were preserved from destruction. The work of Epaminondas, though cut short, was thus not thrown away; and the power of Sparta was confined within the limits which he had assigned."—C. Sankey, *Spartan and Theban supremacies*, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: Xenophon, *Hellenica* (tr. by Dakyns), bk. 5-6.—Beloch, *Storia greca*.—F. R. Glover, *From Pericles to Philip*, ch. 7-8, 12.

B.C. 359-358.—First proceedings of Philip of Macedonia.—Acquisition of Amphipolis.—Philip of Macedon succeeded to the Macedonian throne in 359 B.C., at the age of twenty-three. In his youth he had been delivered to the Thebans as one of the hostages given upon the conclusion of a treaty of peace in 368. "His residence at Thebes gave him some tincture of Grecian philosophy and literature; but the most important lesson

which he learned at that city was the art of war, with all the improved tactics introduced by Epaminondas. Philip . . . displayed at the beginning of his reign his extraordinary energy and abilities. After defeating the Illyrians he established a standing army, in which discipline was preserved by the severest punishments. He introduced the far-famed Macedonian phalanx, which was 16 men deep, armed with long projecting spears. Philip's views were first turned towards the eastern frontiers of his dominions, where his interests clashed with those of the Athenians. A few years before the Athenians had made various unavailing attempts to obtain possession of Amphipolis, once the jewel of their empire, but which they had never recovered since its capture by Brasidas in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war."—W. Smith *Smaller history of Greece*, ch. 19.—The importance of Amphipolis to the Athenians arose chiefly from its vicinity to "the vast forests which clothed the mountains that enclose the basin of the Strymon, and afforded an inexhaustible supply of ship-timber." For the same reason that the Athenians desired ardently to regain possession of Amphipolis their enemies were strong in the wish to keep it out of their hands. Moreover, as the Macedonian kingdom became well-knit in the strong hands of the ambitious Philip, the city of "the Nine Ways" assumed importance to that rising power, and Philip resolved to possess it. It was at this point that his ambitions first came into conflict with Athens. But the Athenians were not aware of his aims until too late. He deceived them completely, in fact, by a bargain to give help in acquiring Amphipolis for them, and to receive help in gaining Pydna for himself. But when his preparations were complete, he suddenly laid siege to Amphipolis and made himself master of the city (358 B.C.), besides taking Pydna as well. [See also MACEDONIA: B.C. 367-350.] At Athens, "Philip was henceforth viewed as an open enemy, and this was the beginning—though without any formal declaration—of a state of hostility between the two powers, which was called, from its origin, the Amphipolitan War."—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 5, ch. 42.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 350-338.

B.C. 357-336.—Advancement of Philip of Macedonia to supremacy.—Sacred Wars and their consequences.—Fatal field of Chæroneia.—Philip's preparations for the invasion of Asia.—Assassination.—"When Philip had taken Amphipolis, he converted the Thasian settlement of Grenides into a great fortress, which he called after his own name, Philippi. He had thus two strong stations to secure Mount Pangæus; and the yield of the gold mines, which were soon actively worked, amounted to at least 1000 talents a year. No Greek state was so rich."—J. B. Bury, *History of Greece*, p. 686.—In the meantime the Greeks became involved in what was known as the "Sacred Wars." "The temple and oracle at Delphi were under the control of the Amphictyonic council, representing a very ancient confederacy of twelve Greek tribes, which no doubt were originally more or less equal in power, but in the course of history had come to differ widely in importance. . . . The geographical position of the smaller tribes was such as to make it likely that the Thebans and Thessalians (at any rate if united) could command a majority of votes in the Council; and since the battle of Leuctra the Thebans had begun to use the Council to further their political ends. . . . In 356 the Council was led to mulct the Phocians in a very large sum for

some offence, the nature of which is variously reported. . . . The Phocians, led by Philomelus, refused to pay the fine, and after obtaining some financial aid from Archidamus, King of Sparta, proceeded in 355 to seize the temple of Delphi, and erase the record of the sentence against them. . . . The Thebans and Thessalians now induced the Amphictyonic Council to declare a 'Sacred War' against the Phocians, and summoned the Greek peoples to join in punishing them for their sacrilege. The response seems to have been fairly general on the part of the tribes situated to the north of Boeotia; Byzantium also, which had for several years been friendly to Thebes, sent supplies of money. The Spartans sent one thousand men to the assistance of the Phocians; and to procure mercenaries, Philomelus made use of part of the treasures of the Delphian temple, probably intending at the time to repay them."—A. W. Pichard-Cambridge, *Demosthenes and the last days of Greek freedom*, pp. 171-174.—Having the vast accumulation of the sacred treasures of the Delphic temple in their hands, the Phocians did not scruple to appropriate them, and were able to maintain a powerful army of mercenaries, gathered from every part of Greece, with which they ravaged the territories of Bœotia and Locris, and acquired control of the pass of Thermopylæ. In the midst of their successes they were called upon for help by the tyrant of Phœræ in Thessaly, then being attacked by Philip of Macedon (353 B.C.). The Phocians opposed Philip with such success, at first, that he retreated from Thessaly; but it was only to recruit and reanimate his army. Returning presently he overthrew the Phocian army, with great slaughter—Onomarchus, its leader, being slain—and made himself master of all Thessaly. Both Athens and Sparta were now alarmed by this rapid advance into central Greece of the conquering arms of the ambitious Macedonian, and both sent forces to the help of the Phocians. The former was so energetic that an army of 5,000 Athenian foot-soldiers and 400 horse reached Thermopylæ (May, 352 B.C.) before Philip had been able to push forward from Thessaly. When he did advance, proclaiming his purpose to rescue the Delphian temple from sacrilegious robbers, he was repulsed at the pass and drew back. It was the beginning of the struggle for Greek independence against Macedonian energy and ambition. A few months later Demosthenes delivered the first of his immortal orations, called afterwards Philippics, in which he strove to keep the already languishing energy of the Athenians alive, in unflinching resistance to the designs of Philip. For six years there was a state of war between Philip and the Athenians with their allies, but the conquests of the former in Thrace and the Chalcidian peninsula were steadily pressed. At length (346 B.C.) Athens was treacherously persuaded into a treaty of peace with Philip (the Peace of Philocrates) which excluded the Phocians from its terms. No sooner had he thus isolated the latter than he marched quickly to Thermopylæ, secured possession of the pass and declared himself the supporter of Thebes. The Sacred War was ended, Delphi rescued, Phocis punished without mercy, and Greece was under the feet of a master. This being accomplished, the Peace of Philocrates was doubtfully maintained for about six years. Then quarrels broke out which led up to still another Sacred War, and which gave Philip another opportunity to trample on the liberties of Greece. Curiously, the provoking causes of this outbreak were an inheritance from that more ancient Sacred War

which brought ruin upon the town of Cirrha and a lasting curse upon its soil. The Locrians of Amphissa, dwelling near to the accursed territory, had ventured in the course of years to encroach upon it with brick-kilns, and to make use of its harbor. At a meeting of the Amphictyonic council, in the spring of 330 B.C., this violation of the sacred law was brought to notice, by way of retaliation for some offence which the deputies of Amphissa had given to those of Athens. Hostilities ensued between the citizens of Delphi, pushed on by the Amphictyons, on one side, and the Amphissians on the other. The influence of Philip in the Amphictyonic council was controlling, and his partisans had no difficulty in summoning him to act for the federation in settling this portentous affair. He marched into Bœotia, took possession of the strong city of Eleata, and very soon made it manifest that he contemplated something more than mere dealing



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with the refractory trespassers of Amphissa. Athens watched his movements with terror, and even Thebes, his former ally, took alarm. Through the exertions of Demosthenes, Thebes and Athens, once more, but too late, gave up their ancient enmity and united their strength and resources in a firm league. Megara, Corinth and other states were joined to them and common cause was made with the Locrians of Amphissa. These movements consumed a winter, and war opened in the spring. Philip gained successes from the beginning. He took Amphissa by surprise and carried Naupactus by storm. But it was not until August—the first day of August, 338 B.C.—that the two combatants came together in force. This occurred in the Bœotian valley of the Cephissus, near the town of Chæroneia, which gave its name to the battle. The sacred band of Thebes and the hoplites of Athens, with their allies, fought obstinately and well; but they were no match for the veterans of the Macedonian phalanx and most of them perished on the field. It was the last struggle for Grecian independence. Henceforth, practically at least, Hellas was swallowed up in Macedonia. We can see very plainly that Philip's "conduct towards Athens after the victory, under the appearance of generosity, was extremely prudent. His object was, to separate the Thebans from the Athenians, and he at once advanced against the former. The Athenian prisoners he sent home, free and clothed, accompanied by Antipater; he ordered the dead

bodies to be burned, and their ashes to be conveyed to Athens, while the Thebans had to purchase their dead from him. He then entered Thebes, which he seems to have taken without any resistance, placed a Macedonian garrison in the Cadmea, and, with the same policy which Sparta had followed at Athens after the Peloponnesian war, he established an oligarchy of 300 of his partizans, who were for the most part returned exiles, and who now, under the protection of the garrison in the Cadmea, ruled like tyrants, and raged in a fearful manner. . . . Philip accepted all the terms which were agreeable to the Athenians; no investigations were to be instituted against his enemies, and none of them was to be sent into exile. Athens was not only to remain a perfectly sovereign city, but retain Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros, nay even Samos and Chersonnesus, though he might have taken the latter without any difficulty, and though the Athenians had most cleruchiae in Samos. Thus he brought over the Athenians through this peace, against which Demosthenes and others, who saw farther, could not venture to protest, because Philip offered more than they could give him in return. . . . The only thing which the Athenians conceded to Philip, was, that they concluded a *symmachia* with him, and conferred upon him the supreme command in the Persian war. For with great cunning Philip summoned an assembly of the Greeks whom he called his allies, to Corinth, to deliberate upon the war against Persia. The war of revenge against the Persians had already become a popular idea in Greece. . . . Philip now entered Peloponnesus with his whole army, and went to the diet at Corinth, where the Greek deputies received his orders. In Peloponnesus he acted as mediator, for he was invited as such by the Arcadians, Messenians, and Argives, to decide their disputes with Lacedaemon, and they demanded that he should restore to them their ancient territories. The Arcadians had formerly possessed many places on the Eurotas, and the Messenians were still very far from having recovered all their ancient territories. He accordingly fixed the boundaries, and greatly diminished the extent of Laconia. . . . The Spartans, on that occasion, behaved in a dignified manner; they were the only ones who refused to acknowledge Philip as generalissimo against Persia. . . . Even the ancients regarded the day of Chæroneia as the death-day of Greece; every principle of life was cut off; the Greeks, indeed, continued to exist, but in spirit, and politically, they were dead. . . . Philip was now at the height of his power. Byzantium, and the other allied cities, had submitted to the conqueror, when he sent his army against them, and he was already trying to establish himself in Asia. 'A detachment of troops, under Attalus, had been sent across, to keep open the road for the great expedition, and had encamped on mount Ida.' Philip was thus enabled to commence his passage across the Hellespont whenever he pleased. But the close of his career was already at hand." He was assassinated in August, 336 B.C., by a certain Pausanias, at the instigation, it is said, of Olympias, one of Philip's several wives—and the mother of his famous son Alexander—whom he had repudiated to please a younger bride. "Philip was unquestionably an uncommon and extraordinary man, and the opinion of several among the ancients, that by the foundation of the Macedonian state he did something far greater than Alexander by the application of the powers he inherited, is quite correct. . . . When we regard him as the creator of his state, by uniting the most different nations,



Macedonians and Greeks; . . . when we reflect what a man he must have been, from whom proceeded the impulse to train such great generals, . . . to whom Alexander, it must be observed, did not add one, for all Alexander's generals proceeded from the school of Philip, and there is not one whom Alexander did not inherit from Philip;—when we perceive the skill with which he gained over nations and states, . . . we cannot but acknowledge that he was an extraordinary man."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient history*, v. 2, *lects.* 66, 69.—See also MACEDONIA: B.C. 345-336.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 5-6, *ch.* 43-46.—T. Leland, *History of the life and reign of Philip of Macedon*, *bk.* 2-5.

**B.C. 351-348.—Olynthian War.—Destruction of Olynthus.—Relations with Athens.**—After the overthrow of Spartan domination in Greece, Olynthus recovered its independence and regained, during the second quarter of the fourth century B.C., a considerable degree of prosperity and power. It was even helped in its rise by the cunning, dangerous band of Philip of Macedon, who secured many and great advantages in his treacherous diplomacy by playing the mutual jealousies of Athens and Olynthus against one another. The Olynthian confederacy, formed anew, just served its purpose as a counterpoise to the Athenian confederacy, until Philip had no more need of that service. He was the friend and ally of the former until he had secured Amphipolis, Methone, and other necessary positions in Macedonia and Thrace. Then the mask began to slip and Olynthus (351 B.C.) got glimpses of the true character of her subtle neighbor. Too late, she made overtures to Athens, and Athens, too late, saw the vital importance of a league of friendship between the two Greek confederacies, against the half Hellenic, half barbaric Macedonian kingdom. Three of the great speeches of Demosthenes—the "Olynthiac orations"—were made upon this theme, and the orator succeeded for the first time in persuading his degenerated countrymen to act upon his clear view of the situation. Athens and Olynthus were joined in a defensive league and Athenian ships and men were sent to the Chalcidian peninsula.—too late. Partly by the force of his arms and partly by the power of his gold, buying traitors, Philip took Olynthus (348 B.C.) and all the thirty-two lesser towns that were federated with her. He took them and he destroyed them most brutally. "The haughty city of Olynthus vanished from the face of the earth, and together with it thirty-two towns inhabited by Greeks and flourishing as commercial communities. . . . The lot of those who saved life and liberty was happy in comparison with the fate of those who, like the majority of the Olynthians, fell into the hands of the conqueror and were sold into slavery, while their possessions were burnt to ashes or flung as booty to the mercenaries. . . . The mines continued to be worked for the royal treasury; with this exception the whole of Chalcidice became a desert."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 5, *bk.* 7, *ch.* 3.

ALSO IN: A. M. Curteis, *Rise of the Macedonian empire*, *ch.* 4-5.—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient history*, v. 2, *lect.* 66-68.

**B.C. 340.—Siege of Byzantium by Philip of Macedonia.**—The enmity between Athens and Byzantium yielded in 340 B.C. to their common fear of Philip of Macedon, and the exertions of Demosthenes brought about an alliance of the two cities, in which Perinthus, the near neighbor

of Byzantium, was also joined. Philip, in wrath, proceeded with a fleet and army against both cities, laying siege, first to Perinthus and afterwards to Byzantium, but without success in either case. He was compelled to withdraw, after wasting several months in the fruitless undertaking. It was one of the few failures of the able Macedonian.—Based on G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 11, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 00.

**B.C. 336-335.—Northern campaign of Alexander of Macedonia.—Revolt at Thebes.—Destruction of the city.**—"There was as yet no fixity of succession to the Macedonian throne, and as a rule each new monarch had had to win his crown by violence. Alexander was more fortunate than his predecessors, for actual fighting there was none to do. He was set upon the throne by a *coup d'état*, during the paralysis induced by his father's death, and he had but to secure his position. This he did by putting to death Amyntas, that son of Perdiccas whom Philip had set aside indeed, but had suffered to live at his court. . . . The news of Philip's death was welcomed as a deliverance in Greece. At Athens there was offered a public service of thanksgiving. Demosthenes, as ever, was forward to take advantage of the seeming opportunity, and while the Greek states generally were astir, he sent emissaries to beg the aid of Persia. . . . But the Persian King did nothing. He had not time indeed, for before the Greeks themselves could come to any determination, Alexander had marched to Thebes, overawed all malcontents, obtained recognition by the Amphictyonic Council, received anew the submissive envoys of each and every state save Sparta, and summoned a second congress at Corinth (336 B.C.). In this congress he was at once named head of Greece and leader of the Persian crusade in Philip's place. . . . Alexander's first measure had been to declare himself in everything his father's son: he would maintain the honour of the Macedonian arms at home and abroad, and carry out his father's designs upon Asia. His first object had been to show that, despite his youth, he was capable of performing his promise; and it was with this purpose that he had instantly made an armed progress through Greece. With like aim he set himself to administer, to the tribes of his further frontiers, such a general chastisement as should effectually deter them from any aggressions during his intended absence in Asia. In the spring of 335 B.C. he forced the passes of Mount Haemus, fought his way to the Danube, made the passage of that river without fleet or bridge in face of the Getae, burned the stronghold of the tribe, and recrossed the river in safety."—A. H. Allcroft, *History of Greece*, 371-323 B.C., *pp.* 105-107.—"Byzantium . . . had, owing to its hostility with Persia, deserted the side of the Greeks for that of the Makedonians. It was from Byzantium that Alexander summoned triremes to help him against the island in the Danube on which the king of the Triballi had taken refuge. . . . The great successes of Alexander induced all the neighboring nationalities to accept the proposals of friendship which he made to them."—L. von Ranke, *Universal history: The oldest history group of nations and the Greeks*, *ch.* 10, *pt.* 2.—"Turning thence westward he traversed Paconia and ascended the valleys of the Axios and Erigon, to the range of Mount Scardus, and there engaged the whole levy of the Illyrians. For a moment he was in a critical position, but he extricated himself with flying colours, routed his enemies completely, and was ready to return to Pella when there reached him news that Thebes

was in revolt (335 B.C.). The activity and ability of Alexander had not been lost upon the Greek King, who could no longer hope that Philip's heir might prove to be without ambition or without military skill. It might, however, still be possible to give him enough to do in Europe, and in the early part of 335 B.C. the King, Darius Codomannus, did what he had been in vain asked to do before; he sent to his agents in Greece a sum of three hundred talents to be expended in organising and maintaining war against Macedonia. Chief amongst these agents, we are told, was Demosthenes. It has been said that the misconduct of the Macedonian officers and garrisons after the congress of 336 B.C. led to much ill-feeling, over and above that already previously existing, and such ill-feeling was easily worked upon by Persian gold. Moreover both at Thebes and at Athens there was an especially strong sentiment against the Macedonian supremacy."—A. H. Allcroft, *History of Greece, 371-323 B.C.*, p. 107.—"When, therefore, a report was spread in Greece that Alexander had met his death in the north, some Theban fugitives thought that the hour for revolt had come. They returned to Thebes, slew two Macedonian officers, whom they found at night in the lower city, and by means of the assertion that Alexander was dead induced their fellow-citizens to proclaim their independence and even to elect Boeotarchs, a token of the claim to suzerainty over the whole of Boeotia. The Macedonian garrison in the Cadmea did not withdraw as the Spartans had once done; but the Thebans were not discouraged by this. . . . Here the Thebans built a double row of stockades, by which they isolated the Macedonians in the Cadmea. They received much approbation in Greece but no assistance. The Arcadians advanced to the Isthmus, but no farther; Demosthenes sent arms but no troops. This was the position of affairs when Alexander appeared in Boeotia, so suddenly that when he had reached the Copaic Lake people in Thebes were not aware that he had passed Thermopylae. . . . Alexander now hoped Thebes would submit, in which case he would have treated her leniently. But hatred of Macedonia prevailed. . . . The city was taken by storm on the third day. Macedonian divisions carried the first row of palisades, and after a short struggle the second as well, and on their being repulsed by the Thebans, Alexander intervened in person, drove the Thebans out of their advance-works between the two palisades and forced his way into the city. The garrison of the Cadmea also flung itself upon the Thebans. The Macedonian onset was so fierce that a number of Theban cavalry, who were driven from the outwork into the city, fled without stopping through the opposite gate into the plain and were not heard of again. Over 6000 people were killed and 30,000 taken prisoners. Alexander allowed the Phocians, the Orchomenians, the Thespians and the Plataeans, who had joined him, to decide upon their fate. They condemned Thebes to the punishment which she had meted out to other Boeotian cities. The houses were destroyed [October, 335 B.C.]; only the temples and Pindar's house were left standing; the inhabitants were sold into slavery."—A. Holm, *History of Greece, v. 3, pp. 294-296*.—"The close connection that existed at this moment between Grecian and Persian affairs forbade him to lose a moment in turning his arms towards Asia. . . . A war between Alexander and Persia was inevitable, not only on account of the relation of the Greeks to Makedon, whose yoke they were very loth to bear,

but on account of their relation to Persia, on whose support they leaned. . . . The career which Philip had begun, and in which Alexander was now proceeding, led of necessity to a struggle with the power that held sway in Asia Minor. Until that power were defeated, the Macedonian kingdom could not be regarded as firmly established."—L. von Ranke, *Universal history: The oldest history group of nations and the Greeks, ch. 10, pt. 2*.

ALSO IN: Arrian, *Anabasis of Alexander, bk. 1, ch. 1-10*.—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander, ch. 14-17*.

**B.C. 335.—Influence of Alexander's conquests.** See EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Spread of Hellenism.

**B.C. 334-323.—Asiatic conquests of Alexander the Great.** See MACEDONIA: B.C. 334-330; 330-323.

**B.C. 332-167.—Judea under Greek domination.** See JEWS: B.C. 332-167.

**B.C. 327-312.—Influence in India.** See INDIA: B.C. 327-312.

**B.C. 323-322.—Attempt to break the Macedonian yoke.—The Lamian War.—Subjugation of Athens.—Suppression of democracy.—Expulsion of poor citizens.—Death of Demosthenes.**—"Within a very few months came the news of Alexander's death, and instantly all Greece was in a ferment of patriotic ardour [to break the Macedonian yoke]. Leosthenes led up his men from Taenarum, and from all sides the various states sent their contingents to his support [a league had been formed in which many cities joined]. Athens shared, or rather led, the revolt; and publicly declared her sentiments by the recall of Demosthenes. The confederate army marched into Thessaly, and several times defeated Antipater and his officers. In the autumn of 323 B.C. they held Antipater shut up within the walls of Lamia (*Zeitoun*), and refused to accept any terms short of his absolute and unconditional surrender. This Antipater, of course, refused, and set himself to await reinforcements from the Macedonian officers in Asia; but, before these could arrive, the death of Leosthenes, the last general whom Athens was fated to produce, changed the whole course of the war. Antipater made his escape from Lamia, and being joined by Craterus and large reinforcements in 322 B.C., he broke the confederate army at Crannon (August). With this first reverse the confederacy fell to pieces, and so completely did all resistance cease, that even Athens made no effort to maintain her old traditions. She surrendered unconditionally, received a Macedonian garrison into the fortifications of Peiraeus, reforming her constitution according to Macedonian dictation, disenfranchising and deporting no less than twelve thousand of the poorer citizens, paying the whole cost of the late war, and agreeing to surrender Demosthenes and his fellow-patriot Hyperides. Fortune saved her from the whole onus of this last disgrace: Hyperides was, indeed, taken and slain in sanctuary at Aegina, but Demosthenes, who had sought refuge in the temple of Poseidon at Calauria, near Troezen, forestalled a like fate by taking poison. He was about sixty-two years of age, and for thirty years he had fought the battle of liberty for such a reward as this. Such is the brief and dishonourable record of the Lamian War, the last struggle of the united Greeks to shake off the yoke of the Macedonian."—A. H. Allcroft, *History of Greece, 371-323 B.C.*, p. 161.

**B.C. 323-301.—Wars of the Diadochi or successors of Alexander.** See MACEDONIA: B.C. 323-316; 315-310; 310-301.

B.C. 321-312.—Contest for Athens and Peloponnesus, between Cassander and Polysperchon. — Execution of Phocion. — Restoration of Thebes.—“Antipater, after the termination of the Lamian war, passed over to Asia and took part in the affairs there [see MACEDONIA: B.C. 323-316]. Being appointed guardian to the Kings, as the children and relatives of Alexander were called, he returned to Macedonia, leading them with him. . . . Antipater died (Ol. 115, 3) shortly after his return to Macedonia. He directed that Polysperchon, his ancient mate in arms, should succeed him in his office, while to his son Cassander he left only the second place. But Cassander, an ambitious youth, looked upon his father's authority as his inheritance; and relying on the aid of the aristocratic party in the Grecian states, of Ptolemæus, who ruled in Egypt, and of Antigonus, the most powerful general in Asia, he resolved to dispute it with Polysperchon. . . . Polysperchon, seeing war inevitable, resolved to detach Greece, if possible, from Cassander. Knowing that the oligarchies established in the different states by Antipater would be likely to espouse the cause of his son, he issued a pompous edict, in the name of the Kings, restoring the democracies. . . . At Athens (Ol. 115, 4) [317 B.C.], Nicanor, who commanded in the Munychia, finding that the people were inclined toward Polysperchon, secretly collected troops, and seized the Piræus. The people sent to him Phocion, Conon the son of Timotheüs, and Clearchus, men of distinction, and his friends; but to no purpose. A letter also came to him from Olympias, Alexander's mother, whom Polysperchon had recalled from Epeirus, and given the charge of her infant grandson, ordering him to surrender both the Munychia and the Piræus; but to as little effect. Finally, Polysperchon's son Alexander entered Attica with an army, and encamped before the Piræus. Phocion and other chiefs of the aristocracy went to Alexander, and advised him not to give these places up to the people, but to hold them himself till the contest with Cassander should be terminated. . . . The people, ferocious with the recovery of power, soon after held an assembly, in which they deposed all the former magistrates, appointed the most furious democrats in their room, and passed sentences of death, banishment, and confiscation of goods on those who had governed under the oligarchy. Phocion and his friends fled to Alexander, who received them kindly, and sent them with letters in their favor to his father, who was now in Phocis. The Athenians also despatched an embassy, and, yielding to motives of interest, Polysperchon sent his suppliants prisoners to Athens, to stand a trial for their lives before the tribunal of an anarchic mob. . . . The prisoners were condemned and led off to prison. . . . Polysperchon immediately entered Attica, and encamped near the Piræus. But as the siege was likely to be tedious, and sufficient provisions for so large an army could not be had, he left a force such as the country could support with his son Alexander, and passed with the remainder into Peloponnesus, to force the Megalopolitans to submit to the Kings; for they alone sided with Cassander, all the rest having obeyed the directions to put to death or banish his adherents. . . . He attempted a storm, but was obliged to draw off his men, after an obstinate conflict. . . . The Athenians meantime saw themselves excluded from the sea, and from all their sources of profit and enjoyment, while little aid was to be expected from Polysperchon, who had been forced to raise the siege of Megalopolis,

and whose fleet had just now been destroyed by Antigonus in the Hellespont. A citizen of some consideration ventured at length to propose in the assembly an arrangement with Cassander. The ordinary tumult at first was raised, but the sense of interest finally prevailed. Peace was procured, on the conditions of the Munychia remaining in Cassander's hands till the end of the present contest; political privileges being restricted to those possessed of ten minas and upwards of property, and a person appointed by Cassander being at the head of the government. The person selected for this office was Demetrius of Phaleron, a distinguished Athenian citizen; and under his mild and equitable rule the people were far happier than they could have been under a democracy, for which they had proved themselves no longer fit. Cassander then passed over into Peloponnesus, and laid siege to Tegea. While here, he heard that Olympias had put to death several of his friends in Macedonia; among the rest, Philip Aridæus and his wife Eurydice, members of the royal family. He at once (Ol. 116, 1) [316 B.C.] set out for Macedonia; and, as the pass of Pylæ was occupied by the Ætolians, he embarked his troops in Locris, and landed them in Thessaly. . . . He forced a passage through Pylæ, and coming into Bœotia, announced his intention of restoring Thebes, which had now lain desolate for twenty years. The scattered Thebans were collected; the towns of Bœotia and other parts of Greece (Athens in particular), and even of Italy and Sicily, aided to raise the walls and to supply the wants of the returning exiles, and Thebes was once more numbered among the cities of Greece. As Alexander guarded the Isthmus, Cassander passed to Megara, where he embarked his troops and elephants, and crossed over to Epidaurus. He made Argos and Messene come over to his side, and then returned to Macedonia. . . . The command in Peloponnesus was given to Polysperchon, whose son Alexander was summoned over to Asia to accuse Cassander of treason before the assembly of the Macedonian soldiers. Cassander was proclaimed a public enemy unless he submitted to Antigonus; at the same time the Greeks were declared independent, Antigonus hoping thus to gain them over to his side. He then sent Alexander back with 500 talents; and when Ptolemæus of Egypt heard what Antigonus had done, he also hastened to declare the independence of the Greeks; for all the contending generals were anxious to stand well with the people of Greece, from which country, exclusive of other advantages, they drew their best soldiers. . . . Antigonus, to show the Greeks that he was in earnest in his promise to restore them to independence, sent one of his generals, named Telesphorus, with a fleet and army to Peloponnesus, who expelled Cassander's garrisons from most of the towns. The following year (Ol. 117, 1) [312 B.C.] he sent an officer, named Ptolemæus, with another fleet and army to Greece. Ptolemæus landed in Bœotia, and being joined by 2,200 foot, and 1,300 horse of the Bœotians, he passed over to Eubœa; where having expelled the Macedonian garrison from Chalcis (the only town there which Cassander held), he left it without any foreign garrison, as a proof that Antigonus meant fairly. He then took Orópus, and gave it to the Bœotians; he entered Attica, and the people forced Demetrius Phalereus to make a truce with him, and to send to Antigonus to treat of an alliance. Ptolemæus returned to Bœotia, expelled the garrison from the Cadmeia, and liberated Thebes.”—T. Keightley, *History of Greece*, pt. 3, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 7, ch. 58.

**B.C. 307-197.—Demetrius and the Antigonids.**—In the spring of the year 307 B.C. Athens was surprised by an expedition sent from Ephesus by Antigonus, under his adventurous son Demetrius, surnamed Poliorcetes (see MACEDONIA: B.C. 310-301). The city had then been for ten years subject to Cassander, the ruling chief in Macedonia for the time, and appears to have been mildly governed by Cassander's lieutenant, Demetrius the Phalerian. The coming of the other Demetrius offered nothing to the Athenians but a change of masters, but they welcomed him with extravagant demonstrations. Their degeneracy was shown in proceedings of Asiatic servility. They defied Demetrius and his father Antigonus, erected altars to them and appointed ministering priests. After some months spent at Athens in the enjoyment of these adulations, Demetrius returned to Asia, to take part in the war which Antigonus was waging with Ptolemy of Egypt and Lysimachus of Thrace, two of his former partners in the partition of the empire of Alexander. He was absent three years, and then returned, at the call of the Athenians, to save them from falling again into the hands of Cassander. He now made Athens his capital, as it were, for something more than a year, while he acquired control of Corinth, Argos, Sicyon, Chalcis in Eubœa and other important places, greatly reducing the dominion of the Macedonian, Cassander. But in the summer of 301 B.C. this clever adventurer was summoned again to Asia, to aid his father in the last great struggle, which decided the partition of the empire of Alexander between his self-constituted heirs. At the battle of Ipsus (see MACEDONIA: B.C. 310-301), Antigonus perished and Demetrius was stripped of the kingdom he expected to inherit. He turned to Athens for consolation, and the fickle city refused to admit him within her walls. But after some period of wanderings and adventures the unconquerable prince got together a force with which he compelled the Athenians to receive him, on more definite terms of submission on their part and of mastery on his. Moreover, he established his rule in the greater part of Peloponnesus, and finally, on the death of Cassander (297 B.C.), he acquired the crown of Macedonia. Not satisfied with what fortune had thus given him, he attempted to recover the Asiatic kingdom of his father, and died, 283 B.C., a captive in the hands of the Syrian monarch, Seleucus. His Macedonian kingdom had meantime been seized by Pyrrhus of Epirus; but it was ultimately recovered by the eldest legitimate son of Demetrius, called Antigonus Gonatus. From that time, for a century, until the Romans came, not only Macedonia, but Greece at large, Athens included, was ruled or dominated by this king and his descendants, known as the Antigonid kings.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 7-8, ch. 59-60.

**B.C. 297-280.—Death of Cassander.—Intrigues and murders of Ptolemy Keraunos and his strange acquisition of the Macedonian throne.** See MACEDONIA: B.C. 297-280.

**B.C. 280-279.—Invasion by the Gauls.** See GAUL: B.C. 280-279.

**B.C. 280-275.—Campaigns of Pyrrhus in Italy and Sicily.** See ROME: Republic: B.C. 281-272.

**B.C. 3rd century.—Hellenistic world.**—As the result of the conquests of Alexander and the wars of his successors, there were, in the third century before Christ, three great Hellenistic kingdoms, "Macedonia, Egypt, Syria, which lasted,

each under its own dynasty, till Rome swallowed them up. The first of these, which was the poorest, and the smallest, but historically the most important, included the ancestral possessions of Philip and Alexander—Macedonia, most of Thrace, Thessaly, the mountainous centre of the peninsula, as well as a protectorate more or less definite and absolute over Greece proper, the Cyclades, and certain tracts of Caria. . . . Next came Egypt, including Cyrene and Cyprus, and a general protectorate over the sea-coast cities of Asia Minor up to the Black Sea, together with claims often asserted with success on Syria, and on the coast lands of Southern Asia Minor. . . . Thirdly came what was now called Syria, on account of the policy of the house of Seleucus, who built there its capital, and determined to make the Greek or Hellenistic end of its vast dominions its political centre of gravity. The Kingdom of Syria owned the south and south-east of Asia Minor, Syria, and generally Palestine, Mesopotamia, and the mountain provinces adjoining it on the East, with vague claims further east when there was no king like Sandracottus to hold India and the Punjab with a strong hand. There was still a large element of Hellenism in these remote parts. The kingdom of Bactria was ruled by a dynasty of kings with Greek names—Euthydemus is the chief—who coined in Greek style, and must therefore have regarded themselves as successors to Alexander. There are many exceptions and limitations to this general description, and many secondary and semi-independent kingdoms, which make the picture of Hellenism infinitely various and complicated. There was, in fact, a chain of independent kingdoms reaching from Media to Sparta, all of which asserted their complete freedom, and generally attained it by balancing the great powers one against the other. Here they are in their order. Atropatene was the kingdom in the northern and western parts of the province of Media, by Atropates, the satrap of Alexander, who claimed descent from the seven Persian chiefs who put Darius I. on the throne. Next came Armenia, hardly conquered by Alexander, and now established under a dynasty of its own. Then Cappadocia, the land in the heart of Asia Minor, where it narrows between Cilicia and Pontus, ruled by sovereigns also claiming royal Persian descent. . . . Fourthly, Pontus, under its equally Persian dynast Mithridates—a kingdom which makes a great figure in Eastern history under the later Roman Republic. There was moreover a dynast of Bithynia, set up and supported by the robber state of the Celtic Galatians, which had just been founded, and was a source of strength and of danger to all its neighbours. Then Pergamum, just being founded and strengthened by the first Attalid, Philetærus, an officer of Lysimachus, and presently to become one of the leading exponents of Hellenism. . . . Almost all these second-rate states (and with them the free Greek cities of Heracleia, Cyzicus, Byzantium, &c.) were fragments of the shattered kingdom of Lysimachus. . . . We have taken no account of a very peculiar feature extending all through even the Greek kingdoms, especially that of the Selucids—the number of large Hellenistic cities founded as special centres of culture, or points of defence, and organized as such with a certain local independence. These cities, most of which we only know by name, were the real backbone of Hellenism in the world. Alexander had founded seventy of them, all called by his name. Many were upon great trade lines, like the Alexandria which still exists. Many were intended as garrison towns

in the centre of remote provinces, like Candahar—a corruption of Iskanderieh, Iskandar being the Oriental form for Alexander. Some were mere outposts, where Macedonian soldiers were forced to settle, and guard the frontiers against the barbarians, like the Alexandria on the Iaxartes. . . . As regards Seleucus . . . we have a remarkable statement from Appian that he founded cities through the length and breadth of his kingdom, viz., sixteen Antiochs called after his father, five Laodiceas after his mother, nine Seleucias after himself, three Apameias and one Stratoniceia after his wives. . . . All through Syria and Upper Asia there are many towns bearing Greek and Macedonian names—Berea, Edessa, Perinthos, Achæa, Pella, &c. The number of these, which have been enumerated in a special catalogue by Droysen, the learned historian of Hellenism, is enormous, and the first question which arises in our minds is this: where were Greek-speaking people found to fill them? It is indeed true that Greece proper about this time became depopulated, and that it never has recovered from this decay. . . . Yet . . . the whole population of Greece would never have sufficed for one tithe of the cities—the great cities—founded all over Asia by the Diadochi. We are therefore driven to the conclusion that but a small fraction, the soldiers and officials of the new cities, were Greeks—Macedonians, when founded by Alexander himself—generally broken down veterans, mutinous and discontented troops, and camp followers. To these were associated people from the surrounding country, it being Alexander's fixed idea to discountenance sporadic country life in villages and encourage town communities. The towns accordingly received considerable privileges. . . . The Greek language and political habits were thus the one bond of union among them, and the extraordinary colonizing genius of the Greek once more proved itself.”—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 10.—See also HELLENISM, B.C. 280-146.—Achæan League.—Rise and fall.—Destruction of Sparta.—Supremacy of Rome.—The Achæan league, which bore a leading part in the affairs of Greece during the last half of the third and first half of the second century before Christ, was in some sense the revival of a more ancient confederacy among the cities of Achæa in Peloponnesus. The older league, however, was confined to twelve cities of Achæa and had little weight, apparently, in general Hellenic politics. The revived league grew beyond the territorial boundaries which were indicated by its name, and embraced the larger part of Peloponnesus. It began about 280 B.C. by the forming of a union between the two Achæan cities of Patrai and Dyme. One by one their neighbors joined them, until ten cities were confederated and acting as one. “The first years of the growth of the Achæan League are contemporary with the invasion of Macedonia and Greece by the Gauls and with the wars between Pyrrhos and Antigonos Gonatas [see MACEDONIA: B.C. 277-244]. Pyrrhos, for a moment, expelled Antigonos from the Macedonian throne, which Antigonos recovered while Pyrrhos was warring in Peloponnesus. By the time that Pyrrhos was dead, and Antigonos again firmly fixed in Macedonia, the League had grown up to maturity as far as regarded the cities of the old Achæa. . . . Thus far, then, circumstances had favoured the quiet and peaceful growth of the League.” It had had the opportunity to grow firm enough and strong enough, on the small scale, to offer some lessons to its disunited and tyrannized

neighbors and to exercise an attractive influence upon them. One of the nearest of these neighbors was Sicyon, which groaned under a tyranny that had been fastened upon it by Macedonian influence. Among the exiles from Sicyon was a remarkable young man named Aratus, or Aratos, to whom the successful working of the small Achæan league suggested some broader extension of the same political organism. In 251 B.C., Aratus succeeded in delivering his native city from its tyrant and in bringing about the annexation of Sicyon to the Achæan league. Eight years later, having meantime been elected to the chief office of the league, Aratus accomplished the expulsion of the Macedonians and their agents from Corinth, Megara, Troizen and Epidaurus, and persuaded those four cities to unite themselves with the Achæans. During the next ten years he made similar progress in Arcadia, winning town after town to the federation, until the Arcadian federal capital, Megalopolis, was enrolled in the list of members, and gave to the league its greatest acquisition of energy and brain. In 229 B.C. the skill of Aratus and the prestige of the league, taking advantage of disturbances in Macedonia, effected the withdrawal of the Macedonian garrisons from Athens and the liberation of that city, which did not become confederated with its liberators, but entered into alliance with them. Argos was emancipated and annexed, 228 B.C., and “the League was now the greatest power of Greece. A Federation of equal cities, democratically governed, embraced the whole of old Achæa, the whole of the Argolic peninsula, the greater part of Arkadia, together with Phlious, Sicyon, Corinth, Megara, and the island of Aigina.” The one rival of the Achæan league in Peloponnesus was Sparta, which looked with jealousy upon its growing power, and would not be confederated with it. The consequences of that jealous rivalry were fatal to the hopes for Greece which the Achæan union had seemed to revive. Unfortunately, rather than otherwise, the Lacedæmonian throne came to be occupied at this time by the last of the hero-kings of the Heracleid race—Cleomenes. When the inevitable collision of war between Sparta and the league occurred (227-221 B.C.), the personal figure of Cleomenes loomed so large in the conflict that it took the name of the Cleomenic War. Aratus was the worst of generals, Cleomenes one of the greatest, and the Achæans were steadily beaten in the field. Driven to sore straits at last, they abandoned the whole original purpose of their federation, by inviting the king of Macedonia to help them crush the independence of Sparta. To win his aid they gave-up Corinth to him, and under his leadership they achieved the shameful victory of Sellasia (221 B.C.), where all that is worthy in Lacedæmonian history came to an end. The league was now scarcely more than a dependency of the Macedonian kingdom, and figured as such in the so-called Social War with the Ætolian league, 210-217 B.C. The wars of Rome with Macedonia which followed renewed its political importance considerably for a time. Becoming the ally of Rome, it was able to maintain a certain dignity and influence until the supremacy of the Roman arms had been securely proved, and then it sank to the helpless insignificance which all Roman alliances led to in the end. It was in that state when, on some complaint from Rome (167 B.C.), a thousand of the chief citizens of Achæa were sent as prisoners to Italy and detained there until less than 300 survived to return to their homes. Among them was the historian Polybius. A little

later (146 B.C.) there was a wild revolt from the Roman yoke, in which Corinth took the lead. A few months of war ensued, ending in a decisive battle at Leucopetra. Then Corinth was sacked and destroyed by the Roman army and the Achaean league disappeared from history.—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 5-9.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 8, ch. 61-66.—Polybius, *History*.

**B.C. 224.**—Battle of Hecatombaeon of Sparta against Achæan League. See **HECATOMBÆON, BATTLE OF**.

**B.C. 214-146.**—Roman conquest.—The series of wars in which the Romans made themselves masters of Greece were known in their annals as the Macedonian Wars. At the beginning, they were innocent of aggression. A young and ambitious but unprincipled king of Macedonia—Philip, who succeeded the able Antigonus Dosis—had put himself in alliance with the Carthaginians and assailed the Romans in the midst of their desperate conflict with Hannibal. For the time they were unable to do more than trouble Philip so far as to prevent his bringing effective reinforcements to the enemy at their doors, and this they accomplished in part by a treaty with the Ætoliæ, which enlisted that unscrupulous league upon their side. The first Macedonian war, which began 214 B.C., was terminated by the Peace of Dyrachium, 205 B.C. The peace was of five years duration, and Philip employed it in reckless undertakings against Pergamus, against Rhodes, against Athens, every one of which carried complaints to Rome, the rising arbiter of the Mediterranean world, whose hostility Philip lost no opportunity to provoke. On the ides of March, 200 B.C., the Roman senate declared war. In the spring of 197 B.C. this second Macedonian War was ended at the battle of Cynoscephalæ—so called from the name of a range of hills known as the dog-heads—where the Macedonian army was annihilated by the consul T. Quinctius Flaminius. At the next assembly of the Greeks for the Isthmian games, a crier made proclamation in the arena that the Roman Senate and T. Quinctius the general, having conquered King Philip and the Macedonians, declared all the Greeks who had been subject to the king free and independent. Henceforth, whatever freedom and independence the states of Greece enjoyed were according to the will of Rome. An interval of twenty-five years, broken by the invasion of Antiochus and his defeat by the Romans at Thermopylæ (see **SELEUCTOÆ**: B.C. 224-187), was followed by a third Macedonian War. Philip was now dead and succeeded by his son Perseus, known to be hostile to Rome and accused of intrigues with her enemies. The Roman Senate forestalled his intentions by declaring war. The war which opened 171 B.C. was closed by the battle of Pydna, fought June 22, 168 B.C., where 20,000 Macedonians were slain and 11,000 taken prisoners, while the Romans lost scarcely 100 men. Perseus attempted flight, but was soon driven to give himself up and was sent to Rome. The Macedonian kingdom was then extinguished and its territory divided between four nominal republics, tributary to Rome. Twenty years after, there was an attempt made by a pretender to re-establish the Macedonian throne, and a fourth Macedonian War occurred; but it was soon finished (146 B.C.—see above, 280-146 B.C.). The four republics then gave way, to form a Roman province of Macedonia and Epirus, while the remainder of Greece, in turn, became the Roman province of Achæa.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, v. 8,

ch. 64-66.—See also **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 215-196; B.C. 197-146.

ALSO IN: H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, ch. 39, 43, 45.—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 8-9.—Polybius, *General history*.—M. D. Volonakis, *Island of Roses and her eleven sisters*.

**B.C. 191.**—War of Antiochus of Syria and the Romans. See **SELEUCIDÆ**: B.C. 224-187.

**B.C. 155.**—Invasion of India by Menander. See **INDIA**: B.C. 231-A.D. 480.

**B.C. 146-A.D. 180.**—Under the Romans, to the reign of Marcus Aurelius.—Sufferings in the Mithradatic War and revolt, and in the Roman civil wars.—Treatment by the emperors.—Munificence of Herodes Atticus.—“It was some time [after the Roman conquest] before the Greeks had great reason to regret their fortune. A combination of causes, which could hardly have entered into the calculations of any politician, enabled them to preserve their national institutions, and to exercise all their former social influence, even after the annihilation of their political existence. Their vanity was flattered by their admitted superiority in arts and literature, and by the respect paid to their usages and prejudices by the Romans. Their political subjection was at first not very burdensome; and a considerable portion of the nation was allowed to retain the appearance of independence. Athens and Sparta were honoured with the title of allies of Rome. [Athens retained this independent existence, partaking something of the position of Hamburg in the Germanic body, until the time of Caracalla, when its citizens were absorbed into the Roman empire.] The nationality of the Greeks was so interwoven with their municipal institutions, that the Romans found it impossible to abolish the local administration; and an imperfect attempt made at the time of the conquest of Achæa was soon abandoned. . . . The Roman senate was evidently not without great jealousy and some fear of the Greeks; and great prudence was displayed in adopting a number of measures by which they were gradually weakened, and cautiously broken to the yoke of their conquerors. . . . It was not until after the time of Augustus, when the conquest of every portion of the Greek nation had been completed, that the Romans began to view the Greeks in the contemptible light in which they are represented by the writers of the capital. Crete was not reduced into the form of a province until about eight years after the subjection of Achæa, and its conquest was not effected without difficulty, after a war of three years, by the presence of a consular army. The resistance it offered was so obstinate that it was almost depopulated ere the Romans could complete its conquest. . . . The Roman government . . . soon adopted measures tending to diminish the resources of the Greek states when received as allies of the republic. . . . If we could place implicit faith in the testimony of so firm and partial an adherent of the Romans as Polybius, we must believe that the Roman administration was at first characterised by a love of justice, and that the Roman magistrates were far less venal than the Greeks. . . . Less than a century of irresponsible power effected a wonderful change in the conduct of the Roman magistrates. Cicero declares that the senate made a traffic of justice to the provincials. . . . But as the government of Rome grew more oppressive, and the amount of the taxes levied on the provinces was more severely exacted, the increased power of the republic rendered any rebellion of the Greeks utterly hopeless. . . . For

sixty years after the conquest of Achaia, the Greeks remained docile subjects of Rome. . . . The number of Roman usurers increased, and the exactions of Roman publicans in collecting the taxes became more oppressive, so that when the army of Mithridates invaded Greece, B.C. 86, while Rome appeared plunged in anarchy by the civil broils of the partisans of Marius and Sylla, the Greeks in office conceived the vain hope of recovering their independence [see MITHRADATIC WARS; ATHENS: B.C. 87-86]. . . . Both parties, during the Mithradatic war, inflicted severe injuries on Greece. . . . Many of the losses were never repaired. The foundations of national prosperity were undermined, and it henceforward became impossible to save from the annual consumption of the inhabitants the sums necessary to replace the accumulated capital of ages, which this short war had annihilated."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans*, ch. 1.—"Scarcely had the storm of Roman war passed by, when the Cilician pirates, finding the coasts of Greece peculiarly favorable for their marauding incursions, and tempted by the wealth accumulated in the cities and temples, commenced their depredations on so gigantic a scale that Rome felt obliged to put forth all her military forces for their suppression. The exploits of Pompey the Great, who was clothed with autocratic power to destroy this gigantic evil, fill the brightest chapter in the history of that celebrated but too unfortunate commander [see CILICIA, Pirates of]. . . . The civil wars in which the great Republic expired had the fields of Greece for their theatre. Under the tramp of contending armies, her fertile plains were desolated, and Roman blood, in a cause not her own, again and again moistened her soil [see ROME: Republic: B.C. 48; B.C. 44-42; B.C. 31]. But at length the civil wars have come to an end, and the Empire introduces, for the first time in the melancholy history of man, a state of universal peace. Greece still maintains her pre-eminence in literature and art, and her schools are frequented by the sons of the Roman aristocracy. Her elder poets serve as models to the literary genius of the Augustan age. . . . The historians form themselves on Attic prototypes, and the philosophers of Rome divide themselves among the Grecian sects, while in Athens the Platonists, the Stoics, the Peripatetics, and the Epicureans still haunt the scenes with which the names of their masters were inseparably associated. . . . The establishment of the Empire made but little change in the administration of Greece. Augustus, indeed, showed no great solicitude, except to maintain the country in subjection by his military colonies,—especially those of Patrae and Nicopolis. He even deprived Athens of the privileges she had enjoyed under the Republic, and broke down the remaining power of Sparta, by declaring the independence of her subject towns. Some of his successors treated the country with favor, and endeavored, by a clement use of authority, to mitigate the sufferings of its decline. Even Nero, the amiable fiddler of Rome, was proud to display the extent of his musical abilities in their theatres. . . . The noble Trajan allowed the Greeks to retain their former local privileges, and did much to improve their condition by his wise and just administration. Hadrian was a passionate lover of Greek art and literature. Athens especially received the amplest benefits from his taste and wealth. He finished the temple of Olympian Zeus; established a public library; built a pantheon and a gymnasium; rebuilt the temple of Apollo at Megara; improved the old roads of

Greece and made new ones. . . . Antoninus and Marcus Aurelius showed good will to Greece. The latter rebuilt the temple at Eleusis, and improved the Athenian schools, raising the salaries of the teachers, and in various ways contributing to make Athens, as it had been before, the most illustrious seat of learning in the world. It was in the reign of this Emperor, in the second century of our era, that one of the greatest benefactors of Athens and all Greece lived,—Herodes Atticus, distinguished alike for wealth, learning, and eloquence. Born at Marathon, . . . educated at Athens by the best teachers his father's wealth could procure, he became on going to Rome, in early life, the rhetorical teacher of Marcus Aurelius himself. Antoninus Pius bestowed on him the honor of the consulship; but he preferred the career of a teacher at Athens to the highest political dignities, . . . and he was followed thither by young men of the most eminent Roman families, from the Emperor's down. . . . At Athens, south of the Ilissus, he built the stadium . . . and the theatre of Regilla. . . . At Corinth he built a theatre; at Olympia, an aqueduct; at Delphi, a race-course; and at Thermopylae, a hospital. Peloponnesus, Eubœa, Bœotia, and Epeirus experienced his bounty, and even Italy was not forgotten in the lavish distribution of his wealth. He died in 180."—C. C. Felton, *Greece, Ancient and modern*, 4th course, v. 2, lect. 3.—See also ATHENS: B.C. 107-A.D. 138.—On the influence which Greek genius and culture exercised upon the Romans, see HELLENISM.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome: The provinces*, v. 1, ch. 7.—J. P. Mahaffy, *Greek world under Roman sway*.—M. D. Volonakis, *Island of Roses and her eleven sisters*.

B.C. 64-63.—Hellenistic element in Syria. See SYRIA: B.C. 64-63.

B.C. 48.—Cæsar's campaign against Pompeius.—Pharsalia. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 48.

A.D. 54-60.—St. Paul in Athens and Corinth. See CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 35-60.

258-395.—Gothic invasions. See GOTHS: 258-267; 395.

330.—Transference of the capital of the Roman empire to Byzantium (Constantinople). See CONSTANTINOPLE: 330.

394-395.—Final division of the Roman empire between the sons of Theodosius.—Definite organization of the Eastern empire under Arcadius. See ROME: Empire: 394-395.

425.—Legal separation of the Eastern and Western empires. See ROME: Empire: 423-450.

446.—Devastating invasion of the Huns. See HUNS: 441-446.

527-567.—Reign of Justinian at Constantinople.—Recovery of Italy and Africa. See ROME: Medieval city: 527-565; 535-553.

717-1205.—Byzantine period. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 717, to 1204-1205; COMMERCE: Medieval: 8th-10th centuries.

11th century.—Christian belief.—Schism with western church. See CHRISTIANITY: 11th-13th centuries: Extent of Christendom.

1146.—Invasion and sack of Thebes and Corinth by Roger, king of Sicily. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1146.

1204-1350.—Greek despotat in Epirus. See EPIRUS: 1204-1350.

1205-1261.—Overthrow of the Byzantine empire by the Crusaders.—Latin empire of Romania.—Greek empire of Nicæa.—Dukedoms of Athens and Naxos.—Principality of Achæa. See ROMANIA, EMPIRE OF; NICÆA: 1204-1261;

ATHENS: 1205-1308; ACHÆA: 1205-1387; NAXOS: 1204-1567.

1246-1252.—Conquest of Macedonia from Bulgaria. See MACEDONIA: 11th-15th centuries.

1261-1453.—Restored Byzantine or Greek empire. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1261-1453.

1310-1311.—Catalans in the service of Walter de Brienne. See CATALAN GRAND COMPANY.

1348-1355.—Allied with Venice and Aragon against Genoa. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1348-1355.

1393-1767.—Dominance in church affairs in Bulgaria. See BULGARIA: 1258-1872.

1453-1479.—Turkish conquest. See TURKEY: 1451-1481; CONSTANTINOPLE: 1453; 1453-1481; ATHENS: 1456.

1454-1479.—War of Turks and Venetians in the peninsula.—Siege of Corinth.—Sack of Athens.—Massacres at Negropont and Croia.—“The taking of Constantinople by the Turks, and the captivity of the Venetians settled in Pera, threatened [the power of Venice] . . . in the East; and she felt no repugnance to enter into a treaty with the enemies of her religion. After a year's negotiation, terms were concluded [1454] between the Sultan and Venice; by which her possessions were secured to her, and her trade guaranteed throughout the empire. In virtue of this treaty she continued to occupy Modon, Coron, Napoli di Romania, Argos, and other cities on the borders of the Peninsula, together with Eubœa (Negropont) and some of the smaller islands. But this good understanding was interrupted in 1463, when the Turks contrived an excuse for attacking the Venetian territory. Under pretence of resenting the asylum afforded to a Turkish refugee, the Pasha of the Morea besieged and captured Argos; and the Republic felt itself compelled immediately to resent the aggression. A re-inforcement was sent from Venice to Napoli, and Argos was quickly recaptured. Corinth was next besieged, and the project of fortifying the isthmus was once more renewed. . . . The labour of 30,000 workmen accomplished the work in 15 days; a stone wall of more than 12 feet high, defended by a ditch and flanked by 136 towers, was drawn across the isthmus. . . . But the approach of the Turks, whose numbers were probably exaggerated by report, threw the Venetians into distrust and consternation; and, unwilling to confide in the strength of their rampart, they abandoned the siege of Corinth, and retreated to Napoli, from which the infidels were repulsed with the loss of 5,000 men. The Peloponnesus was now exposed to the predatory retaliations of the Turks and Venetians; and the Christians appeared anxious to rival or surpass the Mahomedans in the refinement of their barbarous inflictions. . . . In the year 1465, Sigismondo Malatesta landed in the Morea with a re-inforcement of 1,000 men; and, without effecting the reduction of the citadel, captured and burned Misitra [near the ruins of ancient Sparta]. In the following year, Vittore Cappello, with the Venetian fleet, arrived in the straits of Euripus; and landing at Aulis marched into Attica. After making himself master of the Piræus, he laid siege to Athens; her walls were overthrown; her inhabitants plundered; and the Venetians retreated with the spoil to the opposite shores of Eubœa. The victorious career of Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, for a time diverted the Sultan from the war in the Morca; but . . . in the beginning of the year 1470 a fleet of 108 galleys, besides a number of smaller vessels, manned by a force 70,000 strong, issued from the harbour of Constantinople, and sailed for the

straits of Euripus. . . . The army landed without molestation on the island, which they united to the mainland by a bridge of boats, and immediately proceeded to lay siege to the city of Negropont. . . . The hopes of the besieged were now centred in the Venetian fleet, which, under the command of Nicolo Canale, lay at anchor in the Saronic Gulf. But that admiral, whilst he awaited a re-inforcement, let slip the favourable opportunity of preventing the debarcation of the enemy, or of shutting up the Turks in the island by the destruction of their half-deserted fleet and bridge of boats. By an unaccountable inactivity, he suffered the city to be attacked, which, after a vigorous resistance of nearly a month, was carried by assault [July 12, 1470]; and all the inhabitants, who did not escape into the citadel, were put to the sword. At length that fortress was also taken; and the barbarous conqueror, who had promised to respect the head of the intrepid governor, deemed it no violation of his word to saw his victim in halves. After this decisive blow, which reduced the whole island, Mahomed led back his conquering army to Constantinople. . . . This success encouraged the Turks to attack the Venetians in their Italian territory; and the Pasha of Bosnia invaded Istria and Friuli, and carried fire and sword almost to the gates of Udine. In the following year [1474], however, the Turks were baffled in their attempt to reduce Scutari in Albania, which had been delivered by the gallant Scanderbeg to the guardian care of Venice. Some abortive negotiations for peace suspended hostilities until 1477, when the troops of Mahomed laid siege to Croia in Albania, which they reduced to the severest distress. But a new incursion into Friuli struck a panic into the inhabitants of Venice, who beheld, from the tops of their churches and towers, the raging flames which devoured the neighbouring villages.” The Turks, however, withdrew into Albania, where the siege of Croia was terminated by its surrender and the massacre of its inhabitants, and the Sultan, in person, renewed the attack on Scutari. The stubborn garrison of that stronghold, however, resisted, with fearful slaughter, a continuous assault made upon their walls during two days and a night. Mahomed was forced to convert the siege into a blockade, and his troops reappeared in Friuli. “These repeated aggressions on her territories made Venice every day more anxious to conclude a peace with the Sultan,” and a treaty was signed in April, 1479. “It was agreed that the islands of Negropont and Mitylene, with the cities of Croia and Scutari in Albania, and of Tenaro in the Morea, should be consigned to the Turk; whilst other conquests were to be reciprocally restored to their former owners. A tribute of 10,000 ducats was imposed upon Venice, and the inhabitants of Scutari [now reduced to 500 men and 150 women] were to be permitted to evacuate the city.”—R. Comyn, *History of the Western empire*, v. 2, ch. 31.

ALSO IN: E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 5.

1645-1669.—War of Candia.—Surrender of Crete to the Turks by the Venetians. See TURKEY: 1645-1669.

1681-1696.—Conquests by the Venetians from the Turks. See ATHENS: 1687-1688; TURKEY: 1684-1696.

1699.—Cession of part of the Morea to Venice by the Turks. See HUNGARY: 1683-1699.

1714-1718.—Venetians expelled again from the Morea by the Turks.—Corfu defended. See TURKEY: 1714-1718.



1770-1772.—Revolt against the Turkish rule.—Russian encouragement and desertion. See TURKEY: 1768-1774.

1821-1829.—Overthrow of Turkish rule.—Intervention of Russia, England and France.—Battle of Navarino.—Establishment of national independence.—“The Spanish revolution of 1820 [see SPAIN: 1814-1827], which was speedily followed by the revolutions of Naples, Sicily, and Piedmont, caused a great excitement throughout Europe, and paved the way for the Greek revolution of 1821. Since the beginning of the century the Greeks had been preparing for the struggle; in fact, for more than fifty years there had been a general movement in the direction of independence. . . . There had been many insurrections against the Turkish authority, but they were generally suppressed without difficulty, though with the shedding of much Greek blood. Nearly every village in Greece suffered from pillage by the Turks, and the families were comparatively few that did not mourn a father, son, or brother, killed by the Turks or carried into slavery, or a daughter or sister transported to a Turkish harem. . . . Notwithstanding their subjugation, many of the Greeks were commercially prosperous, and a large part of the traffic of the East was in their hands. They conducted nearly all the coasting trade of the Levant, and a few years before the revolution they had 600 vessels mounting 6,000 guns (for defence against pirates) and manned by 18,000 seamen. . . . In laying their plans for independence the Greeks resorted to the formation of secret societies, and so well was the scheme conducted that everything was ripe for insurrection before the Turkish rulers had any suspicion of the state of affairs. A great association was formed which included Greeks everywhere, not only in Greece and its islands, but in Constantinople, Austria, Germany, England, and other countries, wherever a Greek could be found. Men of other nationalities were occasionally admitted, but only when their loyalty to the Greek cause was beyond question, and their official positions gave them a chance to aid in the work. Several distinguished Russians were members, among them Count Capo D'Istria, a Greek by birth, who held the office of private secretary to the Emperor Alexander I of Russia. The society was known as the *Hetaira*, or *Hetairist*, and consisted of several degrees or grades. The highest contained only sixteen persons, whose names were not all known, and it was impossible for any member of the lower classes to ascertain them. . . . All the *Hetairists* looked hopefully towards Russia, partly in consequence of their community of religion, and partly because of the fellow-feeling of the two countries in cordially detesting the Turk. . . . The immediate cause of the revolution, or rather the excuse for it, was the death of the Hospodar of Wallachia, January 30, 1821, followed by the appointment of his successor. During the interregnum, which naturally left the government in a weakened condition, the *Hetairists* determined to strike their blow for liberty. A band of 150 Greeks and Arnauts, under the command of Theodore Vladimiroko, formerly a lieutenant-colonel in the Russian service, marched out of Bucharest and seized the small town of Czernitz, near Trajan's Bridge, on the Danube. There Theodore issued a proclamation, and such was the feeling of discontent among the people, that in a few days he had a force of 12,000 men under his command. Soon afterwards there was an insurrection in Jassy, the capital of Moldavia, headed by Prince Alexander Ipsilanti, an officer

in the Russian service. He issued a proclamation in which the aid of Russia was distinctly promised, and as the news of this proclamation was carried to Greece, there was a general movement in favor of insurrection. The Russian minister assured the Porte that his government had nothing to do with the insurrection, and the Patriarch and Synod of Constantinople issued a proclamation emphatically denouncing the movement, but in spite of this assurance and proclamation the insurrection went on. Count Nesselrode declared officially that Ipsilanti's name would be stricken from the Russian army list, and that his act was one for which he alone was responsible. This announcement was the death-blow of the insurrection in Moldavia and Wallachia, as the forces of Theodore and Ipsilanti were suppressed, after some sharp fighting, by the hordes of Moslems that were brought against them. . . . Nearly the whole of Greece was in full insurrection in a few months, and with far



GREGORY V

Patriarch of Constantinople

better prospects than had the insurrection on the Danube. Turks and Greeks were embittered against each other; the war-cry of the Turk was, 'Death to the Christian!' while that of the Christian was, 'Death to the Turk!' The example was set by the Turks, and, to the eternal disgrace of the Turkish government, slaughter in cold blood was made official. It was by the order and authority of the Porte that Gregory, Patriarch of Constantinople, a revered prelate, eighty years of age, was seized on Easter Sunday, as he was descending from the altar where he had been celebrating divine service, and hanged at the gate of his archiepiscopal palace, amid the shouts and howls of a Moslem mob. After hanging three hours, the body was . . . [thrown into the sea, whence it was recovered and taken to Odessa. It was later removed to Athens, and now lies in a sarcophagus in the cathedral.] This act of murder was the more atrocious on the part of the Turks, since the Patriarch had denounced the insurrection in a public proclamation, and his life and character were most blameless and exemplary. It is safe to say that this barbarity had more to

do with fanning the fires of revolt than any other act of the Turkish government. But it was by no means the only act of the kind of which the Turks were guilty. The Patriarch of Adrianople with eight of his ecclesiastics were beheaded, and so were the dragoman of the Porte and several other eminent residents of Constantinople, descended from Greek settlers of two or three centuries ago. Churches were everywhere broken open and plundered; Greek citizens of the highest rank were murdered, their property stolen, and their wives and daughters sold as slaves; on the 15th of June five archbishops and a great number of laymen were hanged in the streets, and 450 mechanics were sold and transported into slavery; at Salonica the battlements of the town were lined with Christian heads, from which the blood ran down and discolored the water in the ditch. In all the great towns of the empire there were similar atrocities; some were the work of mobs, which the authorities did not seek to restrain, but the greater part of them were ordered by the governors or other officials, and met the approval of the Porte. At Smyrna, the Christian population was massacred by thousands without regard to age or sex, and in the island of Cyprus a body of 10,000 troops sent by the Porte ravaged the island, executed the metropolitan, five bishops, and thirty-six other ecclesiastics, and converted the whole island into a scene of rapine, bloodshed, and robbery. Several thousand Christians were killed before the atrocities ceased, and hundreds of their wives and daughters were carried into Turkish harems. These and similar outrages plainly told the Greeks that no hope remained except in complete independence of the Turks, and from one end of Greece to the other the fires of insurrection were everywhere lighted. The islands, as well as the mainland, were in full revolt, and the fleet of coasting vessels, nearly all of them armed for resisting pirates, gave the Turks a great deal of trouble. . . . On the land, battle followed battle in different parts of the country, and the narration of the events of the insurrection would fill a bulky volume. . . . During the latter part of 1821, the advantages to the Greeks were sufficient to encourage them to proclaim their independence, which was done in January, 1822. In the same month the Turks besieged Corinth, and in the following April they besieged and captured Chios (Scio), ending the capture with the slaughter of 40,000 inhabitants, the most horrible massacre of modern times. In July, the Greeks were victorious at Thermopylæ; in the same month Corinth fell, with great slaughter of the defenders. In April, 1823, the Greeks held a national congress at Argos; the victories of Marco Bozzaris occurred in the following June, and in August he was killed in a night attack upon the Turkish camp; in August, too, Lord Byron landed at Athens to take part in the cause of Greece, which was attracting the attention of the whole civilized world. The first Greek loan was issued in England in February, 1824; Lord Byron died at Missolonghi in the following April; in August the Capitan Pasha was defeated at Samos with heavy loss; in October, the provisional government of Greece was set up; and the fighting became almost continuous in the mountain districts of Greece. In February, 1825, Ibrahim Pasha arrived with a powerful army from Egypt, which captured Navarino in May, and Tripolitza in June of the same year. In July, the provisional government invoked the aid of England; in the following April (1826), Ibrahim Pasha took Missolonghi after a long and heroic

defence [of twelve months]; and nearly a year later Reschid Pasha captured Athens. Down to the beginning of 1826, the Greeks had felt seriously the deprivation of Russian sympathy and aid for which they had been led to look before the revolution. The death of Alexander I, and the accession of Nicholas in December, 1825, caused a change in the situation. The British government sent the Duke of Wellington to St. Petersburg ostensibly to congratulate Nicholas on his elevation to the throne, but really to secure concert of action in regard to Greece. On the 4th of April a protocol was signed by the Duke of Wellington, Prince Lieven, and Count Nesselrode, which may be considered the foundation of Greek independence. Out of this protocol grew the treaty of July 6, 1827, between England, Russia, and France, by which it was stipulated that those nations should mediate between the contending Greeks and Turks. They proposed to the Sultan that he should retain a nominal authority over the Greeks, but receive from them a fixed annual tribute. . . . The Sultan . . . refused to listen to the scheme of mediation, and immediately made preparations for a fresh campaign, and also for the defence of Turkey in case of an attack. Ships and reinforcements were sent from Constantinople, and the Egyptian fleet, consisting of two 84-gun ships, twelve frigates, and forty-one transports, was despatched from Alexandria with 5,000 troops, and reached Navarino towards the end of August, 1827. The allied powers had foreseen the possibility of the Porte's refusal of mediation, and taken measures accordingly; an English fleet under Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, and a French fleet under Admiral De Rigny, were in the Mediterranean, and were shortly afterwards joined by the Russian fleet under Admiral Heiden. . . . The allied admirals held a conference, and decided to notify Ibrahim Pasha that he must stop the barbarities of plundering and burning villages and slaughtering their inhabitants. But Ibrahim would not listen to their remonstrances, and to show his utter disregard for the powers, he commanded four of his ships to sail to the Gulf of Patras to occupy Missolonghi and relieve some Turkish forts, in effect to clear those waters of every Greek man-of-war which was stationed there. This he did easily, the allied squadrons being temporarily absent. Admiral Codrington pursued him and, without difficulty, drove him back to Navarino. . . . A general muster of all the ships was ordered by Admiral Codrington, Commander-in-chief of the squadron. . . . The allied fleet mounted 1,324 guns, while the combined Turkish and Egyptian fleet mounted 2,240 guns. To this superiority in the number of guns on board must be added the batteries on shore, which were all in the hands of the Turks. But the Christians had a point in their favor in their superiority in ships of the line, of which they possessed ten, while the Turks had but three. . . . The allied fleet entered the Bay of Navarino about two o'clock on the afternoon of October 20, 1827. . . . In less than four hours from the beginning of the contest the Ottoman fleet had ceased to be. Every armed ship was burnt, sunk, or destroyed; the only remaining vessels belonging to the Turks and Egyptians were twenty-five of the smallest transports, which were spared by order of Admiral Codrington. It was estimated that the loss in men on the Turkish and Egyptian vessels was fully 7,000. On the side of the allies, no vessels were destroyed, but the Asia, Albion, and Genoa of the English fleet were so much in-

jured, that Admiral Codrington sent them to Malta for repairs which would enable them to stand the voyage home to England. Seventy-five men were killed and 197 wounded on the British fleet, and the loss of the French was 43 killed and 117 wounded. The Russian loss was not reported.

... It was feared that when the news of the event at Navarino reached Constantinople, the lives of all Europeans in that city, including the foreign ambassadors, would be in great danger, but happily there was no violence on the part of the Turks. The ambassadors pressed for an answer to their note of August 10th, and at length the Sultan replied: 'My positive, absolute, definitive, unchangeable, eternal answer is, that the Sublime Porte does not accept any proposition regarding the Greeks, and will persist in its own will regarding them even to the last day of judgment.' The Porte even demanded compensation for the destruction of the fleet, and satisfaction for the insult, and that the allies should abstain from all interference in the affairs of Greece. The reply of the ambassadors was to the effect that the treaty of July obliged them to defend Greece, and that the Turks had no claim whatever for reparation for the affair of Navarino. The ambassadors left Constantinople on the 8th December, and soon afterwards Count Capo D'Istria, who had been elected President of Greece, took his seat, and issued a proclamation, declaring that the Ottoman rule over the country was at an end after three centuries of oppression. Thus was the independence of Greece established. There was little fighting after the events of Navarino, and early in 1828 Admiral Codrington and Ibrahim Pasha held a convention and agreed upon measures for evacuating the land of the Hellenes. During the summer and autumn Patras, Navarino, and Modon were successively surrendered to the French, and the Morea was evacuated by the Turks. Missolonghi was surrendered to Greece early in 1829, and by the Treaty of Adrianople in September of the same year the Porte acknowledged the independence of Greece, which was henceforth to be one in the family of nations."

—T. W. Knox, *Decisive battles since Waterloo*, ch. 3.—See also ADRIANOPLE, TREATY OF.

"The Greek War of Independence was one of a series of revolutions against tyrannical government which took place during the latter part of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth. It was the culmination of centuries of oppression and chafing of the liberty-loving Greeks against the Turkish yoke. Nor would it have been successful had it been fostered by men less intrepid and dauntless. First to fall a martyr, even before the revolution began, was Rhigas Pheraios, the poet who stirred the Greeks with his songs. He was delivered by the Austrians to the Turks in 1798. When he was executed at Belgrade, his last words were: 'I have sown a rich seed; the hour is coming when my country will reap its glorious fruits.' The hanging of the venerable Patriarch of Constantinople, Gregorios V, at the gate of the archiepiscopal mansion on Easter morning of 1821 was the first blow in the revolution and fed fuel to the flames that made defeat impossible. Nor was the Patriarch the only martyr of the church militant. Other bishops and priests fell for the cause of their country. Among these, the picturesque Athanasios Diakos, an ordained deacon, who donned civilian dress and led his followers in many a fight. When finally captured he was given the choice of embracing Mohammedanism, or death. He was impaled on a stake and roasted over a fire. Demetrios and Alexander Ipsilanti were lead-

ers from the beginning of the movement, and Alexander finally died in Vienna, after having in vain invoked the assistance of the tsar of Russia for whom he had fought and lost his left arm. Theodoros Kolokotronis was the generalissimo of the Greek insurgents in the Peloponnese, whose personality inspired his followers to the utmost deeds. Georges Karaiskakis was commander-in-chief of the forces on the mainland, and was killed in 1827 leading his men at Phaleron. Marco Bozzaris, immortalized in song by Fitz-Greene Halleck, fell after having caused havoc, with a handful of Suliotas, among the Turks sleeping in their camp at Karpenisi, on the night of August 20, 1823. On the sea, where much of the strength of the Greeks lay, were other leaders: Andreas Miaoulis, of Hydra, the fighting admiral of the Greek privateers, who defeated the Turkish fleets off Patras, at Nauplion, and off the Fort of Methoni, where he burned twenty-eight men-of-war. Constantine Kanaris, the 'demon of the seas,' the boldest of the Greek war captains, who personally attached fireships to the flagship of the Turks at Chios in 1822, and blew up Capitan Pasha, and 2,000 Turks, repeating the feat again at Tenedos later in the year. After the liberation of Greece proper, he served the nation as admiral, senator, minister of war and premier. Nor were men alone active among the Greek patriots. Two women were pre-eminent. Lascarina Bouboulina replaced her husband in command of his privateer after he had been executed at Constantinople, and, collecting two more ships, ranged over the Ægean sea, capturing Turkish vessels and terrorizing the enemy. Penelope Papalexopoulou was as famous a fighter on land, and led bands of men in many heroic ventures. Alexander Mavrokordatos and Georgeos Kountouriotis rendered signal service in the war and as political leaders, giving their fortunes for the creation of a Greek fleet. These are a few of the chiefs who made liberty possible to the future of the Greek nation, as it was the prerogative of their ancestors, and such gave an impetus to the future generations."—A. T. Polyzoides.

ALSO IN: C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, ch. 4.—S. G. Howe, *Historical sketch of the Greek revolution*.—T. Gordon, *History of the Greek revolution*.—Lord Byron, *Letters and journals*, 1823-4, v. 2.—E. J. Trelawny, *Records of Shelley, Byron, etc.*, v. 2, ch. 10-20.—S. Walspole, *History of England*, v. 2, ch. 9, 11.

1822-1823.—Congress of Verona. See VERONA, CONGRESS OF.

1830-1862.—Independent kingdom constituted under Otho of Bavaria.—Dethronement of King Otho.—Election of Prince George of Denmark.—"On February 3d, 1830, a protocol was signed which constituted Greece an independent State; and on the 11th of the same month Prince Leopold of Belgium accepted the crown which was offered to him by the Powers. He, however, soon resigned the honour, giving for his main reason the hopelessness of establishing a Greek kingdom from which Krete, Epeiros, and Thessaly were to be excluded. The northern boundary, as drawn in 1830, stretched from the Gulf of Zeitoun to the mouth of the Aspropotamos, thus depriving Greece of the greater part of Akarnania and Aitolia. After the assassination [by the family of an insurgent chief] of Count Capodistria (who was the popularly elected President of Greece from April 14th, 1827, to October 6th, 1831), and after the Powers had selected Prince Otho [or Otto] of Bavaria for the position declined by Prince Leopold, an arrangement was

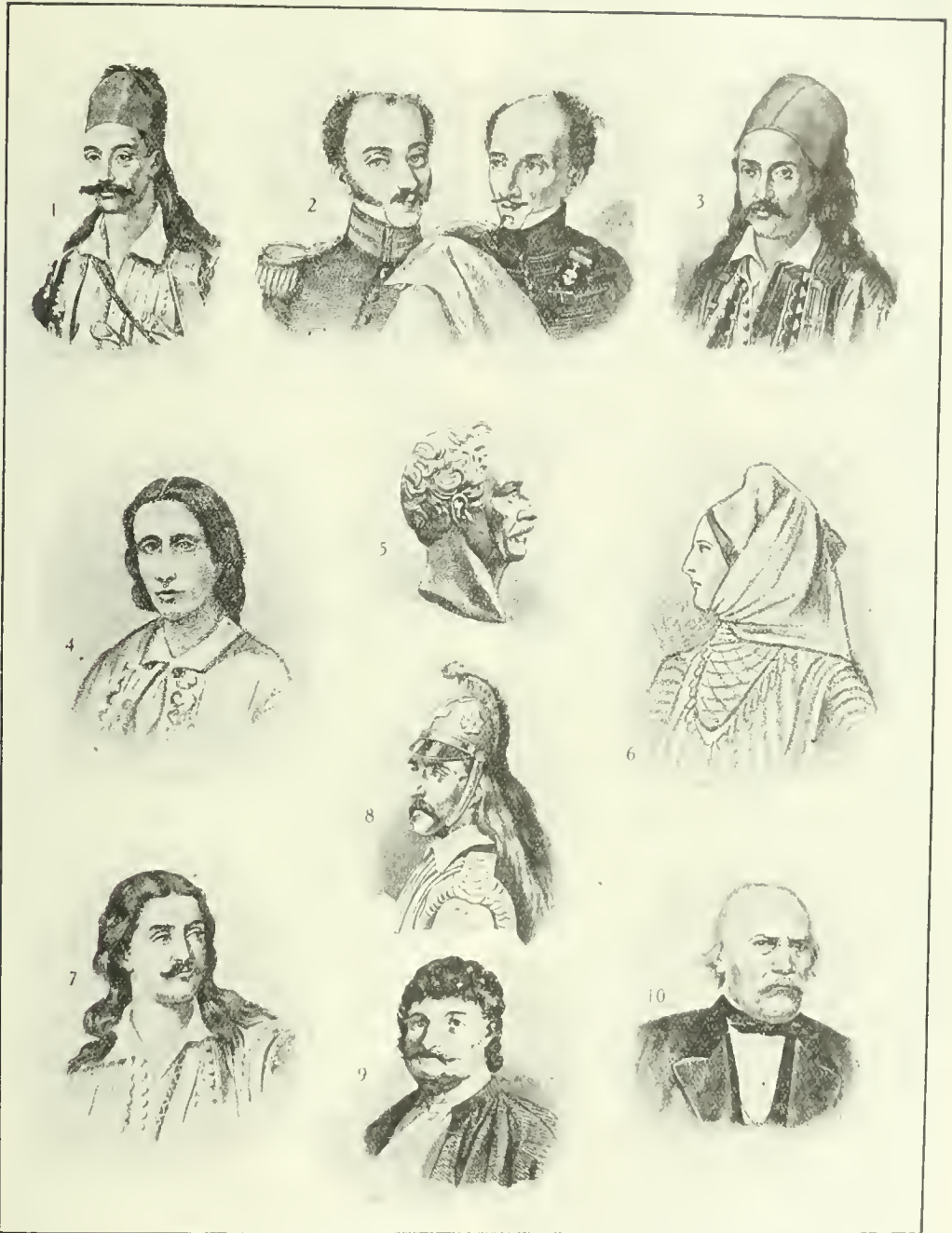
concluded between England, France, Russia, and Turkey, whereby the boundary was drawn from the Gulf of Arta to the same termination in the Gulf of Zeitoun. But a few months later the district of Zeitoun, north of the Spercheios, was added to Greece; and the new kingdom paid to the Porte an indemnity of 40,000,000 piastres, or about £460,000. The Powers guaranteed a loan to Greece of 60,000,000 francs, out of which the payment of the indemnity was made; and thus, at last, in the autumn of 1832, the fatherland of the Greeks was redeemed. [See also EUROPE: Modern: Wars of the Great Powers.] Under Otho of Bavaria the country was governed at first by a Council of Regency, consisting of Count Armarsperg, Professor Maurer, and General Heideck. Maurer was removed in 1834, and Armarsperg in 1837; and at the close of the latter



KING OTHO

year, after the trial of another Bavarian as president of the Council, a Greek was for the first time appointed to the principal post in the Ministry. The greatest benefit conferred upon the country by its German rulers was the reinforcement of the legal system, and the elevation of the authority of the law. But, on the other hand, an unfortunate attempt was made to centralize the whole administration of Greece, her ancient municipal rights and customs were overlooked, taxation was almost as indiscriminate and burdensome as under the Turks, whilst large sums of money were spent upon the army, and on other objects of an unremunerative or insufficiently remunerative character, so that the young State was laden with pecuniary liabilities before anything had been done to develop her resources. . . . No national assembly was convened, no anxiety was shown to conciliate the people, liberty of expression was curtailed, personal offence was given by the foreigners, and by Armarsperg in particular; brigandage and piracy flourished, and Greece

began to suffer all the evils which might have been expected to arise from the government of unsympathetic aliens. . . . In addition to the rapid and alarming increase of brigandage by land and piracy by sea, there were popular insurrections in Messenia, Maina, Akarnania, and elsewhere. One of the most capable Englishmen who have ever espoused the cause of the Greeks, General Gordon, was commissioned in 1835 to clear northern Greece of the marauders by whom it was overrun. He executed his mission in an admirable manner, sweeping the whole of Phokis, Aitolia, and Akarnania, and securing the coöperation of the Turkish Pasha at Larissa. Hundreds of brigands were put to flight,—but only to return again next year, and to enjoy as great immunity as ever. . . . In the absence of a strong and active organization of the national forces, brigandage in Greece was an ineradicable institution; and, as a matter of fact, it was not suppressed until the year 1870. Gradually the discontent of the people, and the feebleness and infatuation of the Government, were breeding a revolution. . . . The three Guaranteeing Powers urged on Otho and his advisers the necessity of granting a Constitution, which had been promised on the establishment of the kingdom; and moral support was thus given to two very strong parties, known by the titles of Philorthodox and Constitutional, whose leaders looked to Russia and England respectively. The King and the Government neglected symptoms which were conspicuous to all besides, and the revolution of 1843 found them practically unprepared and helpless. On the 15th of September, after a well-contrived demonstration of the troops, which was acquiesced in and virtually sanctioned by the representatives of the three Powers, King Otho gave way, and signed the decrees which had been submitted to him. The Bavarian Ministers were dismissed, Mavrokordatos was made Premier, a National Assembly was convoked, and a Constitution was granted. For the first time since the Roman conquest, Greece resumed the dignity of self-government. The Constitution of 1844 was by no means an adequate one. It did not fully restore the privileges of local self-rule, and it only partially modified the system of centralization, from which so many evils had sprung. But it was nevertheless a great advance towards popular liberty. . . . The difficulties which arose between Russia and Turkey in 1853, and which led up to the Crimean War, inspired the Greeks with a hope that their 'grand idea'—the inheritance of the dominion of Turkey in Europe, so far as the Greek-speaking provinces are concerned—might be on the eve of accomplishment. . . . The Russian army crossed the Pruth in July, 1853, and preparations were at once made by the Greeks to invade Turkey. . . . The temper of the whole country was such that England and France deemed it necessary to take urgent measures for preventing an alliance between Russia and Greece. In May, 1854, an Anglo-French force was landed at the Peiraios, where it remained until February, 1857. Pressure was thus brought to bear upon King Otho, who was not in a position to resist it. . . . The humiliation of the Greeks under the foreign occupation weakened the authority of the King and his Ministers, and the unhappy country was once more a prey to rapine and disorder. . . . From the year 1850 a new portent began to make itself apparent in Greece. As the insurrection of 1821 may be said to have derived some of its energy from the upheaval of France and Europe in the preceding decades, so the Greek



LEADERS IN THE GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

1. Georgios Karaiskakis. 2. Demetrios and Alexander Ipsilanti. 3. Marco Bozzaris. 4. Penelope Papalexopoulou. 5. Andreas Miaoulis. 6. Lascarina Bouhoulina. 7. Athanassios Diakos. 8. Theodoros Kolokotronis. 9. Rhigas Pheraios. 10. Constantinos Kanaris.

revolution of 1862 was doubtless hastened, if not suggested, by the Italian regeneration of 1848-1861. . . . On February 13th, 1862, the garrison of Nauplia revolted; other outbreaks followed; and at last, in October, during an ill-advised absence of the Monarch from his capital, the garrison of Athens broke out into open insurrection. A Provisional Government was nominated; the deposition of King Otho was proclaimed; and when the royal couple hurried back to the city they were refused an entrance. The representatives of the Powers were appealed to in vain; and the unfortunate Bavarian, after wearing the crown for thirty years, sailed from the Peiraios never to return. The hopes of the Greeks at once centred in Prince Alfred of England for their future king. . . . But the agreement of the three Powers on the establishment of the kingdom expressly excluded from the throne all members of the reigning families of England, France, Russia; and thus, although Prince Alfred was elected king with practical unanimity, the English Government would not sanction his acceptance of the crown. The choice eventually and happily fell upon Prince George of Denmark. . . . From this time forward the history of modern Greece enters upon a brighter phase."—L. Sergeant, *Greece*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: L. Sergeant, *New Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 8-10.

1846-1850.—Rude enforcement of English claims.—Don Pacifico affair.—"Greek independence had been established under the joint guardianship of Russia, France, and England. Constitutional government had been guaranteed. It had however been constantly delayed. Otho, the Bavarian Prince, who had been placed upon the throne, was absolute in his own tendencies, and supported by the absolute Powers; and France, eager to establish her own influence in the East, . . . had sided with the Absolutists, leaving England the sole supporter of constitutional rule. The Government and administration were deplorably bad. . . . Any demands raised by the English against the Government—and the bad administration afforded abundant opportunity for dispute—were certain to encounter the opposition of the King, supported by the advice of all the diplomatic body. Such questions had arisen, Ionians, claiming to be British subjects, had been maltreated, the boat's crew of a Queen's ship roughly handled, and in two cases the money claims of English subjects against the Government disregarded. They were trivial enough in themselves; a piece of land belonging to a Mr. Finlay [the historian of medieval and modern Greece], a Scotchman, had been incorporated into the royal garden, and the price—no doubt somewhat exorbitant—which he set upon it refused. The house of Don Pacifico, a Jew, a native of Gibraltar, had been sacked by a mob, without due interference on the part of the police. He demanded compensation for ill-usage, for property destroyed, and for the loss of certain papers, the only proof as he declared of a somewhat doubtful claim against the Portuguese Government. Such claims in the ordinary course of things should have been made in the Greek Law Court. But Lord Palmerston, placing no trust in the justice to be there obtained, made them a direct national claim upon the Government. For several years, on various pretences, the settlement of the question had been postponed, and Palmerston had even warned Russia that he should some day have to put strong pressure upon the Greek Court to obtain the discharge of their debts. At length, at the close of 1849, his patience became exhausted.

Admiral Parker, with the British fleet, was ordered to the Piræus. Mr. Wyse, the English Ambassador, embarked in it. The claims were again formally laid before the King, and upon their being declined the Piræus was blockaded, ships of the Greek navy captured, and merchant vessels secured by way of material guarantee for payment. The French and the Russians were indignant at this unexpected act of vigour." The Russians threatened; the French offered mediation, which was accepted. The French negotiations at Athens had no success; but at London there was promise of a friendly settlement of the matter, when Mr. Wyse, the English Minister at the Greek Court, being left in ignorance of the situation, brought fresh pressure to bear upon King Otho and extorted payment of his claims. The French were enraged and withdrew their Minister from London. "For the time, this trumpery little affair caused the greatest excitement, and, being regarded as a typical instance of Lord Palmerston's management of the Foreign Office, it formed the ground of a very serious attack upon the Government."—J. F. Bright, *History of England*, period 4, pp. 200-203.—See also ENGLAND: 1849-1850.

ALSO IN: S. Walpole, *History of England*, v. 4, ch. 22.—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, v. 2, ch. 19.

1862.—Annexation of Ionian islands. See IONIAN ISLANDS: 1815-1862.

1862-1881.—Cretan struggle and defeat.—Greek question in the Berlin Congress.—Small cession of territory by Turkey.—"The annexation of the Heptanessos [the seven (Ionian) islands] was a great benefit to Hellas. It was not only a piece of good fortune for the present but an earnest of the future. . . . There still remained the delusion of the Integrity of the Turkish Empire; but the Christians of the East really cannot believe in the sincerity of all the Powers who proclaim and sustain this extraordinary figment, any more than they are able to fall a prey to the hallucination itself. The reunion of the Heptanessos with the rest of Hellas was therefore regarded as marking the beginning of another and better era—a sanction to the hopes of other reunions in the future. The first of the Hellenes who endeavoured to gain for themselves the same good fortune which had fallen upon the Ionians were again the Cretans. They defied Turkey for three years, 1866-7-8. With the exception of certain fortresses, the whole island was free. Acts of heroism and sacrifice such as those which had rendered glorious the first War of Independence, again challenged the attention of the world. Volunteers from the West recalled the Philhellenic enthusiasm of old days. The Hellenes of the mainland did not leave their brethren alone in the hour of danger; they hastened to fight at their side, while they opened in their own homes a place of refuge for the women and children of the island. Nearly 60,000 fugitives found protection there. For a while there was room for believing that the deliverance of Crete was at last accomplished. Russia and France were favourably disposed. Unhappily the good-will of these two Powers could not overcome the opposition of England, strongly supported by Austria. Diplomacy fought for the enslavement of the Cretans with as much persistence and more success than those with which it had opposed the deliverance of Greece. . . . [Crete was finally joined to Greece in 1913.] The islanders obtained by their struggle nothing but a doubtful amelioration of their condition by means of a sort of

charter which was extracted from the unwillingness of the Porte in 1868, under the name of the 'Organic Regulation.' This edict . . . [was never] honestly put in force. However, even if it had been carried out, it would not have been a settlement of the Cretan question. The Cretans have never concealed what they want, or ceased to proclaim their intention of demanding it until they obtain it. At the time of the Congress of Berlin they thought once more that they would succeed. They got nothing but another promise from the Porte 'to enforce scrupulously the Organic Regulation of 1868, with such modifications as might be judged equitable.' . . . We do not know why Hellas herself remained so long with her sword undrawn during the Russo-Turkish War—what promises or what threats held her back from moving when the armies of Russia, checked before Plevna, would have welcomed a diversion in the West, and when the Hellenic people both within and without the Kingdom were chafing at the do-nothing attitude of the Government of Athens. Everyone in Greece felt that the moment was come. The measures taken by hordes of Bashi-Bazooks were hardly sufficient to repress the insurrection which was ready in all quarters, and which at length broke out in the mountains of Thessaly. . . . It was only at the last moment, when the war was on the point of being closed by the treaty which victorious Russia compelled Turkey to grant at San Stefano, that the Greek Government, under the Presidency of Koumoundouros, yielded tardily to the pressure of the nation, and allowed the army to cross the frontier. It was too late for the diversion to be of any use to Russia, and it could look for no support from any other Government in Europe. This fact was realized at Athens, but men felt, at the same time, that it was needful to remind the world at any price that there is a Greek Question connected with the Eastern Question. The step was taken, but it was taken with a hesitation which betrayed itself in act as well as in word. . . . Diplomacy saw the danger of the fresh effluvia which the armed intervention of Greece was capable of kindling. The utmost possible amount of pressure was therefore brought to bear upon the Government of Athens in order to induce it to retrace the step, and in the result an order was obtained to the Greek Commander-in-Chief to recross the frontier, upon the solemn assurance of the great Powers 'that the national aspirations and interests of the Greek populations should be the subject of the deliberations of the approaching Congress.' . . . On July 5, 1878, the Congress accepted the resolution proposed by the French plenipotentiary, 'inviting the Porte to come to an understanding with Greece for a rectification of the frontiers in Thessaly and Epiros, a rectification which may follow the valley of the Peneus upon the Eastern side, and that of the Thyamis (or Kalamas) upon the Western.' In other words, they assign to Hellas the whole of Thessaly and a large part of Epiros. Notwithstanding the abandonment of the island of Crete, this was some satisfaction for the wrongs which she had suffered at the delimitation of the Kingdom. [See also BERLIN, CONGRESS OF.] . . . But the scheme suggested by the Congress and sanctioned by the Conference of Berlin on July 1, 1880, was not carried out. When Turkey found that she was not confronted by an Europe determined to be obeyed, she refused to submit. And then the Powers, whose main anxiety was peace at any price, instead of insisting upon her compliance, put upon Hellas all the pressure which

they were able to exercise, to induce her to submit the question of the frontiers to a fresh arbitration. . . . Hellas had to yield, and on July 2, 1881, three years after the signing of the famous Protocol of Berlin, she signed the convention by which Turkey ceded to her the flat part of Thessaly and a small scrap of Epiros."—D. Bikelas, *Seven essays on Christian Greece*, essay 6.—See also CRETE: 1800-1913.

1864-1893.—Government under the constitution.—"By November 28th [1864] the revision of the Constitution was completed. . . . The Senate was abolished and the single chamber system established. It is true that in the Greece of that day the elements were wanting which elsewhere render a First Chamber or Senate necessary for safeguarding hereditary conservative interests—as, for instance, the House of Lords in England—but the single chamber system nevertheless lay open to so many dangers that Koumoundouros, Zaimis, and, above all, the King himself, strove to the last to preserve the institution of the Senate, which had existed since 1843. The opponents of the single chamber regarded it as a doubtful honour for Greece to be the first monarchy to frame its Constitution on a basis of the most thoroughgoing radicalism. By 211 votes out of 274 the Senate was buried for ever. It mattered little that at the same time—as a sort of compensation—a Council of State was established, whose function it was to revise and criticise every bill that was introduced; for this institution was abolished as early as November 20th, 1865. . . . King George reigned entirely by parliamentary methods, and only used pressure to a very slight extent: but twice it happened—in 1866 and 1875, when the debates of the Chamber assumed a character little suited to the dignity of the country—that the King on his own initiative dismissed the representatives and invited the nation to elect new ones. [Under the constitution the king has the right to dissolve the Chamber, and also dismiss Ministers and officials.] And when, in 1892, Delyannis persisted in his disastrous financial policy, King George again stepped in and without hesitation dismissed the Minister. Of course it is possible to subject the Greek Constitution to much well-founded criticism; but the country has accepted it and lived under it for half a century, and the Greeks have never wished it altered. Keeping rigidly to its provisions King George won his spurs as a constitutional monarch."—W. Christmas, *King George of Greece*, pp. 71-73.—"Before King Otho there were 4 administrations; under his rule 24 (13 before the Constitution was granted and 11 after), 10 in the interregnum, and 42 under King George. This gives 70 administrations in 62 years, or about one every 10½ months, or, deducting the two kingless periods, 56 administrations in 60 years—that is, with an average duration of nearly 13 months. . . . It should also be stated that there has been a distinct tendency to greater Ministerial longevity of late years in Greece. Under King Otho there were seven Parliaments in 18 years, which allows 2 years and 7 months for each Parliamentary period. Under King George there . . . were 13 in 28 years, or with a life of 2 years and 2 months each."—R. A. H. Bickford-Smith, *Greece under King George*, ch. 18.—See also GREECE, CONSTITUTION OF.

1878.—Map showing extent of territory. See BALKAN STATES: 1913.

1882-1895.—Premiership of Trikoupis.—Reforms.—Crisis of 1886.—Ministerial changes.—"In 1882 there had come into power Charilaos

Trikoupis, one of the two great statesmen whom modern Greece has produced. With brief intervals Trikoupi remained at the head of affairs until 1895. Trikoupi had served a long apprenticeship to diplomacy in England, and had naturally seen much of English public life when, in an administrative sense, that life was perhaps at its best. No man was better qualified to introduce into the politics of his own country the qualities so sadly lacking: financial honesty and economy, with a high sense of public duty. In the years between 1882 and 1894 he did much to improve the financial and social condition of Greece; order was introduced into the public service, and foreign capital, desperately needed for the development of the material resources of the country, was slowly but steadily attracted. The crisis of 1885-6 unfortunately coincided, however, with one of the brief intervals of power enjoyed by his rival Theodore Delyannis. Delyannis, oblivious of the paramount necessity of husbanding the resources of Greece, came in on the cry of a spirited foreign policy. Bulgaria had acquired Eastern Roumelia; Serbia was making a bid—though an unsuccessful one—for an equivalent; Greece could not afford to be left behind. The army and fleet were mobilized, and several collisions occurred between Turkish and Greek forces on the frontier. But the Powers, strongly adverse to a reopening of the Eastern Question on a large scale, called upon Greece to disarm. When Greece declined the Powers, despite the refusal of France to cooperate, established a blockade. The excitement on the mainland spread to Crete, where the Christians proclaimed their union with the kingdom. Thanks, however, to the presence of the European fleets things went no further. Delyannis was forced to resign; Trikoupi came back to power, and did his best to restore order at home and confidence abroad. In 1889, at the instance of the Porte, he persuaded the Cretans to acquiesce in the Turkish occupation of certain fortified places in the island, an act of complaisance characteristically rewarded by an abrogation of the Pact of Helépa. This gross breach of faith on the part of the Sultan not only evoked the liveliest indignation in the island, but fatally undermined the position of Trikoupi in the kingdom. In October, 1890, Delyannis came back to power, only, however, to give way again in 1892 to Trikoupi, who was recalled by the king, in the hope of averting national bankruptcy. Even he proved unequal to the task without recourse to a scaling down of interest on the debt, and when he ultimately resigned in 1895 Greece appeared to be plunging headlong towards financial ruin."

—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question*, pp. 333-334.

—Trikoupi was succeeded by Delyannis.

1895-1902.—**Changing ministries.**—Delyannis, who had done able work in restoring order in Crete in 1896, was forced to resign in the spring of 1897 after the disastrous campaigns in the early part of the war with Turkey. He was succeeded by Rhallis, who invoked the mediation of the powers after withdrawing the army from Crete. The terms agreed to by the powers were rejected by Rhallis; the chamber however refused him a vote of confidence and the king summoned Zaimis to power in October. In April, 1899, Zaimis gave way to Theotokis, the chief of the Trikoupiist party, but was again head of the ministry in 1901. A year later he was beaten at the December elections and was succeeded by Delyannis.

1896 (April).—**Revival of Olympic games.** See ATHENS: 1896.

1897.—**Conflict of Turks in Crete.**—**War with Turkey.**—**Appeal for peace.**—**Submission to the Powers on Cretan question.**—**Cession of Thesaly to Greece.** See TURKEY: 1897; CRETE: 1800-1913.

1899 (May-July).—**Represented at the first Hague conference.** See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

1905.—**Assassination of Delyannis.**—**Successors.**—Theodoros Delyannis, the premier of Greece, was assassinated on June 13, 1905, by a revengeful gambler whose place had been closed by the police. A new ministry formed by Rallis conducted the government until December, when its defeat in the election of a president of the representative assembly forced a resignation. It was succeeded by a cabinet formed under Theotokis, the leader of the Opposition.

1905-1906.—**Insurrection in Crete.**—**Demand for union with Greece.** See CRETE: 1800-1913.

1905-1908.—**Barbarities of Greek bands in Macedonia.** See TURKEY: 1903-1908.

1905-1913.—**Strained relations with Rumania.** See RUMANIA: 1912-1913.

1907.—**Second Hague conference.** See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1908-1914.—**Policy in Albania.**—**Epirote insurgents.** See ALBANIA: 1908-1914.

1909.—**Government dominated by military league.**—**Submission to dictatorship.**—Whatever vitality may previously have animated the forms of constitutional government in Greece was extinguished suddenly in July, 1909, by a demonstration of the power of a league of army officers to give orders to it. The military league was backed, evidently, by a strong popular feeling against the government, partly well-founded, perhaps, but largely due to an unreasoning desire for rash undertakings to secure the annexation of Crete. The revolution in Turkey had stimulated this by seeming to open opportunities for breaking the island away from the claimed sovereignty of the Turks. What Bulgaria had been able to do in the situation for herself, and what Austria had done in annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina, it must be that the powers which held Crete in commission, so to speak, could do for Greece, in the present state of things, if Greece had a competent government to deal with affairs. This seems to have been the feeling, to a large extent, which produced the military league and the popular threatenings whereby the ministry of Theotokis was impelled to resign office on July 17. The new cabinet constructed by the king, under Rallis, held the semblance of power a little more than a month, and then had to choose between dropping it and taking orders from the league. When it hesitated, and ventured an arrest of several leaders of the military combination, the latter, in a body, to the number of over 500, with about 2,000 of the men of their commands, took possession of a hill outside of Athens, on August 27, and established there a menacing camp. "They then sent an ultimatum to Ralli, who had become Prime Minister since the April episode, demanding the instant removal of the Commander-in-Chief and the other Princes. Reorganisation of the Army and Navy was also demanded 'so that Greece would not have to undergo any more humiliation.' These humiliations included a Turkish ultimatum; the enforced renunciation of Macedonian aims and the continued 'slavery' of Crete were keenly felt. Ralli refused to accept the order of the officers and immediately went out of office. M. Mavromichalis succeeded him. Colonel Lapathiotis, one of the ablest men asso-



ciated with the Military League, was appointed Minister for War on August 31. A *coup d'État* had taken place. The Military League was determined to rid the Greek Army of the incompetent Princes. The Crown Prince had proved himself to be useless as a military commander in the war of 1897; since that disastrous conflict there was no evidence to show that he had become a competent leader. His brothers' proficiency in arms was inconsiderable. The grievances of the Military League were both real and justifiable. Added to these grievances, the League members had arrayed against them a hardy band of professional politicians, who valiantly resisted the demand for the Princes' enforced retirement. A military dictatorship nearly came into being in October. King George contended in secret that the whole movement was anti-dynastic and not a *bona fide* demand for reform. This view was incorrect. When a Bill had been introduced into the Chamber to remove the Princes from the Army, they hurriedly resigned their commands. The position of King George owed its importance to his close ties with other reigning families. These dynastic ties were useful to Greece. . . . The King's nominal authority was limited by the Greek Constitution, he was jealous of his own pre-eminence in the affairs of the kingdom. It has even been said that he never allowed a promising political leader to become too powerful. Trikoupis, a man of extraordinary gifts, caused him anxiety in this respect. But Trikoupis was handicapped by a custom which weakens the authority of Prime Ministers. . . . No doubt, the Greek Princes felt that they had some strong supporters in Greece when they clung so tenaciously to the Army commands, in defiance of the Military League. But it was obviously not a case or a time for tenacity. The King permitted the Princes to hold their ground too long."—S. B. Chester, *Life of Venizelos*, pp. 126-128.—"Internally, the crisis in which the Military League arose was at the bottom an economic crisis, due to normal growth. The Kingdom of Greece could not support its population by agriculture. As long as the country's finances were under international control and its administrative system undermined by the sterile strike of political factions, it could not be expected that industrial development would take care of the excess population. The most virile element was emigrating to America. As for shipping, the mainstay of Greece's prosperity, the Young Turk Revolution, culminating in the boycott, was threatening irreparable disaster. Until Greece was strong enough, by reforming and developing her own military and naval resources and by making alliances with her neighbors, to bring Turkey to book, there was little hope of remedying the ills of which Greece was suffering. And in the background loomed the greatest question of all, the redemption of Hellas through the regeneration of the Kingdom of Greece."—H. A. Gibbons, *Venizelos*, p. 88.—"The troubles connected with Army administration extended to the Navy, although in a lesser degree. On October 29, Commander Typaldos, a naval officer identified with the Military League, started a mutiny and with several destroyers attacked three Greek ironclads, the *Hydra*, the *Spetsae*, and the *Psara*. The crews of the large vessels remained at their posts during the engagement which followed. Shore batteries were brought into action, and for a brief moment excitement ran high. Then Typaldos made off. The Prime Minister and the Military League, fortunately, held together, after an interchange of opinions. Thus the mutiny was soon

only remembered as a fiasco. The situation, nevertheless, remained very unsatisfactory as a whole. The Military League would have been glad to see Venizelos set up as Prime Minister. Indeed, after the exploit of August 28, the League actually invited him to come to Greece to assume control of affairs, but he excused himself on the ground that his presence was required in Crete. Mavromichalis retained office as a buffer between the Crown and the League. On December 22 there was a students' demonstration in Athens in favour of a military dictatorship. The following day, Colonel Lapathiotis, who, as we know, had become Minister for War at the instigation of the Military League, was thrown out of office by his own supporters. That was because he had been discovered in the act of gazetting promotions on his own initiative, without first consulting his masters."—S. B. Chester, *Life of Venizelos*, p. 128.

1909 (July).—Earthquake in Elis.—In July, 1909, an earthquake occurred in Elis accompanied by volcanic eruptions near Ponthioti. The loss of life was estimated at thirty. Four hundred houses were destroyed.

1910.—Agreement to restore constitutional régime.—Venizelos.—The dismissal of Colonel Lapathiotis emboldened the party in the chamber which followed the lead of ex-Premier Rallis to make some show of an independent opposition, and provoked thereby the most arrogant reminder yet given of the dictatorial power of the military league. On January 2, 1910, two officers from the league appeared in the chamber, bearing letters addressed to the prime minister and to the two leaders of Opposition parties, M. Rallis and M. Theotokis, requiring the chamber to pass twenty-seven specified measures, besides the pending budget, and requiring the government to recall its diplomatic representatives from Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and Rome. The messengers announced that they would return at 2 P. M. for a reply, and when they did so they were assured that the commands received would be obeyed. A few hours later the premier received a fresh mandate to dismiss his minister of the interior. On this, he and his colleagues attempted to resign, but were so entreated by the king to remain and submit to the humiliating situation, rather than bring the country to a state of complete political wreck, that they did so, excepting the minister of the interior, who withdrew. In the succeeding four weeks, negotiations appear to have been effected between the league and the leaders of political parties, with the result announced as follows in a telegram from Athens to the American press, January 28: "An agreement was reached to-day by the Theotokis party, the Rallis party, and the military League to convoke the National Assembly for a revision of the Constitution, with the condition that the league shall first be dissolved. The powers of the National Assembly will be limited as to the sections of the Constitution to be revised, and no interference with the royal prerogatives will be permitted." King George assented to the proposed convocation of a National Assembly for the revision of the constitution, though the existing constitution would be violated by the method of procedure to be taken, since the choice seemed to lie between this and a complete wreckage of constitutional government. A Cretan leader, Venizelos, of high reputation for political sagacity, came to Athens on invitation and conducted a settlement of the affair with apparent success. The Mavromichalis ministry gave way to another, formed under Dragoumis;

a program of constitutional changes to be laid before the contemplated National Assembly was agreed upon; the election of the Assembly was appointed for August, 1910, and its meeting for September, and the dissolution of the military league was pledged. Venizelos, the newly appointed premier was born in Crete, and as a youth "carried out his classical studies at the Lycées of Athens and Syra, subsequently proceeding to the law course of Athens University. . . . In 1887, became a doctor of laws. He returned to Canea and practised as an advocate until 1895. It seemed that he was a political leader almost from the moment of his return. Venizelos made his European *début* in the Cretan insurrection which led to the emancipation of his native island. In 1909 he was offered the leadership of the Greek Liberals. He left Crete for Athens, and in 1910 became the Hellenic Prime Minister. His rise was predicted more than ten years earlier by M. Clémenceau . . . [and later statesmen have given the following high estimate of him]. Prince Lichnowsky has said that 'M. Venizelos was certainly the most distinguished personality' at the Balkan Conference held in London in the winter of 1912-1913. . . . The later Baron von Wangenheim, German Minister at Athens in 1912 and subsequently Ambassador at Constantinople, ranked Venizelos as supreme among European statesmen. President Wilson was said to have placed Venizelos first in point of personal ability among all the delegates gathered together in Paris to settle the terms of Peace in 1919. [See also below: 1918-1920.] King Constantine, a most implacable personal enemy, is reported to have said of Venizelos, 'What he is with me I confess that his arguments are so convincing that I quickly begin to imagine that they are my own.'—S. B. Chester, *Life of Venizelos*, pp. 4-6.

ALSO IN: H. A. Gibbons, *Venizelos*.

**1911.—Changes in Constitution.—Internal reforms of Venizelos.**—Following the appointment of Venizelos as premier in October, 1910, and his victory in the December elections, where he won 300 out of 364 seats, the Revisionary Chamber met in January. The chief changes in the constitution were that "the Council of State, a prebouléutic body, was revived; soldiers were declared ineligible for seats in the Boulé; the quorum of the Boulé was reduced to one-third; and elementary education was made both compulsory and gratuitous."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Problem of the Near East* (*Edinburgh Review*, Jan., 1916).—"During the period of more than a year, for which the double Parliament lasted, a great deal of most salutary and urgent legislation was accomplished under M. Venizelos's guidance. Of this, perhaps the most striking was the amendment of the criminal law. One of the most successful changes was the lenient treatment held out to cattle thieves if they voluntarily surrendered to the authorities. These had been a regular pest, and had infested the frontiers of Epirus and Thessaly. The alteration in the law had an almost immediate effect, and within a year the cattle thief had become a *rara avis*. M. Venizelos also introduced the more stringent execution of severe criminal sentences. Murderers condemned to death were practically never executed, and they were frequently allowed to be at large after a few years. M. Venizelos began by ordering the prompt execution of some thirty murderers who had been condemned to death but who were still alive in prison. The stricter measures adopted caused the dignity of the criminal tribunals to be advanced, and a reduction in the worst forms of crime was

soon noticeable. During this time also the reformation of some of the branches of the public service were taken in hand: French and British missions were brought to Athens for the Army and Navy respectively; and as the Italian had been notably successful in organizing the Cretan Gendarmerie, M. Venizelos brought an Italian mission to reform the Greek police. The Italians have scarcely been so successful in Greece as they were in Crete."—D. J. Cassavetti, *Hellas and the Balkan Wars*, p. 20.

**1912.—Formation of the Balkan League.—Importance of Venizelos in its inception.** See **BALKAN STATES: 1912: Balkan League.**

**1912.—Greco-Bulgarian alliance.—Preparations for war.—Attitude of Venizelos.**—"On May 29 the Greco-Bulgarian treaty was signed at Sophia by Gueshoff and the Greek ambassador, both declaring that the two kingdoms firmly desired peace. The document states that this object can best be reached by a defensive alliance, by the creation of political equality among the different nationalities in Turkey, and by the careful observation of treaty rights. To this end the two nations would co-operate to promote correct relations with the Porte and to consolidate the good will already existing between Greeks and Bulgarians in Turkey. Furthermore, the two powers agreed that if either was attacked by Turkey, they would aid each other with their entire forces, and conclude peace only by reciprocal agreement. Both states were to use their influence to the uttermost with their kindred populations in Macedonia for securing a peaceful solution of their previous animosities, and offer active reciprocal assistance in order that they might conjointly impress on Turkey and the great powers alike the importance of such representations as were made to assure the performance of treaty obligations. The treaty was to run for three years, and for a fourth unless denounced six months in advance, and must be kept absolutely secret between the two contracting parties. Bulgaria would not intervene in the settlement of the Cretan question, and would remain neutral should war break out between Greece and Turkey regarding the admission of Cretan delegates to the Greek parliament. To all outward appearance, this compact appeared pacific in its intentions, being not merely defensive, but containing the pledge that both states would avoid aggression or provocation and would bring pressure upon their kinsfolk within the Ottoman empire to live peacefully with each other and with their Turkish fellow subjects. Its aim appears to have been the exertion of efficient diplomatic pressure at Constantinople and in the capitals of Western Europe."—W. M. Sloane, *Balkans*, pp. 197-198.—"King George himself was a ruler of large experience, of great practical wisdom, and of fine diplomatic skill. He had shortly before selected as prime minister the former Cretan insurgent, Mr. Eleutherios Venizelos. It is significant that the new premier had also taken the War portfolio. He foresaw the impending conflict—as every wise statesman in Europe had foreseen it—and began to make preparations for it. For the reorganization of the army and navy he secured French and English experts, the former headed by General Eydoux, the latter by Admiral Tufnel. By 1914, it was estimated that the military and naval forces of the country would be thoroughly trained and equipped, and war was not expected before that date. But now in 1912 the hand of the Greek government was forced. And a decision one way or the other was inevitable. Mr. Venizelos had already proved himself an

agitator, an orator, and a politician. He was now to reveal himself not only to Greece but to Europe as a wise statesman and an effective leader of his people. The first test came in his answer of the invitation to join Bulgaria and Serbia within three days in a war against Turkey. Of all possibilities open to him Mr. Venizelos rejected the programme of continued isolation for Greece. There were those who glorified it as splendid and majestic: to him under the existing circumstances it seemed stupid in itself and certain to prove disastrous in its results. Greece alone would never have been able to wage a war against Turkey. And if Greece declined to participate in the inevitable conflict, which the action of the two Slav states had only hastened, then whether they won or Turkey won, Greece was bound to lose. It was improbable that the Ottoman power should come out of the contest victorious; but, if the unexpected happened what would be the position, not only of the millions of Greeks in the Turkish Empire, but of the little kingdom of Greece itself on whose northern boundary the insolent Moslem oppressor, flushed with his triumph over Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro, would be immovably entrenched? On the other hand, if these Christian states themselves should succeed, as seemed likely, in destroying the Ottoman Empire in Europe, the Kingdom of Greece, if she now remained a passive spectator of their struggles, would find in the end that Macedonia had come into the possession of the Victorious Slavs, and the Great Idea of the Greeks—the idea of expansion into Hellenic lands eastwards towards Constantinople—exploded as an empty bubble. It was Mr. Venizelos's conclusion that Greece could not avoid participating in the struggle. Neutrality would have entailed the complete bankruptcy of Hellenism in the Orient. There remained only the alternative of co-operation with Turkey or co-operation with the Christian states of the Balkans."—J. G. Schurman, *Balkan Wars*, pp. 37-39.

1912-1913.—First Balkan War: Causes.—Invasion of Macedonia.—Siege of Salonika.—Blockade of Turkish ports.—Treaty of London, May 30, 1913.—Acquisition of Crete. See BALKAN STATES: 1912: First Balkan War; 1912-1913; TURKEY: 1912-1913; CRETE: 1800-1913; SALONIKA: 1912-1913.

1913.—Assassination of King George.—Accession of Constantine.—"In the midst of these Greek triumphs a terrible tragedy suddenly saddened the whole Hellenic world. After the capitulation of Salonika, King George had established his headquarters there, standing guard as a sentinel over that coveted conquest. On March 18, he went out, attended by a single aide-de-camp, to take his usual afternoon walk, talking with his customary affability to the people. On his way home, at a spot where two streets met, a badly-dressed man fired two shots at him from a revolver. The King fell speechless against the table of an adjoining shop, whence he was carried to a hospital, and there expired without uttering a single word. The assassin, who was immediately seized by two Cretan policemen, turned out to be a Greek named Schinas, to whom the late King had once refused money. . . . The new King, whom many wished to call Constantine XII, thereby regarding him as the successor of the last Byzantine Emperor, mounted the throne with the laurels of Salonika and Joannina fresh upon him. His triumphs on the field of battle, added to the fact that he was the first sovereign of modern Greece born in that country, invested him with an immense popularity, while the tragic circumstances of his father's

death won for him sympathy everywhere."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 140-142.

1913.—Second Balkan War.—Policy and defence of Venizelos.—Gains of Greece in the two wars.—"How near Greece was to an alliance with Turkey the world may never know. At the time nothing of the sort was even suspected. It was not until Turkey had been overpowered by the forces of the four Christian states and the attitude of Bulgaria towards the other three on the question of the division of the conquered territories had become irreconcilable and menacing that Mr. Venizelos felt it proper to communicate to the Greek people the history of the negotiations by which the Greek government had bound their country to a partner now felt to be so unreasonable and greedy. Feeling in Greece was running high against Bulgaria. The attacks on Mr. Venizelos's government were numerous and bitter. He was getting little or no credit for the victory that had been won against Turkey, while his opponents denounced him for sacrificing the fruits of that victory to Bulgaria. The Greek nation especially resented the occupation by Bulgarian troops of the Aegean coast lands with their large Hellenic population which lay between the Struma and the Mesta including the cities of Seres and Drama and especially Kavala with its fine harbor and its hinterland famed for crops of choice tobacco. It was on the fourth of July, 1913, a few days after the outbreak of the war between Bulgaria and her late allies, that Mr. Venizelos made his defence in an eloquent and powerful speech at a special session of the Greek parliament. The accusation against him was not only that during the late war he had sacrificed Greek interests to Bulgaria but that he had committed a fatal blunder in joining her in the campaign against Turkey. His reply was that since Greece could not stand alone he had to seek allies in the Balkans, and that it was not his fault if the choice had fallen on Bulgaria. He had endeavored to maintain peace with Turkey. Listen to his own words: 'I did not seek war against the Ottoman Empire. I would not have sought war at a later date if I could have obtained any adjustment of the Cretan question—that thorn in the side of Greece which can no longer be left as it is without rendering a normal political life absolutely impossible for us. I endeavored to adjust this question, to continue the policy of a close understanding with the neighboring empire, in the hope of obtaining in this way the introduction of reforms which would render existence tolerable to the millions of Greeks within the Ottoman Empire.'"—*Ibid.*, pp. 39-42.—"Bulgaria was forced to accept on August 10 [1913] the third treaty of Bucharest, after a diplomatic struggle for Kavalla, with its port and famous tobacco-plantations. On this point King Constantine's insistence received unexpected support from the German Emperor, who later did not fail to claim gratitude for this service. The Greek eastern frontier started from the mouth of the Mesta, thus leaving Xantho to Bulgaria, but securing Kavalla, and Bulgaria formally abandoned any claims that she might have raised under the treaty of London to Crete. Despite Russian advocacy of a Bulgarian Kavalla and Austrian dislike of an enlarged Serbia, all the Powers acquiesced in this, the first experiment of a Balkan settlement made by Balkan statesmen. Greece and Serbia agreed to the partition of their conquests, and a Greco-Turkish treaty on November 14 was the last of these instruments. Greece emerged from the Balkan wars with her territory increased from 25,014

square miles to 41,933, and with her population augmented from 2,631,952 at the census of 1907, and about 2,765,000 in 1912, to about 4,821,300 in 1914. While not a single mile of railway existed in Epeiros, she acquired in Macedonia 385 miles of line, thus making her total mileage 1,371; it required the construction of only 56 miles between Papapouli and Gida to link 'Old' with 'New' Greece by rail—a work completed on May 8, 1916. The dream of Otho had been realized, all Southern Macedonia, most of Epeiros, Crete, Samos and all the islands, except Tenedos, Imbros, Kastellorizon and the thirteen Sporades occupied by the Italians were included in the Greek kingdom. . . . 'New' Greece, with a large access of Hellenic blood, brought a small number of Albanians, a solid mass of Spanish Jews (mainly from Salonika), and still bigger contingents of Koutzo-Wallachs, Turks and Slavs. Subsequent events have shown that politically and, in a less degree, economically, 'Old' and 'New' Greece do not think alike, while the relations of the Piræus and Salonika somewhat resemble those of Venice and Trieste. . . . For administrative purposes, they were divided temporarily into four general administrations and permanently into fourteen provinces (five in Macedonia, two in Epeiros, four in Crete and three in the other islands), making thirty in all for the whole kingdom, to which they have not yet been ecclesiastically subordinated."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 143-145.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1913; 1913-1914; SALONIKA: 1913.

ALSO IN: J. A. R. Marriott, *Problem of the Near East* (*Edinburgh Review*, Jan., 1916).

1913-1914.—Florence Protocol.—War with Turkey threatened.—"There remained to be settled by the Great Powers the questions of Albania and the Ægean Islands. Commissioners were appointed to delimit the Albanian frontiers, and the 'Florence Protocol' of December 17, 1913, assigned to Albania Northern Epeiros, including the two important towns of Argyrokastron and Koritsa, the port of Santi Cheimarra—all places captured by the Greeks during the first Balkan war—together with the islet of Saseno in the bay of Valona, which had been Greek since 1864. A note of the Powers on February 13, 1914, made the definite recognition of Greek sovereignty over the captured islands contingent upon the previous evacuation of this territory. . . . In June, 1914, Greece seemed on the brink of another war with Turkey. The Germans prompted the willing Turks to deport the Greek population, which from the dawn of history had inhabited the coast of Asia Minor, for the Greek traders were an obstacle alike to German expansion and Turkish centralization. . . . Greeks were boycotted; foreign firms were asked to dismiss their Greek employees; and an occasional massacre, as at Phocæa, lent point to the statement made by a Turkish diplomatist that 'if Greece does not restore the islands, we will persecute the Greeks in Turkey.' Briefly, the Asiatic Greeks were to be treated like the Armenians. . . . Venizelos protested strongly against the expulsion of 30,000 Greeks, adding that the Greek Government would not be responsible for the consequences, unless this persecution ceased, and purchased two American battleships. . . . The Turks, as usual, yielded to the argument of force, the Grand Vizier arranged to meet M. Venizelos, and their meeting was only prevented by the outbreak of the European war."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 148-149.

1913-1914.—Renunciation of claims to northern Epirus.—Revolution and union with Greece.

—Expulsion by Italians. See EPIRUS: 1912-1919. 1914.—Map showing extent of territory. See BALKAN STATES: 1913.

1914.—Neutrality at the opening of the World War.—Officers from Germany and the allies.—"M. Venizelos was at Munich on this business when the news of the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia reached him. Greece was bound to Serbia by the treaty of alliance, signed in 1913 [see SERBIA: 1900-1913], and her Premier, interrogated by his Serbian colleague, replied that, 'while reserving his opinion on the application of the treaty in the event of an armed conflict between Austria and Serbia,' Greece would stand by her ally in case Bulgaria should attack the latter. He added to M. Streit, his Foreign Minister, that 'at no price should Greece be induced to enter the camp opposed to Serbia.' Thus, at the outset, the Premier clearly and unmistakably defined his policy. The position of Greece was difficult. She had only a year earlier emerged with considerable losses in men from the two Balkan wars; she had just been on the verge of war with Turkey, and the Premier confessed that he dreaded the possibility of a Turko-Bulgarian coalition against her, the Turks taking the islands and the Bulgars Macedonia. His own sympathies and convictions in the general European struggle were whole-heartedly with the Allies; they were the protecting Powers of Greece, while Germany had been the power behind Turkey; and in those early days, before the labours of the German propaganda and the undiplomatic blunders of the Allies at Athens, the Greek people was not Germanophil. . . . [King Constantine rejected the German offer to join the Central Empires in the following terms:] 'The Emperor knows that My personal sympathies and My political opinions draw Me to His side. I shall never forget that it is to Him that we owe Kavalla. After ripe reflexion it is, however, impossible for Me to see how I could be useful to Him, if I mobilized My army immediately. The Mediterranean is at the mercy of the united British and French fleets. They would destroy our navy and merchant marine, they would take our islands, and above all they would prevent the concentration of My army, which can be effectuated only by sea, since a railway does not yet exist. Without being able to be in any way useful to Him, we should be wiped from the map. I am forced to think that neutrality is imposed upon us, which could be very useful to Him, with the assurance that we will not touch His friends among My neighbours, as long as they do not touch our local Balkan interests.'—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 150-152.—"By this refusal the Greco-Serbian treaty of alliance of May 19, 1913, remained intact; but construed by the Greek Government as applicable only to Balkan warfare, it was not called into play."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, p. 10.—"The Premier, however, realized, after Turkey's acquisition of the German vessels, *Goeben* and *Breslau*, that sooner or later she might attack Greece, and he, therefore, wished to fight her with the help of the Allies, declaring that if Turkey went to war against them, Greece 'should put all her forces at their disposal, on condition of being guaranteed against the Bulgarian peril.' The British Government, in recognition of this attitude, told him that the British fleet would not allow the Turkish fleet to leave the Dardanelles, even for the exclusive purpose of attacking Greece, and allowed the Greek troops to re-occupy Northern Epeiros. The King, however, . . . [informed] Admiral Kerr that Greece would not go to war against Turkey, un-

less Turkey first attacked her. Thereupon M. Venizelos resigned [September, 1914], but his resignation was not accepted. Col. Metaxas, 'the little Moltke' of Greece, was authorized to submit to the British Authorities a plan for taking the Dardanelles. Their rejection of this plan, by wounding his professional vanity, made him, already German by education, Germanophil in politics."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 152-153.—On the other hand Constantine's policy is thus defined by one of his defenders: "Prime Minister Venizelos, . . . had already shown himself disposed to make concessions to . . . Bulgaria. The first point of difference between the Greek premier and his sovereign was upon this head. The king, a trained soldier, preferred to regard Turkey and Bulgaria as the potential enemies of Greece their policy had shown them, and to bend every energy to assure his army sufficient support from western Europe to drive a war with them to a definite, final conclusion. His plan was not to treat with Turkey and Bulgaria, but to defeat them, break the power of Turkey in Europe forever, and limit Bulgaria to the comparatively scant confines of the territory actually inhabited in majority by Bulgarians."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 15-16.—"Meanwhile, however, the Entente powers under the threat of a second Austrian invasion of Serbia, finally summoned Greece in October, 1914, to apply the Greco-Serbian treaty and come to the aid of her ally in the struggle against Austria. It was Venizelos who refused this time, making the coöperation of Bulgaria and Rumania in the hostilities against Austria a condition precedent to Greece's leaving neutrality."—*Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: b; BALKAN STATES: 1914-1916.

1914.—Interest in Albania.—Appropriation of southern districts. See WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: e.

1915 (January-February).—Sir Edward Grey's communication to Venizelos.—Venizelos' memoranda presented to Constantine.—Constantine's position.—"The crowning success of Venizelos' foreign policy during the European war was the confidential communication by which Sir Edward Grey advised Mr. Venizelos that if Greece would place her army on the side of the Entente Powers, they were willing to recognize in her favor very important territorial concessions in Asia Minor. Here is the text of that very important communication: 'January 23rd, 1915. Sir Edward Grey to Sir F. Elliot. You are requested to converse informally with Mr. Venizelos in the sense of the following: Pending a serious attempt on the part of Austria to crush Serbia, it is of the utmost importance that all who can should help Serbia. If Greece will side with Serbia, as her ally, and participate in the war, I know that France and Russia will both willingly recognize to Greece very important territorial concessions on the coasts of Asia Minor, and if Mr. Venizelos desires under these conditions a definite understanding, he ought to communicate without delay with the Governments of England, France and Russia, and I am sure that any proposition that he might offer would be very favorably received. The matter is urgent, for if Serbia is defeated, although this would not change the possible prospect of defeat of Austria and Germany, nevertheless there would supervene, during the war, accomplished facts in the Balkans that would render it very difficult, if not impossible, to obtain for Greece and Serbia such favorable results as are in prospect to-day. On the contrary, the immediate participation of Greece and Roumania

in the war would make certain a new defeat of Austria, would bring about the failure of the attempt to crush Serbia and would create the certainty that these three states, Greece, Roumania and Serbia, would realize their views and would be masters of the situation in their neighborhood. In order that this participation may be effective, it is very desirable that Bulgaria be assured that if the views of Serbia and Greece are satisfied elsewhere, she would obtain satisfactory territorial concessions in Macedonia, under condition of her participating in the war, or at least that she would not maintain an attitude of unfavorable neutrality, in case she would not decide actively to fight by the side of Serbia. This matter is of a special interest to Serbia and is to be made a subject of negotiations at Nish. You will converse with Mr. Venizelos upon it in order only to ask him not to object to concessions which Serbia might be disposed to make to Bulgaria, on condition that Serbia would realize the Slavic views towards the Adriatic.' . . . In her long history, Greece has seldom found herself in the presence of an international declaration furthering to such a great extent her national interests. Three of the Great European Powers were recognizing her national views upon Asia Minor, and while their extent had not been defined in geographical terms, Mr. Venizelos was distinctly invited to try to obtain their definition, and a positive promise was given that 'any proposition on his part would be very favorably received.' Mr. Venizelos was so careful and practical in handling the great national questions of Greece that he thought he could not accept that proposition; for by sending away the Greek army to the assistance of the Serbians near the Danube he would have exposed Greece to the danger of a Bulgarian invasion, which by severing the communications of both the Greek and the Serbian army with Salonica, might have exposed both of them to destruction. Before accepting that proposition, therefore, Mr. Venizelos tried to secure the co-operation of Roumania, in which case the Bulgarian danger would have been removed, and, having failed in that attempt, he sought to obtain the co-operation of Bulgaria. And, knowing the importance that such co-operation would have had, not only locally, in the Balkans, but also in the issue of the whole war, he did not hesitate to pay the price, as long as he was to get ample compensation elsewhere, in exchange for it. He, therefore, submitted to King Constantine, in two Memoranda [January 11th and 17th], now become famous, the suggestion that Greece should declare to the Entente Powers that she would be willing to relinquish in favor of Bulgaria the districts of Cavalla, Drama, and Sari-Samban, in Macedonia, in order to secure Bulgaria's co-operation in an attack against Turkey, provided that the concessions to be made to Greece in Asia Minor should be of such an extent, as to bring about the creation of an Asia Minor Greece equally large and wealthier than European Greece."—S. A. Xanthaky and N. G. Sakellarios, *Greece in her true light*, pp. 11-15.—From Constantine's point of view, the objections to these plans were as follows: "He [Venizelos] transplants the populations of whole provinces; he outlines Bulgaria's probable future course as if he himself were directing it; Serbia is moved about like a pawn on a chessboard; he disposes of the armies of the Entente as if he were their commander-in-chief; and brushes aside as a mere detail the administrative difficulties of Ottoman territory double the size of present Greece. . . . His whole argument is that Greece will again be doubled in size.—quadruple what she

was in 1912."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, p. 19.—"But this scheme was abandoned owing to the objections of Col. Metaxas to an Asiatic extension of Greek responsibilities, and after the proof of Bulgaria's coming coöperation with the Central Empires."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, p. 153.—"The conclusion of a large Bulgarian loan in Berlin . . . cooled the ardor of the British to conciliate Bulgaria, albeit the fact dimmed nothing of Venizelos's purpose. It required a message from Sir Edward Grey that 'there could be no question of a cession to Bulgaria for the present' to check Mr. Venizelos's political campaign in Greece to that end. Nevertheless, the negotiations for Greece's participation in the expedition against Constantinople continued in a desultory way. Both King Constantine and his general staff favored the enterprise, if undertaken upon serious military bases. The consideration being given the venture by the British war council struck them, however, as haphazard and based upon no real knowledge of the difficulties of the undertaking. . . . A purely naval attack was, in their estimation, doomed to certain failure. . . . Despite this warning the first Allied bombardment of the straits took place on February 19, 1915."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 18-21.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 1; BOSPORUS: 1914-1918.

1915 (February-June).—Conflict between the king and Venizelos.—Resignation of Venizelos.—June elections.—Venizelos returned.—"When . . . an Allied fleet began an attack against the Dardanelles, Mr. Venizelos thought that the time had arrived for Greece to abandon neutrality and, entering the war on the side of the Allies, to assist with her army in the capture of the Dardanelles. He, therefore, submitted to the King of Greece such a proposition for his sanction. Unfortunately, at this most critical period of the national life of Greece, King Constantine, contrary to all expectations and despite the unanimous opinion, at the time, of the Crown Council, which had approved of Venizelos' policy and recommended its adoption, dissented from his great adviser, on the ground that the interests of Greece demanded that she should remain neutral. In the face of such a disagreement with the Crown, Mr. Venizelos was compelled to resign [March 6] from office and Mr. Gounaris, a representative in Parliament from the district of Patras and a prominent figure among Mr. Venizelos' political opponents, came forward and expressed his willingness to support and undertake to carry out the King's policy. Thereupon, Mr. Gounaris formed a new Cabinet [March 10] and proceeded to the dissolution of Parliament."—S. A. Xanthaky and N. G. Sakellarios, *Greece in her true light*, p. 16.—These events are reviewed by a defender of Constantine as follows: "On March 1, Mr. Venizelos proposed that Greece participate with her fleet and an army corps of three divisions, the Entente furnishing the remainder of the land force to be employed in the attack. During the discussion of the details of the enterprise the Greek staff, taught caution in dealing with the Entente by the naval fiasco of February 19, took the view that, with the Bulgarian attitude still undefined, Greece could not in conscience risk more than a division of her land army, albeit willing to add the entire Greek fleet to the Entente's naval forces. This arrangement King Constantine accepted in principle on March 4. . . . The question of the intervention of Greece in the war at this juncture, however, was decided upon other and entirely unexpected grounds. Russia at the eleventh hour opposed any Greek co-

operation in an attack on Constantinople. . . . They insisted that if the help of the Greeks be accepted at all, it be used against the Austrians, not against the Turks. Unfortunately for this disposition, the Greeks, who had nursed five centuries of hatred of the Turks, had no rancor whatever against the Austrians. . . . Negotiations for Greece's entry into the war ceased at once. Prime Minister Venizelos, failing in his efforts to effect an alliance between Greece and the Entente, resigned. But before he resigned he permitted, under paper protest, an Allied occupation of the Greek islands of Lemnos, Imbros, and Tenedos, at the mouth of the Dardanelles, setting a precedent for future Allied use of Greek soil for military purposes."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 22-25.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 1.—"The new Premier, M. Gounares, . . . did not inspire the Allies with the confidence which they had bestowed upon the fallen statesman. Besides there was a power behind the Cabinet and the throne in the persons of the King's confidential advisers, M. Streit, a German by origin, Col. Metaxas and General Dousmanes—all three for various reasons on the side of Germany."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, p. 154.—"The French and British returned to their negotiations with Greece, offering the new Gounaris cabinet one last chance to come in. . . . The Greek staff proposed to march 300,000 Greeks through Bulgaria, and in company with 250,000 European troops to attack Constantinople from the land. Bulgaria was to be summoned to define her attitude. If she declared hostility to the Entente, after all her negotiations to join the Allied powers, the Greeks were quite ready to finish with Bulgaria first and come on to Constantinople later; if, however, Bulgaria were to reiterate her professions of friendship to the Entente, she was to be asked to prove it by permitting the Greek army to pass through her territory. A memorandum embodying these points was submitted to the Entente by the Greek general staff on April 20. The Allies refused to consider this offer, regarding the Greek estimate of the number of troops required for a successful attack upon Constantinople as greatly exaggerated. Six months later General Sarrail set the requisite minimum for an offensive against Bulgaria from Saloniki at virtually the same figures. The British, besides, believed firmly in the friendship of Bulgaria and opposed the Greek plan as calculated to provoke war with King Ferdinand."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 26, 28-29.—"The entry of Italy into the war on May 24, 1915, complicated the situation; for beneficial as it was from a military standpoint, it increased the Allies' diplomatic difficulties at Athens, where Count Bosdari, the Italian Minister, did not pursue the same policy as his colleagues. Since 1912 Italo-Greek relations had been strained, and M. Venizelos, idolized in Britain and France, was regarded in Italy as an obstacle to Italian expansion, which would profit more from a weak than a strong Greece, nor did the Allies' offer of Kavalla to Bulgaria make them more popular."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 154-155.—A few weeks later "the Greek people were invited to express their opinion upon the policy that was to be followed by Greece in the European War. . . . At the elections which were held on the 31st of May, 1915 [O.S.; N.S. June 13], they triumphantly expressed their approval of Mr. Venizelos' platform, by electing with great majorities the candidates of the Liberal Party of which Venizelos was the leader. As a result of these elections the Liberals constituted almost

the two-thirds of the entire membership of the new Parliament."—S. A. Xanthaky and N. G. Sakellarios, *Greece in her true light*, p. 17.—Whether or not this election indicated a desire on the part of the Greek people to enter the war on the side of the Allies is a disputed point. Some writers on Greek affairs state that the voters were definitely told that a vote cast against Venizelos was a vote for Constantine and peace. On the other hand, Constantine's followers declare that "not even Venizelos, himself, pretended that the vote in question had been a vote by Greece in favor of going to war on the side of the Entente. . . . At this period the Greeks were unquestionably passionately in favor of France in the European War. They also trusted Venizelos and respected his undoubted abilities. But they were by no means disposed to part with a portion of the territory they had won from Bulgaria at the point of the bayonet, even at the behest of Venizelos or to help France in her war with Germany. . . . An exceedingly astute politician, Venizelos himself was as well aware of this general sentiment as anybody. He had, therefore, gone very lightly on the war part of his program during his electoral campaign."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 34-36.

1915 (June-November).—Gounaris cabinet.—Venizelos in office.—Succeeded by Zaimis.—Parliament dissolved by the king.—Scoulovidas chosen prime minister.—"After that verdict of the Greek people, the Gounaris Cabinet instead of immediately resigning, according to parliamentary custom, and giving their place to the man chosen by the people, not only failed to do so, but remained in power and intentionally postponed, in violation of the Constitution, the calling of the new Parliament in session, under the pretext that the condition of the health of the King—who had an attack of pleurisy at the time—did not permit him to attend to a change of cabinet. At that time it became evident that there was an intention of imposing the King's opinion, even by a violation of the Constitution. But inasmuch as the expression of the opinion and of the decision of the Greek people was still very recent, the Gounaris cabinet did not dare to go any further on the unconstitutional road, and when finally Parliament was called in session and Venizelos' great majority became evident, they were compelled to resign from office. . . . The King then called Venizelos to office again [August 23], and there was a general expectation that the King, bowing to the verdict of the people, would allow their chosen leader to carry out his policy. That expectation did not materialize, however. Only one month later, when Venizelos, after a mobilization by Bulgaria, which was evidently aimed at Serbia, asked, in conformity with the obligations of alliance, to go to the assistance of Serbia, even by declaring war, in case of necessity, against Bulgaria, King Constantine again disagreed with Venizelos and asserted that the treaty with Serbia did not bind Greece to come to her assistance when she was at war, not only with Bulgaria, but also with the Teutonic Powers."—S. A. Xanthaky and N. G. Sakellarios, *Greece in her true light*, pp. 17-18.—"When told that it was his duty as a constitutional monarch to follow his Minister's policy, approved by the country at the recent elections, he said: 'I recognize my obligation to obey the popular verdict whenever it is a question of internal questions, but when it is a question of external questions, I must insist that My idea be followed, for I am responsible before God.' . . . As it was clear that Bulgaria was on the point of attacking Ser-

bia, the Premier applied to the Entente for 150,000 men. But a few hours before the landing of the first Anglo-French detachment at Salonika he had been dismissed because of his reply to Theotokes' question as to what he would do if, in aiding Serbia, Greece met German troops, viz., that she would act as her honour demanded. Meanwhile it had long been known at Sofia that, whatever happened, Greek neutrality was assured."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 155-156.—Defenders of Constantine review the events which led to the dismissal of Venizelos as follows: "On September 15 the Greek staff advised the Serbian staff, as well as the Entente ministers in Athens. . . . that October 14 was the date set for Bulgaria's declaration of war. The information was too precise to be wholly ignored. . . . Albeit Great Britain clung to her assertion that Bulgaria would never move from neutrality. . . . At the same time . . . he [Venizelos] asked France and Great Britain to send 150,000 Allied troops to Macedonia. The two governments replied that they were favorably disposed to consider the matter. On September 23 the Bulgarian mobilization was decreed, but officially stated to be 'solely for defensive purposes.' . . . Then, on October 2, after having completed all his arrangements with the Entente ministers in Athens for the sending of a nominal expeditionary force to Macedonia, Venizelos broached the matter to his sovereign. . . . On the definite understanding that the Entente force to be sent was to total 150,000 men, or at least 100,000 bayonets, Venizelos left the King's presence at Tatoy [or Tatoi] and went at once to the French and British legations. . . . Later in the evening King Constantine telephoned his prime minister to repair to Tatoy the following morning to discuss the details of the proposed arrangement with the officers of the Greek staff. 'It is too late, Sire,' answered Venizelos. 'The French are already on the way.' . . . The Allied expeditionary force, ordered to Saloniki on October 2, 1915, began debarkment October 5. [See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 3; FRANCE: 1915 (October).] . . . In Athens, the news of an Allied expedition to Saloniki precipitated an acute political crisis. Venizelos . . . appeared in the Boulé . . . [to ask for the passage of a] resolution constitutionally required to legalize the landing of a foreign force on Greek soil. . . . [Later] King Constantine called his first minister to the palace. The interview was a stormy one. . . . 'I can no longer cooperate with you along those lines,' the king said dryly, when his minister had finished. 'I shall accept your resignation. The people of Greece will decide whether you are authorized to plunge them into war or not.' . . . He [Venizelos] said, speaking of the king's action in dismissing him as prime minister, 'The Constitution of Greece has ceased to exist.' . . . Article XXXI of the Greek Constitution reads, however: 'The king appoints and dismisses his ministers.' There is no qualifying clause whatever. . . . 'The only violations of the Constitution that I know anything about,' he [the king] said, 'were those committed by Venizelos: first, when he authorized foreign troops to land on Greek soil without the consent of the Greek chamber; and, second, when he tried to exercise the power of declaring war, which by Article XXXII of the Constitution, is vested solely in the crown.'—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 44-45, 48, 51-53, 60, 62-64, 67.—"Venizelos, although he had the confidence of Parliament, in the face of this new disagreement with the Crown, offered his resignation and relinquished power to Mr. Alexander Zaimis [Octo-

ber 5], to whom the King entrusted the formation of a new cabinet. [Zaimis renewed the declaration of "benevolent neutrality" on the part of Greece, and refused Serbia's appeal for help on the old grounds that the treaty between them was merely Balkan in character—this, in spite of England's offer of Cyprus.] Venizelos tolerated this cabinet for some time and lent it his support in Parliament. But when he realized that they were taking advantage of his toleration, that the Minister of War, General Gliannakitsas [or Yannakitsas], having become a tool of the General Staff, was behaving towards the National Representation in an insulting manner, Venizelos was compelled to withdraw his support [Nov. 4], and then the Zaimis cabinet, having been defeated in Parliament, resigned. Thereupon, King Constantine entrusted Mr. Scouloudis [or Skouloudis] with the formation of a new cabinet, dissolved Parliament and called the people to new elections. Venizelos, considering that the dissolution of Parliament, under those conditions, was unconstitutional, refused together with his friends to participate in those elections, so that, there being no opposition, by the vote of only a small part of the Greek people, all the Government candidates were elected, these men being also supporters of the royal policy, which the Government was trying to carry out."—S. A. Xanthaky and N. G. Sakellarios, *Greece in her true light*, pp. 18-19.—The Constantinist point of view on these events is as follows: "The line between considering the Balkan situation as a political or as a military question was sharply drawn in the Boulé on November 4. Venizelos, sponsor of the former view, returned personally to the charge, speaking of the obligations of Greece toward Serbia and the benefits to be gained by joining the Entente, making a combined appeal to the sentimentality and the cupidity of his countrymen. General Yannakitsas took his stand sharply as a practical soldier—that all of this was beside the main point of whether the campaign could be won or not with the forces available; and he thought not. . . . After dismissing his prime minister on October 5, King Constantine stated that if, in the elections of December 21, which were to be held on the naked question of war or peace, the people were once more to select Venizelos and his party to conduct the affairs of Greece, he, the sovereign, would gladly accept the judgment of his people on a clearly formulated point, would call Venizelos to power again and stifle his objections to going to war under conditions which he firmly believed most hazardous. Of this the Greek monarch apprised Mr. Venizelos himself."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 84, 87, 100.—"Yet when elections were called to ascertain whether the people of Greece did or did not accord with his policy of thrusting Greece into the war, he refused to take part in the elections or to permit any member of his party to take part in them."—*Ibid.*, pp. 98-100.

1916.—Transport of Serbs across Greece.—Surrender of Fort Roupel to Germans and Bulgarians.—Zaimis prime minister.—"Two incidents branded the Skouloudis Ministry: its refusal to allow the Serbian troops, then in Corfu after their retreat across Albania, to traverse the Greek railways on their way to join the Allies at Salonika, and its ignominious surrender of Fort Roupel, which commands the Struma valley. . . . This cost the Greeks the loss of Northern Epeiros, which could no longer be safely entrusted to Greek troops, the proclamation of martial law by General Sarraïl in Macedonia, and the note of the three protecting Powers on June 21, demanding

the reduction of the army to a peace footing, the immediate replacement of the Cabinet by a colourless Government, the dissolution of the Chamber, a fresh election, and the removal of certain obnoxious police officials. The ever-useful M. Zaimis replaced M. Skouloudes promising to execute these demands. . . . Rarely had an independent state received such a humiliation; Greece, as a Greek diplomatist said to the writer, had 'become a public place,' in which the Allies planted themselves where they chose, at Corfu, Salonika, Moudros, Joannina and Preveza, while the Bulgarians invaded Eastern Macedonia, thus making an election impossible. The Bulgars occupied Kavalla [in August], and 8,000 Greek soldiers were 'interned' by the Germans at Görlitz. This so greatly disgusted patriotic officers at Salonika, that they formed [in September] a Committee of National Defence under the Cretan, Col. Zymbrakakes, repudiating the Athens Government. This movement, unsuccessful at the moment, was the forerunner of the Venizelot Provisional Government of Salonika. [His task too difficult of accomplishment, Zaimis retired Sept. 11.] M. Venizelos had reluctantly come to the conclusion that nothing but a revolution would change Greek policy, for the new Kalogeropoulos [Sept. 16] Cabinet, although favourable to the Allies, was powerless to counteract the King's secret advisers."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 156-158.—After the surrender of Fort Roupel and the consequent humiliation of Greece, the king became openly bitter towards the Allies. As a result, he was openly attacked and as hotly defended. The following quotation is a Constantinist's story of the preceding events. "On April 12 [1916], the Entente ministers in Athens announced their intention to transport the Serbian army across Greece. . . . The Greeks could not see, besides, why the fact that the greater powers had treated the Serbs shabbily should cause hardship to be visited upon Hellas, or why Greece should suffer to make up for the deficiencies in the Allied operations against German submarines. But the deciding cause of the Skouloudis government's refusal to countenance the transport of the Serbs across Greece was the fear that the presence in and about Athens of so large a force of Serbs would be seized by the Venizelists as the moment to effect a *coup d'état*, overturning the constitutional government. . . . The British and French ministers were equally stubborn, declaring that the Entente would transport the Serbian army across the country with or without the consent of King Constantine and his ministers. . . . General Moscopoulos, the Greek commander in Macedonia, had urged the French to extend their lines to the east of the Struma River and to take effective control of the Greek points of strategic importance in that sector. He explained repeatedly that the Greeks, cut off from their base of supplies at Saloniki, partially demobilized at the insistence of the Allies, and dependent upon an open roadstead as a port, were in no position to resist successfully a strong attack from the north. Instead of extending his line, however, General Sarraïl had further emphasized the isolation of the Greeks by destroying the Demir Hissar Lridge, two and a half miles south of the Greek Fort Roupel on the east bank of the Struma. Thus Fort Roupel was as effectually cut off as if it had been located in Bulgarian territory. . . . On May 26, the Bulgarians appeared before Fort Roupel [or Roupel] and demanded its evacuation by the Greek troops, offering a written guarantee that the fort with all its contents would be restored after the war, that private property



would be protected, and that the territory temporarily occupied would be evacuated later. Prime Minister Skouloudis accepted the offer, entering a formal protest against an act of hostility, which his government communicated to the Entente ministers. Fort Rupel was promptly abandoned by the Greek troops, who first rendered its guns useless; the Bulgarians occupied the stronghold, precisely as the Allies had occupied Fort Karabournou and Fort Dova Tepe."—P. Hibben, *Constantine I and the Greek people*, pp. 213-214, 217, 225, 228-229.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b.

1916.—Allied operations on the Salonika front.—Greek attitude.—Sided with Allies in operations against Bulgaria. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: b; b, 1; b, 2, iii.

1916.—Independent cabinet of Venizelos.—Allied blockade.—"Passing over the disturbances which occurred at Salonica in August, 1916, between the Venelist and anti-Venelist troops, and the attitude taken up by the King, who publicly thanked certain officers of the latter party for their loyalty, the next important event was the departure of M. Venizelos from Athens on September 24 and the formation by him of an Independent Cabinet at Salonica about a fortnight later. This development constituted a sort of dividing of ways, for whilst the Allies did not openly embrace the policy of M. Venizelos, it at once became evident that their only alternative was either to repudiate the step taken by their protégé, which was obviously impossible under the circumstances, or to work for the augmentation of his power and for the increase of the size of the sphere of country which acknowledged him. From October onwards events marched apace."—H. C. Woods, *Cradle of the war*, p. 146.—"The king entrusted the task of forming a cabinet [Oct. 10] to Professor Lampros, the eminent mediaeval scholar, a Germanophil without experience of politics. Greece was thenceforth divided into two camps—Athens and Salonika, separated by a neutral zone; Greek colonies throughout the world took sides; island after island joined Salonika, and Venelist troops fought by the side of the Allies, while the attitude of the Royalists became more and more suspicious."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, p. 158.—In October "Admiral de Fournet demanded the cession of the whole of the Greek fleet except three vessels—a demand which was agreed to by the Lampros Ministry. The demobilisation of the Army, however, proceeded very slowly, and in November the French Commander-in-Chief insisted upon the immediate surrender of ten Greek mountain batteries and the subsequent handing over of the remaining war material. This peremptory request was not complied with, and on December 1, Allied troops were landed at the Piræus. The exact nature of the assurances given by the King as to the likelihood of the occurrence of disturbances resulting from this landing is uncertain, but the fact remains, as a result of some kind of undertaking in this direction, that the Allied contingents disembarked were so inadequate in size that it became necessary ignominiously to withdraw them, on the understanding that six batteries instead of ten would be surrendered. The Allied Legations having been insulted and the Royalist party having maltreated, imprisoned, and murdered a large number of Venelists, a renewed blockade was declared,—a blockade which was accompanied by a demand for reparation for the events of December 1 and 2, and for the transference of a large proportion of the Greek army to the Peloponnesus. [On Decem-

ber 19th Great Britain recognized the provisional government at Saloniki.] Although the King subsequently agreed [Jan. 10, 1917] to the transfer of his forces to the Peloponnesus, and although a formal apology was made for the events of December, it was obvious that after the occurrence of these events, it was impossible for the Allies to look with favour upon the continuance of a régime which was responsible for endangering their whole position in the Balkans. The removal of the Hellenic forces proceeded unsatisfactorily, the reign of terror instituted against Venelists was prolonged, and for a time the Allies temporised in the hope of being able to accomplish their objects without finally resorting to drastic measures."—H. C. Woods, *Cradle of the war*, pp. 146, 147.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: d.

1917.—Abdication of Constantine.—Succession of Prince Alexander.—Entry into the World War on the side of the Allies.—"But on June 7, 1917, . . . M. Jonnart reached Athens as the High Commissioner of the Protecting Powers. Immediately after his arrival, he claimed from M. Zaimis, who was once again Prime Minister [for the fifth time, May 3], more complete guarantees for the safety of the Allied army in Macedonia, the restoration of the unity of the kingdom, and the working of the constitution in its true spirit. Five days later, when Allied troops had been landed at the Piræus, and when various places in Thessaly had been occupied, the King, as a result of the demand of the High Commissioner, abdicated [June 12], designating as his successor his second son, Prince Alexander—a young man of twenty-four years of age, who had previously played no political rôle in the affairs of his country."—H. C. Woods, *Cradle of the war*, pp. 147-148.—"Venizelos was not consulted in regard to the abdication of Constantine. The move was made wholly upon the responsibility of the British and French Governments. But High Commissioner Jonnart knew that Venizelos believed that this step was the only possible means of saving Greece from civil war of a nature that might jeopardize the hopes of an Allied offensive from Saloniki. There seemed no other way out of the dilemma. The forced abdication was the lesser of two evils. . . . Premier Zaimis remained in office after the abdication of Constantine at the request of King Alexander, who wrote to Zaimis that he was 'the faithful guardian of the Constitution,' and made it clear that he was willing to comply with all the demands of the Entente. Venizelos immediately declared that he had no quarrel with the new Government, and that the Provisional Government at Saloniki went out of existence automatically. He assumed that the change of sovereign indicated the intention of returning to an observance of the Constitution. Since the Provisional Government had been created simply as a protest against the violation of the Constitution, it had no longer a *raison d'être*. Venizelos returned to Athens on June 21 and entered into negotiations with Zaimis. Jonnart insisted upon the convocation of the Chamber elected on May 31, 1915, in which Venizelos had a majority. He based his demand upon the grounds invoked for the abdication of Constantine. The Powers that stood as guarantors of Greece were bound to see that the Constitution was observed. Since the dissolution of the May Chamber had been illegal, its legislative functions and mandates still held good. Zaimis refused to accept this interpretation and resigned. On June 27 King Alexander asked Venizelos to form a Cabinet. He accepted the premiership, reserved to himself the portfolio of

war, and appointed his tried friend, Politis, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Two days later [June 29], Greece formally entered the war. The King signed a decree convoking the Venizelist Chamber of 1915 [which had been dissolved by Constantine Nov. 6, 1915]. In token of their confidence in the new Government, the Allies gradually withdrew their administrative control of Government services, retaining only the censorship of the telegraph and cable in cooperation with the Greek government."—H. A. Gibbons, *Venizelos*, pp. 301-305.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: a.

1917-1918.—Venizelos in power.—Finances.—Crops.—Part in the World War.—"Tyranny" of Venizelist régime.—"When Venizelos returned to Athens, the Treasury had a deficit of seven hundred million francs. A year later Greek money was at an unprecedented premium in exchange. . . . The 1918 crops were twenty per cent better than those of 1917. The railways, extended and reorganized, rendered invaluable service in the Macedonian campaign. The merchant marine was able to put almost one hundred and fifty steamships at the disposal of the Allies. The Greek fleet proved a precious aid in clearing the eastern Mediterranean of submarines. At the time the Allies disembarked at Saloniki, fifteen Greek divisions were mobilized. . . . During the winter at Saloniki Venizelos created three divisions on a war footing, recruited from Macedonia, Crete, and the Ægean Islands. With the remobilization of the summer of 1917 Venizelos had material for eight more divisions. These were officered and trained in the winter of 1917-18, were gradually introduced into the fighting in the late spring and summer of 1918, and when the Entente Powers were ready for the final defensive, Greece had eleven divisions on war footing, one in Epirus and the rest on the Macedonian front. Of three hundred thousand men under arms, one hundred and seventy thousand participated in the actual fighting. Although, in urging the necessity of an offensive on the Macedonian front, Venizelos guaranteed the effective cooperation of Greece, Entente statesmen were too much impressed by the memory of the Constantinist demoralization to take Venizelos seriously. . . . The first chance Venizelos had of refuting the assertion that other Greeks would not fight under his leadership was during the early spring attacks of 1918. He directed that troops of Old Greece be used by General Nider on the Struma front. They covered themselves with glory on April 15. Then Venizelos persuaded General Guillaumat to confide to four Greek regiments the extremely difficult task of carrying the position of Skradi-Legen on May 30. The next day General Guillaumat telegraphed Venizelos that the Greeks had won a notable success and that 'the new divisions arriving in turn on the front will draw from this victory, which fills all Greece with legitimate pride, a greater ardor still for work and combat.' The Greeks lost in this fight six hundred dead and seventeen hundred wounded. Their dash and courage, their unwavering advance under fire, gave the Greek army confidence in itself and won the esteem of the Allies, who up to this moment had remained doubting Thomases. The intervention of Greece under Venizelos on the Macedonian front had the same effect as the intervention of the Americans under Wilson on the Western front. As German morale was broken in France by the appearance of a new army, which would give the enemy an unquestioned superiority of numbers, so the Bulgarian morale was broken by the unexpected resurrection of Greece. Here was a new

reservoir for the enemy to tap, which could not be prevented from being drawn upon by lack of transportation facilities and the work of submarines. . . . The Allies at Saloniki realized after May 30 that the Greece of Venizelos was going to enable them to make a victorious offensive. . . . The Greeks were active every day from September 15 to September 30. The Fourteenth Division, cooperating with the Sixteenth British Army Corps, was the first to cross the Bulgarian frontier. Both Franchet d'Esperey and General Milne declared that the Greek army had proved a decisive factor in the victory. The British general was most explicit. Writing to General Danglis on October 3, General Milne said: 'Without the aid of the Greek forces, the present victory could not have been obtained.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 323-327.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: a; c, 5; c, 8, i; c, 8, iii; c, 9.—"Venizelos, using his foreign policy as a shield, no sooner arrived in Greece than he abolished every vestige of civil liberty all over the country. He dismissed more than ten thousand public officials, including the best army and navy officers; . . . he introduced martial law, which held full sway in the country up to the day of the general elections; he instituted mass deportation to the most remote islands of the Greek Kingdom, thus reducing them to the status of miniature Siberias; he established several bodies of secret police, and he adopted spying as an indispensable feature of his policy. The most innocent expression against the doings of the Venizelist dictatorship was enough to send a man to jail and to exile. . . . Spying and counter-spying among the citizens became general, and the country has for three years lived under the shadow of conspiracies, most of which were found to be engineered by the Government itself with the sole object of persecuting its political enemies."—A. T. Polyzoïdes, *Greece and her leaders* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1921).

1918.—Loss of life in World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3.

1918.—Represented at interallied labor conference. See LABOR PARTIES: 1868-1919.

1918 (September).—Austro-Hungarian peace proposal. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: k.

1918 (September-November).—Proclamation of armistices with Bulgaria, Turkey, Germany and Austria-Hungary. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: c; d; e; f; also 1918: XI. End of the war: a.

1918-1920.—Venizelos at the peace conference.—Treaties of Neuilly and Sèvres.—"The defeat of the Bulgars, Turks, and Austrians was so complete that the Venizelos policy was vindicated and his leadership was again accepted by the nation—at least it was assumed to be accepted—and he came to the Paris Conference as the recognized master of the situation. While the Cretan statesman, thus in control of the policies of his country through the defeat of the Central Powers, entered upon his duties as a negotiator holding the confidence and friendship of the Allies because of his devotion to their cause under doubtful, if not adverse, conditions, he could not have been blind to the fact that good fortune rather than popular favor had been the means of his success, and that there smoldered a fire of resentment in 'Old Greece' because, to attain his ends, he had depended on foreign troops rather than the will of the Greek people. To take a conspicuous place in the deliberations at Paris and to employ the good will of the Allies for the exten-

sion of the territorial possessions of Greece must have seemed to him a wise course to pursue, as there was reason to believe that attainment of his object would satisfy the national aspirations and win the favor of many who had opposed the abandonment of neutrality and who had resented his revolutionary act in forcing King Constantine to abandon his throne. . . . It is very obvious from an examination of the terms of the Treaty of Neuilly and the Treaty of Sèvres, that M. Venizelos was successful in winning, not only the confidence, but also the active coöperation of the negotiators who represented the Allied Governments in the formulation of those documents. The settlements were wholly favorable to the Venizelos policy of 'Greek Unity' and to the desires of the Greek expansionists, favorable to the point of extravagance. . . . [The American commissioners were] frankly averse to the Greek claims, not because of any unfriendliness for Greece or of friendliness for her enemies, but because the cession of areas inhabited by large hostile populations creates conditions which threaten the future peace of the world. . . . Except for the personal influence of M. Venizelos, I am convinced that the extension of Greek sovereignty would not have been so great as it is under the treaties. What he asked was granted because *he* asked it. . . . The consequence was the creation of a new and greater Greece embracing within its territory the shores and islands of the Ægean Sea as well as Eastern Thrace, a Greece which, by uniting the Greek cities and settlements on the islands and shores of the Ægean made of it a Greek sea, but a Greece which, by this extension of territorial sovereignty to separated coasts, became a country impossible of military defense and unstable politically on account of ethnic animosities and lack of economic independence. It is possible that my impression of M. Venizelos would have changed and been more in harmony with the common opinion of him had it not been for this apparent appetite for territory. I found it hard to believe that a man of his experience in public affairs . . . could be convinced in his own mind that it would make for the future peace and prosperity of Greece to expand her boundaries to so great an extent, since it was sure to arouse the bitter enmity of the Bulgars and Turks and invite them to war against their conquerors at the first favorable opportunity while the defensive strength of Greece would be materially weakened unless it became a naval power. . . . Apostle of 'unification of Greece' as he [Venizelos] had always been, and an active agent in throwing off the yoke of alien authority from his compatriots of the island of Crete, he may have been obsessed with the idea that Greeks everywhere should be joined to the mother country by uniting under Greek sovereignty the territories where they dwell even though they are a minority of the population. . . . It may have been that he had made promises and announced policies of an all-inclusive Greek State which he could not revoke or modify without losing prestige and political power at home. . . . I am loath to accept this latter reason because it is open to the interpretation that M. Venizelos was willing to adopt an unwise policy in order to perpetuate his political control by satisfying the ambitions of the people of 'Old Greece' and by gaining the support of the Greek inhabitants of the Annexed territory. . . . In fact when one analyzes the record of events there seems to be only one of two conclusions, either M. Venizelos was an unwise statesman or he was a politician who endeavored to preserve his political life by responding to the

impulses of national pride of his countrymen and of the racial affinity of those of Greek blood. In either case the popular estimate of his character is impaired."—R. Lansing, *Big Four, and others of the peace conference*, pp. 156, 147-150.—See also PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.—"By the treaties of Neuilly and Sèvres, between the Allies and Bulgaria and Turkey respectively in 1919 and 1920, Greece received Thrace almost up the Chatalja lines, and two of the three remaining Turkish islands of the Ægean, Imbros and Tenedos, subject to their disarmament (Kastellorizon being handed to Italy). Smyrna and its territory remained nominally Turkish, in token of which a Turkish flag (following Cretan precedent) was to fly over one of its outer forts; but Greece was to exercise the rights of sovereignty over the city and territory with a local Parliament, which in five years' time might ask the Council of the League of Nations for their 'definitive incorporation in the Kingdom of Greece.' Although the Dodekanese was formally ceded to Italy, the Venizelos-Tittoni agreement had arranged for its transference (except Rhodes) to Greece. These territorial gains were a great triumph for their author, but some doubted whether Greece could assimilate them, especially as they were not purely Hellenic. It was asked whether Bulgaria, now cut off from the Ægean, would be permanently content with the 'economic outlets' promised her there; whether this double acquisition in Europe and Asia would not sow the seeds of a future Turko-Bulgarian alliance. [Italy] was opposed to a Greek Smyrna, alleging that Mr. Lloyd George had promised it to her at the St. Jean de Maurienne Conference of 1917. But M. Venizelos argued that the Thracian coast in Bulgarian hands might become a submarine base and that Bulgaria by her conduct had no claim to benevolence, while, if Greece were one day to recover Constantinople, it was essential that her land continuity should not be broken by a Bulgarian Thrace. He applied the principle of self-determination to the Greeks of Western Asia Minor (whom he estimated at 818,221), preferring union to autonomy on the ground that the latter would only create a larger Samian or Cretan question, and indicating the difficulty of replacing under Turkish rule the vast numbers of Asiatic Greeks expelled before, and during, the war—for since 1915 the persecutions and expulsions had increased. These figures excluded the Greeks of Trebizond (where a Greek Empire existed from 1204 to 1461), whom their Archbishop sought to form into an autonomous state, but whom the Premier would have attached to Armenia, and those of Brûsa, whom he left to Turkey. Constantinople remained the Turkish capital on condition that Turkey executed the treaty; and, despite the historic claims of Greece to Santa Sophia, that famous church was left to the Moslems. But the 'Holy Mountain' of Athos remains—under Greece—a theocratic Republic."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 160-162.—See also NEULLY, TREATY OF; SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Greece; SMYRNA; BULGARIA: 1919; THRACE: 1918-1921; BALKAN STATES: 1921: Greece; CONSTANTINOPLE: 1920.

1919.—Treaty with Jugo-Slavia.—Occupation of Smyrna.—"On April 18 M. Coundouriotis, the Greek Minister accredited at Belgrade to the Prince Regent of the kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes (Jugoslavia), informed the Government at Athens that he had concluded a treaty of alliance with the new State of Jugoslavia, the terms

of which would be published, in accordance with the new custom, as soon as they had been confirmed by the Parliaments interested. . . . Greece received the mandate from the Council of the Allied and Associated Powers to administer the City of Smyrna. On May 14 Greek forces landed there, followed on the 16th by a naval concentration of British, French, and Italian warships; the United States was represented by the battleship *Arizona* and four destroyers. Late in March the Athens press had published a communiqué from Premier Venizelos, dated Paris, to the effect that the Council of Ten had authorized him to dispatch troops to the Smyrna region to the number of 50,000."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1919, pp. 428-429.—The occupation of Smyrna was attended with rioting in which both Turks and Greeks got out of hand.

1919.—Re-occupation of Epirus. See EPIRUS: 1919-1922.

1919.—Represented at conference for international union of academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French Academy.

1919-1921.—Infant welfare work.—Care of dependent young. See CHARITIES: Greece: 1919-1921.

1920.—Member of commission of the Straits for control of the Dardanelles. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: The Straits.

1920.—Greco-Turkish War.—Operations in Asia Minor and Thrace.—Surrender of Adrianople.—Secret treaty of Sèvres.—"The lamentable delay on the part of the Supreme Council in the presentation of the Turkish Treaty permitted the setting up, in Asia Minor, of a 'Nationalist' administration under Moustapha Kemal, a Turkish officer, who took advantage for the purpose of the widespread Young Turkish organisation. . . . In Thrace, the standard of revolt was raised by one General Jaffer [or Tjafer] Tayar, [the Nationalist military governor at Adrianople], who set out to save this last tract of European territory for Turkey. He gathered, or forced, the Ottoman elements of the population around him, and assumed that he would receive very considerable support from the Bulgarians. During the first fortnight of June, the activities of the Nationalists in Asia Minor, the growth of the movement, and the strength of the attacks upon the Allied (Greek) forces in the districts around Smyrna, were the cause of considerable anxiety to the Supreme Council. . . . M. Venizelos, however, had been under no delusion as to the intentions of Moustapha Kemal. He had been quietly maturing his plans for dealing at once with the menace to the Greek forces in Asia Minor and securing the territories allotted to Hellas by the Conference, and, following private conversations with Mr. Lloyd George in London, he came forward at a meeting between the British and French Premiers at Hythe with an offer to enforce the Treaty in its integrity by the employment of the Greek army. This offer was accepted by Britain and France, presumably on June 20th, 'subject to the approval of Italy and the rest of the Allies.' . . . The first big battle of the campaign was fought at Alashehr, the ancient Philadelphia, one of the 'Seven Churches' of the Apocalypse. During June 24th, the Greeks converged on the enemy positions, and by night-fall had registered a notable success, completely routing the 13th Turkish Army Corps and taking possession of the city. . . . The fall of Balikesiri [July 2] may be said to have completed the second phase of the Greek advance, and it was al-

ready obvious that the rout of the Turks on the northern front was now complete. . . . The main operations of the Greek army in Asia Minor were brought to a conclusion with the fall of Brussa [or Brusa, July 10]."—*Graeco-Turkish War of 1920 (Balkan Review, Sept., 1920)*.—"The Greek armies in Thrace were taken over by General Zimbrakakis, and on July 20 began an active campaign against Tjafer Tayar in order to clear the country of the enemy between the Ægean and Black Seas, east and west, and the Bulgarian frontier and the Tchatalja line of Constantinople, north and south. King Alexander, meanwhile, had landed at Rodosto, Sea of Marmora, and followed the southern victorious army on its way to Adrianople. The campaign in its intensified form lasted five days. . . . Meanwhile, the Turkish grand vizier had sent a message to Tjafer Tayar, asking him to surrender and so prevent further bloodshed. . . . On July 25 the city [Adrianople] surrendered to the great relief of the civil population. Tjafer Tayar had decamped the day before for Kirk Kilisse with 5,000 followers. . . . His main forces marched north and surrendered their arms to the Bulgarian authorities and were interned by them. The number of men thus surrendering numbered 15,000. On July 26 King Alexander entered Adrianople amid a great demonstration indulged in by Greeks and Turks alike. Tjafer Tayar was captured July 28, by being betrayed by a farmer at Hals, five miles southwest of Adrianople. . . . [Greece began to administer Eastern Thrace with Western Thrace in the person of Vamvacas, governor-general, who established his capital at Gumuldjina.] By the third week in July the Greek advance in Anatolia had reached the Sea of Marmora, isolating the Nationalist forces in the vicinity of Mount Ida, and covering a line nearly 300 miles long, extending from the Mendere River to Ismid, where the British had cut the railway extending southeast from Skutari, opposite Constantinople, to its junction with the Bagdad railway. On July 28 the Greek commander-in-chief, General Paraskevopoulos, having overseen the completion of the successful campaign carried on in Eastern Thrace, reached Smyrna from Panderma and was brilliantly received."—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1920, p. 1078.—In later months much discussion centered around "the secret treaty signed by Venizelos and the representatives of Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan, at Sèvres, on Aug. 10, the day on which the Turkish Peace Treaty was signed. . . . The secret pact of Sèvres, which raises Greece from a fifth-rate to a second-rate power, contains the following passage: 'France and Great Britain renounce all that pertains to special rights of guardianship or of control which had been given them over Greece by the Treaty of London of May 7, 1832; the Treaty of London of Nov. 14, 1863; and, in what concerns the Ionian Islands, by the Treaty of London of March 29, 1864.'"—*Ibid.*, Jan., 1921, p. 60.—See also SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920 (Aug. 10).

1920-1921.—Death of King Alexander.—Defeat of Venizelos.—Return of Constantine.—Various points of view on the downfall of Venizelos.—Difficulties of restoration.—Gounaris prime minister.—"Meanwhile, Royalist intrigues were conducted from Switzerland, and the marriage of one of the Princes with an American millionairess provided the sinews of propaganda. Constantine had never 'abdicated'; he had only 'left his country'; his popularity as a soldier was great with the people, while the impeachment of Royalist ex-Ministers and the expulsion of Royalist

supporters increased the numbers of the discontented. A plot against the Premier was discovered at Athens; two Greek officers tried to assassinate him in Paris. Then, on October 25, 1920, the death of King Alexander, due to a monkey's bite, created a reaction in favour of the exile, and the elections were fought on the personal question: Constantine or Venizelos. Meanwhile, Admiral Koundouriotis [or Kounduriotis] acted as Regent till Prince Paul, the later King's younger brother, should make up his mind to accept the Crown. [He refused the crown in favor of his father Constantine or his elder brother.] But the elections of November 14 decided for Constantine; M. Venizelos was not even elected, resigned and left Greece, whereupon Rhallis for the fifth time became Premier [Nov. 16]. His first act was to substitute the Queen-Mother Olga as Regent for Admiral Koundouriotis, his next to hold a *plébiscite* for the restoration of Constantine. The result was a foregone conclusion, and on December 20 Constantine reached Athens. Great Britain and France imposed no obstacle to the will of the people, while Italy rejoiced at the downfall of the Greek Cavour. The Italians were guided by self-interest, but history contains few examples of national ingratitude such as that of the Greeks."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, pp. 162-163.—"Serious international complications threatened when on Dec. 5 [1920] the Greek people voted overwhelmingly for the return of Constantine, their exiled king; remonstrances and warnings were sent by the Supreme Council then sitting in London. So strong was their opposition to this action of the Greeks that they threatened to abandon Greece to her fate if the latter insisted upon Constantine's return to the throne; but neither their threats nor opposition in the Balkans and among the Greeks in Asia Minor prevented his triumphal entry into Athens."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1921, *Supplement*, p. 95.—"But three months after the treaty of Sèvres he [Venizelos] was a defeated exile. Various causes produced this unexpected result. He attributed his defeat to the long mobilization of the army; it was also due to his long absence from Greece owing to the protracted peace negotiations. His lieutenants were far inferior to himself; their unpopularity descended upon him; and as Gladstone repudiated the title of 'Gladstonian,' so Venizelos might repudiate that of 'Venizelist.'"—*Ibid.*, p. 162.—"A member of the Opposition said to me, 'We want Venizelos, but are opposed to his governmental staff, who, taking advantage of his absence, have done many bad and incompetent acts.' There were those who honestly thought Mr. Venizelos too imperialistic, and this thought was fostered by his enemies, especially those who had lost military or civil positions under his Government."—H. A. Henderson, *Passing of Venizelos*, *New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1921).—"The part played by M. Venizelos in bringing Greece into the war was made possible by the presence of Allied forces in the Saloniki region. The Greek Government had prior to that time maintained neutrality in the war, and even went so far in avoiding conflict as to permit Bulgarian occupation of Greek territory without resistance. To what extent the influence of King Constantine and his German Queen induced this policy is of little importance, though there can be no doubt that the Allies were disposed to credit it with chief importance. Outside of this influence, to which the pusillanimous surrender of territory gave color, the arguments in favor of a policy of neutrality were strong and convincing. Serbia

in spite of the unsurpassed valor and sacrifices of her people had been occupied by the conquering armies of Bulgaria and Austria-Hungary. The Serbian nation had endured untold agonies at the hands of the invaders. The Allied Governments though vigorously demanding that the Greeks aid the Serbs in the unequal struggle, would not agree to send troops or munitions to Greece although that country was insufficiently manned and equipped to conduct a war of magnitude. In these circumstances King Constantine and his advisers declined to depart from their neutral attitude on the ground that Greece was not strong enough without foreign aid to resist the armies of the Central Alliance, and that to make war unaided and without adequate military preparations would mean that their country would suffer the same fate of Serbia and the Greek people would undergo the horrors of an invasion by an utterly worthless foe. It would seem that in the circumstances even if the King had not been a brother-in-law of the German emperor, the policy adopted was in the best interests of the Greek nation; and apparently the majority of the people favored this policy of neutrality. The Allies were, deeply, though I think unreasonably, incensed at this attitude of the Royal Government and sought opportunity to force Greece to take up arms against the Central Powers. . . . As far as one is able to judge from the progress of events and from the subsequent restoration of Constantine to the throne, the people of 'Old Greece' who had witnessed with apprehension the terrible sufferings of the Serbian nation, were never favorable to their country's abandoning its neutrality and becoming a participant in the war. The majority seemed to be opposed to the Venizelos party which held its power by the grace of the Allied Governments rather than by will of the Greek nation."—R. Lansing, *Big Four, and others of the peace conference*, pp. 153-155.—"When the Greek people were called, on Nov. 14, 1920, to decide by popular vote the issue between M. Venizelos, the Premier, and the then exiled King Constantine, they found themselves facing a peculiar international situation. Since 1916 Greece had been the victim of a succession of arbitrary acts at the hands of the Entente powers, in flagrant violation of the Greek Constitution. Failing in their attempts to force Greece to enter the war, the Allies, by their ultimatum of June 21, 1916, demanded and obtained the dissolution of the Greek Chamber. They seized the ships of the Greek Navy. They went to Saloniki and helped Venizelos to start his revolution against King Constantine; they disarmed Greece, and armed a revolutionary minority against the legally constituted Greek State. They demanded and obtained the dethronement of King Constantine, whom they considered as pro-German, and hence as their enemy; they prevented the Crown Prince from succeeding his father, and passed the crown to his other son, Alexander, against the Greek fundamental law. They forced on the Greek people in 1917 a Government unauthorized by a constitutional election—the Government of the rebel Venizelos, whom they brought over from Saloniki and helped with their troops to gain control of Athens. . . . Left to themselves, however, and without outside interference, the Greeks in all probability would have joined the Allies when the time seemed to them opportune. Venizelos, in that case, would have been the popular Premier, as he was at the time of the Balkan wars, and the country would have been solidly behind him. The Allies, however, did not allow him to play the part of a patriotic and independent Greek statesman

From that time Venizelos was 'done for' in the eyes of the Hellenic people; that he was brought back to power in 1917 and remained in power until 1920 was due only to the fact that the Greek people no longer had a voice in their own Government, and were not masters in their own house. And thus the naked fact stood out that Greece, from June, 1917, up to November, 1920, was transformed from an independent country into an Anglo-French protectorate, modeled after the pattern of Morocco, Senegal and Egypt.—A. T. Polyzoides, *International status of Greece* (*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1922).

"The Restoration did not, as had been said at the elections, bring peace, but a continuation of the war in Asia Minor, while it inevitably prolonged the domestic discord; for exiles, returning after three years' banishment, wanted the places of those in office. Nor were the Royalist leaders united: Rhallis soon made way for Kalogropoulos [February, 1921], and the latter for Gounaris [April, 1921]; but none of them possessed the weight and influence of their great rival in the Councils of the Allies."—W. Miller, *History of the Greek people*, p. 164.—The Allies, particularly France and Italy, cut Greece off from financial support and insisted upon a revision of the Sèvres Treaty. Greece, notwithstanding the secret arrangements between the Kemalists and France and Italy, rejected *in toto* the Allied proposals for a revision of the Sèvres Treaty. In March, 1921, the Greeks, attempting single-handed to force the Turks to conform to the original terms of this treaty, launched a new offensive in Asia Minor. King Constantine called three classes of reserves to the colors and on March 24, 1921, the Greek Army began its campaign. The French and Italians gave aid to the Turks and the Inter-allied High Commission declared Constantinople and the Straits to be neutral and, therefore, legally closed to the Greeks.—See also TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

Also in: H. Spender, *Resurrection of Greece* (*Contemporary Review*, Aug., 1921).

1921.—Operations in Asia Minor.—"From March, 1919, to March, 1921, Mustapha Kemal continued his preparations, entirely undisturbed by what was going on among European statesmen and the diplomats. . . . He made no serious attempt to engage the Greek Army in Asia Minor during the two years following the occupation of Smyrna. . . . What Kemal aimed at was the revision of the Treaty of Sèvres, and this was almost accomplished when his own representatives were accepted by the allied Governments to discuss in London the details of the Near Eastern settlement, during that memorable conference of last March [1921], when Premier Briand of France came out openly in favor of their claims; Italy had been clamoring for the revision of the Turkish treaty even since the day of its first inception in San Remo, a year before. Greece unanimously rejected the proposal to modify the Turkish treaty, and shortly afterward she launched her first offensive against Eskişehir. . . . The offensive started March 23, 1921. . . . The Greek Army lost almost four thousand men in killed and wounded, while the Turkish losses must have been equal if not more. The railroad remained in the hands of Mustapha Kemal, as well as the moral advantage of that battle. . . . In vain did the Entente address to Athens a solemn note offering mediation with Turkey. Greece arose with a single mind and a single resolve. Constantine soon went to Smyrna, and the flower of the Greek Army, the veterans of the Balkan wars . . . were recalled for the

supreme effort. . . . The Greek offensive was launched this time from Brusa in the north and Oushak in the south, on June 10, and advanced in three directions, namely, toward Kutahia, Afion-Karabissar and Eskişehir. . . . General Polymenakos, commanding the northern group, entered Eskişehir on the evening of July 21, occupying the city in the name of King Constantine."

—A. T. Polyzoides, *Passing of Turkey* (*New York Times Current History*, Oct., 1921).—As a result of the drive that took place in July, 1921, the Eski-Shehr-Afion-Karabissar line was taken by storm. "This capture of the railroad was followed in August by the famous Angora battle, in which the Greeks, after heavy losses on both sides and after reaching a point only fifty miles west of Angora, withdrew to avoid further slaughter [September 10]. . . . Mustapha Kemal, after attempting once or twice to regain his old positions, found the task so costly that he ceased attacks on the Greek Army barring his way. The result of these various campaigns. . . . was largely territorial. . . . Greece decided to declare the whole of western Asia Minor an autonomous political entity, under the protection of the Greek Army and under the guarantee of the League of Nations."—Idem, *Greece and the Near East* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1922).—See also TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

1921.—Distribution of Greeks in southeastern Europe. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

1921 (December).—Great Britain's loan to Greece.—"On December 31, 1921, the British Government authorized the conclusion of a loan to Greece of £15,000,000 on condition that the greatest part of the amount possible be used in the purchase of English products. The British Government, according to the announcement, renounces the privilege conferred on it by Article IV of the Convention of February 10, 1918 . . . which provided that until liquidation of outstanding obligations by Greece, no new guarantee for a foreign loan would be given her. The Greek Government renounces its demands for payment by the British Government of the sum of £5,500,000 representing the remainder of the sum not yet paid by Great Britain of the loan to Greece under the 1918 convention."—*New York Times*, Jan. 1, 1922.

1921-1922.—Near East relief. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: Near East relief.

1922 (January-March). — Deportation of Greeks.—Turkish atrocities.—Gounaris in western Europe.—Gounaris cabinet.—"Events in Greece during the year have centered about imperialistic and international affairs. The ambitions of Greece in the Near East have not been realized, and the Greeks and Turks appear to be more embittered towards each other than ever before. By an order of Mustapha Kemal, Turkish Nationalist leader, issued Jan. 20 all the Greek residents of Konieh were reported to Erzerum. Ten days later Kemal authorities in Samsun arrested and put to death 300 Greek civilians. Meanwhile the Turkish authorities nominally in power in Constantinople, confiscated large quantities of Greek goods, and when Greek consular agents protested, they were saved from bodily harm only by the prompt intervention of British forces. On Feb. 2, Thracian deputies in the Greek National Assembly presented a memorandum to the Ministers of Great Britain, France, Italy and the United States asking that Thrace under no circumstances be separated from Greece."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, Supplement, p. 87.—Feb. 8, the Greek cruiser, *Naxos*, captured the

steamer *Berkshire*, bearing a cargo of coal and oil of Mustapha Kemal. "On Feb. 14 the Greek naval forces seized the French steamer *Espoir* with a cargo of coal and oil, whose final destination was alleged to be the Kemalist Government at Mersina. This incident gave rise to a long controversy between the French and Greek Governments, the upshot of it being that Greece released the boat, but kept the cargo, and referred the whole question to an international prize court. A still more serious case of the same kind occurred on March 15, when the Greeks seized, and searched the Italian steamships *Umbria* and *Abbazia*, retaining the latter. The Greek torpedo boat *Naxos* stopped the *Abbazia* near Ineboli and took it to Mudania, where, after a three hours' search of the vessel, the Turkish passengers, including the personnel of a Turkish sanitary corps, were declared prisoners of war. The incident caused excitement in Italy, whose Government has not recognized Greece's right to institute a blockade in its war against the Kemalist Turks."—*Troubles of the Greek government, Feb., 1922 (New York Times Current History, Apr., 1922, p. 167)*.—Meanwhile a mass meeting of fully 10,000 persons had assembled in Adrianople: Greek, Turkish, Armenian and Jewish speakers declared they and their compatriots would resist to the bitter end any Entente attempt to transfer that province back to Turkey. "To the end that Greece might retain her . . . territorial grip along the Ægean and realize her aspirations in Asia Minor, Premier Gounaris spent five months in the chancelleries of Western Europe. That, in the opinion of the National Assembly, he failed in his purpose, was evident from the adverse vote which he received in March 10 [1922], following his return. Out of the 355 votes the government numbered only 155 and at once resigned. Failure of M. Stratos, leader of the Reformists, to form a new cabinet, led to the recall of M. Gounaris, who, after taking the portfolio of Justice, reconstructed his ministry. . . . The National Assembly expressed confidence in the New Ministry by a vote of 164 to 86."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly, 1922, Supplement, pp. 87-88*.

1922 (April-May).—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE.

1922 (April-July).—New cabinets and coalition ministry.—Bombardment of Samsun and Trebizond.—Turkish protest against Greek protectorate in Asia Minor.—"On April 1 [1922], following a heated discussion about armistice terms with the Turkish Nationalists, the Assembly again expressed confidence, 163 to 52, the 80 Venizelist members withdrawing while the vote was being taken. But the financial and international policies of the government continued to be targets of attack, and on April 11 the Premier won a vote of confidence and King Constantine again summoned M. Stratos to form a new cabinet. Although he succeeded in the task, the Assembly by a vote of 170 to 154 refused to express confidence and on May 18, the New Ministry resigned. Faced by this dilemma, the King again invited M. Gounaris to head a new cabinet; this he refused to do, but expressed willingness to co-operate with Stratos in a coalition ministry in which all legitimist parties would be represented, the Liberals alone being excluded from it. This proposal was accepted by M. Stratos and on May 23, the new government was formed under the presidency of M. Protopapadakis, former minister of finance. In this cabinet M. Theotokis retained the War portfolio; M. Gounaris became Minister of Justice. . . . The National Assembly expressed confidence on May

24 by a vote of 218 to 30."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly, 1922, Supplement, p. 88*.—On April 7 the Hellenic National Assembly enacted a law for a forced internal loan of 1,600,000,000 drachmas. This, the work of Protopapadakis, created a sensation in European financial circles. The Greek flotilla enforced a blockade of Turkish Black sea ports and on May 10 a ship was seized in reprisal. On May 25 General Hadzanezis was appointed to succeed General Papoulas as commander of Greek forces on the Asia Minor front. On June 10 Greek naval forces in the Black sea bombarded the Turkish fortified cities of Samsun and Trebizond as reprisals for massacres of the Christian population of those cities by the Kemalist Turks. On July 27 the Greek government delivered to the ministers of Great Britain, France and Italy a note proclaiming Greece's liberty of action to end the war with the Turks by "decisive steps." On July 29 the Greek government was forced to inform the Allied Commission that it would not order an advance on Constantinople without permission of the Allies. M. Sterghiades, Greek High Commissioner of Smyrna announced on July 30 self-government for the regions in Asia Minor with Smyrna as the capital to be known as Occidental Asia Minor. This produced chaos. British soldiers were removed across the Bosphorus to reinforce the French on the Tchatalja line, where the Greeks numbered 70,000 men. The Allied force numbered 10,000 with 30 British warships. Constantinople and the Angora government protested against giving Smyrna and other Turkish districts to a Greek protectorate.

1922 (August-September).—Defeat of Greeks by Mustapha Kemal.—Burning of Smyrna.—Reasons for the Greek collapse from two points of view.—On September 7 Mustapha Kemal defeated the Greek army in Anatolia in a decisive battle starting with the capture of Afium Karahissar (August 30), the defeated Greeks retreating 200 miles to Smyrna and the Ægean in utter rout. The Turks captured the Greek field commander, two corps commanders, 400 officers and 15,000 men. About 50,000 Greeks were killed, wounded, made prisoners, or missing. Allied warships landed forces at Smyrna to maintain order and prevent vandalism during the Greek evacuation and Turkish investment. On September 9th Turkish cavalry occupied Smyrna. Brusa was also invested. On September 13th and 14th fire, alleged to have been started by Turkish irregulars, destroyed a large part of Smyrna. The fire began in the Armenian quarter and spread rapidly through the city, burning most of the European section and the American consulate and theatre, where American refugees were congregated. About a thousand were killed by fire and sword. Many Americans were among the missing. "The area destroyed in Smyrna by the great fire was about a square mile, and included the European Greek and Armenian quarters. The Turkish quarter on Mount Pagus and the Jewish quarter remained unharmed. In the European quarter a few houses escaped, and also the Latin cathedral of St. John, but the French establishments at St. Polycarp were burnt. The actual damage in terms of money was incalculable, but certainly amounted to many millions of pounds, apart from the possibly greater losses due to the cessation of trade. As regards the number of victims who lost their lives, it was believed that several thousand Armenians and others were killed before the fire, and that many more perished in the flames, or were drowned or trampled to death in the resulting panic."—*Illus-*

trated *London News*, Oct. 7, 1922, pp. 534-535.—The approximate total of refugees of all nationalities evacuated was 177,000. These people were rescued chiefly in Greek ships under American control and British ships. Between September 26 and 29 the total number evacuated by British and Americans was 146,700. From 30,000 to 40,000 refugees were handled daily. Both Greeks and Turks gave accounts of atrocities that each inflicted upon the other. "The past month has seen the collapse of the Greek army, the overwhelming triumph of Kemal Pasha, and the presentation to a divided Europe of one more acute crisis. In the examination of this affair, too, one must uncover still further evidences of the results of Anglo-French differences, for the return of Turkey is the direct outcome of an Anglo-French quarrel in which the French assumed the historic British rôle as the protector of the Turk. The origin of the present war, for it is a war, is to be found in the settlements of Paris. At that Conference Greece was represented by Venizelos, who had done so much for the Allied cause. Thanks to his services and his skill, Greece was allotted at Paris all of the remaining Turkish territory in Europe right up to the Chatalja lines, which are the outer defenses of Constantinople. In addition the Greeks received the Bulgarian territory . . . [and] were permitted to hope that they would have the eventual possession of Constantinople, itself. . . . [They were allowed] to garrison, or rather pushed into the occupation of, Smyrna, largely because the Italians coveted this prize, but also because a majority of the population were actually Greek. . . . Finally, Greek claims were honored both with respect of the Dodecanesus, an archipelago in the Ægean occupied by the Italians in their Turkish War, and of Northern Epirus, also claimed by the Albanians, who were supported by the Italians. But on his return to his own country Venizelos met with political ruin. . . . Thus it was Constantine, the friend of Germany and the brother-in-law of the Kaiser, who stood to harvest all the considerable profits which had accrued to his country by reason of Venizelos. Meantime the international situation had changed. The French had come to see in Greek expansion the evidence of a British design to dominate the eastern Mediterranean, using Greece as their agent. They had, too, every reason to hate Constantine, who had been personally responsible for the killing of many French sailors in Athens during the war. France, therefore, began to . . . advocate the return to the Turk of all of the Greek holdings in Asia Minor. French policy was further influenced by the fact that the French mandate of Syria had a long frontier with Turkey and the Turks were threatening reprisal there for French support of Greek claims in Paris. In the end, after some negotiations, the French made a separate treaty with the Turks, which obtained security for Syria in return for French evacuation of Cilicia in tacit agreement to support the Turks against the Greeks—a support which included the sale of large amounts of war material. This war material enabled Kemal to equip his army. French policy in the matter of Turkey was closely imitated by the Italians, who had hoped to acquire Syria and were jealous of every Greek gain, for they correctly saw in the rise of a Greater Greece a bar to all their own hopes of ultimate domination in the Eastern Mediterranean. Somewhat later than the French, they too, made a separate treaty with the Turks which was equally unfavorable to the Greeks. Meantime the British support of the Turk had had evil consequences throughout the British Em-

pire. Masters of Constantinople, where they were nominally in occupation together with the French and Italians, the British had forced the Sultan to accept the Paris settlement, but this acceptance had been repudiated by Kemal Pasha, who went to Asia, made Angora his capital, and rallied the remnants of the old Turkish army about him. This resistance of Kemal aroused the war spirit of all the millions of Mohammedans in the British Empire, who saw the Sultan as the head of their faith and British policy as a deliberate assault upon Islam. In India and Egypt the consequences were serious. Moreover, in the British Isles there were loud protests against this Near Eastern policy, which was having such unfortunate results in various parts of the Empire. The Greeks, however, were in Smyrna, and [in 1921] . . . under British sanction, they undertook a grandiose campaign, with Angora as the ultimate objective. . . . But in the end they were obliged to retire. Kemal Pasha escaped ruin and began the systematic reorganization of his forces, largely aided by the French, the Italians and even by the Bolsheviks, who welcomed this chance to retaliate for British aid given to various Russian leaders who sought to overthrow the Soviet régime. Last winter [1921-1922] it became clear that the Greeks would not be able to conquer Asia Minor and in March there was a conference in Paris in which France, Italy and Britain served terms upon Greece and Turkey—terms which proposed an immediate armistice and an eventual evacuation of Smyrna by Greece. But Kemal Pasha had no intention of abandoning Adrianople and the preparations for a new campaign were pushed, while French support of the Turk was disclosed daily in the Paris press. Finally . . . the Greeks threatened to seize Constantinople [August, 1922] and actually withdrew troops from Asia for this gesture. This drew protest from all Allied capitals and promoted an agreement between France, Britain and Italy to resist such an attempt, but did lead Lloyd George to a speech in the House of Commons in which he clearly disclosed his sympathy with the Greeks. After this speech there was a further agreement between the Allies that there should shortly be a Conference at Venice to settle the whole Near Eastern problem. But Kemal Pasha was now ready and a few days later the world was surprised by the news that the Greek army in Asia Minor had been defeated, driven from the line of the Bagdad railway and was in wild and hopeless flight. What had happened was clear. Greece has been at war almost constantly for the past ten years and her population has been mobilized for all of these years. War weariness at last assailed army and people and the army refused to fight. . . . The first and most obvious consequence must be the return to the Turk of all of his Asiatic holdings in Anatolia. . . . As for Greece, she has suffered an appalling disaster: Of the vast territories won by Venizelos she has already lost Northern Epirus and the Ægean Islands, together with Smyrna and her Asiatic holdings. That she can hold Adrianople or any part of Eastern Thrace seems totally unlikely. She will thus be thrown back upon the frontiers which she obtained in the Treaty of Bucharest, which liquidated the Second Balkan War. Her dream of regaining Constantinople and becoming a great nation once more is thus indefinitely postponed. This is the price she has paid for preferring Constantine to Venizelos. . . . Greece is bankrupt as a result of the protracted struggle. Her army has ceased to exist. Italy, Albania, Bulgaria, all of her neighbors save Jugoslavia, are



openly hostile and if she retains British friendship it must be at the price of continuing French opposition, which must postpone her entrance into the Little Entente, where all her interests would naturally take her."—F. H. Simonds, *Greek defeat and European discord* (*American Review of Reviews*, Oct., 1922).

The following quotation gives the opposing view: "During the three years' occupation of Asia Minor by the Greek army [1919-1922], most people in Europe and America took it for granted that the peace of the Near East was secure, and that, the Greeks being the only trouble-makers in that part of the world, ways and means ought to be provided for their withdrawal, when everything would turn out to be as it ought to be. . . . All these calculations went by the board when the Greek army, following a sterile three-year campaign, and meeting political, diplomatic, economic, and moral disappointment on every side, finally gave way before the enemy and disappeared as a military factor in the Asia Minor problem. . . . No sooner had Mustapha Kemal become the master of Asia Minor than he appeared before Europe as the arbiter of war and peace not as the leader of a handful of Turkish irregulars, but as the greatest leader of the Eastern world next to Gandhi. It was also discovered that while Greece, which was in reality fighting the battles of the Allies, was abandoned and betrayed by those who ought to be his friends, Kemal Turkey, which was receiving the lavish material and moral support of France, Italy, and Soviet Russia, was the standard-bearer of Islam, enjoying the absolute confidence and assistance of the whole Moslem world. This fact dawned as a revelation before the astonished politicians of the Entente, whose petty jealousies and wranglings had given Nationalist Turkey the means to play one of them against the other in true Hamidian style. French policy, the guiding motive of which for the last two years has been a blind hatred of England, did her utmost in supporting Mustapha Kemal, in the hope that Turkey, once more re-established in her ancient confines, would become an obedient vassal of France. . . . French policy in befriending Turkey had two objects in view: First, to become the predominant Mohammedan Power, if not in numbers of subjects of that faith, at least in popularity and prestige among them. This would be a heavy enough blow against British predominance in the East. In the second place, France, having successfully created a Greater Poland against Germany, desired to create a strong Islam against Russia, the idea being that a Greater Turkey owing its existence to French support, and rallying to its victorious banners the rest of the Moslem world, would form a bulwark against Soviet Russia, rather than side with Moscow in questions of Eastern policy. In this diplomatic maneuver British policy was outplayed to the end, and France easily won the first game of the set. Britain, however, was careful not to abandon Constantinople and the Straits, and a Turkey without Constantinople and the Dardanelles and without a foothold in Europe cannot really amount to much. This is what Kemal clearly saw from the outset, and this is the reason why, notwithstanding all his attachment for France, he threw an anchor to windward and allied himself with Soviet Russia for just such an emergency. So now Kemal, fully independent of France, poses as the militant leader of a Russo-Islamic alliance and challenges not only Great Britain, but the whole of the Entente as well. He asks outright for Constantinople and the Straits and Thrace, without giving any guaranties

for his future behavior in Mesopotamia and Syria and Arabia and Palestine."—A. T. Polyzoïdes, *What followed the Greek defeat* (*Nation*, Oct. 18, 1922).

ALSO IN: A. Harrison, *By the "Ionian" sea* (*English Review*, Oct., 1922).

1922 (September-October).—Abdication of Constantine.—Armistice with Turkey.—A bloodless revolution occurred in Athens the latter part of September. On the 27th of that month, King Constantine abdicated, in favor of his son George, and, on October 1, with his family sailed for Palermo. His youngest son, Prince Paul, remained in Athens, having been requested to stay as heir apparent. "Four months of intensive secret preparation contributed to this quick success. The movement began among the warsick soldiers in Anatolia. They were poorly equipped and ill fed. The national loan of 1,600,000,000 drachmas was running out in propaganda abroad and graft at home, while the state of the army grew steadily worse. The high military command was inefficient. Despite repeated protests, the Government refused to replace General Haganesti who was making defeat inevitable. Diplomatic reserves abroad, presaging Greek evacuation of Smyrna, completed the destruction of the army's morale. The officers, fearful lest the rising revolt sweep away their caste and flow into proletarian channels, put themselves at its head and changed its course. . . . Meanwhile a small civilian group were active in Athens—underground. On or about September 17 they received a confidential message from Venizelos in Paris. He said the moment to overthrow Constantine had come. At this command 800,000,000 drachmas were hastily collected from Venizelist bankers and dispatched to Gonatas and Plastiras, who took over the island of Chios and Mitylene on September 21-22. Officers and men loyal to the King were imprisoned. Control of communications on the islands kept the Athens Government ignorant of the insurrection. Gonatas, having previously negotiated with Captain Pokas of the navy, now held most of the fleet and transports. Not until the night of the 25th, as the transports were leaving the islands, did the Government learn of the organized rebellion. The following morning the insurgents occupied Salonika, and an aeroplane scattered copies of their manifesto over Athens—demanding defense of Thrace, a 'non-partisan' (Francophile) government, resignation of the Ministry and of the King (in favor of the Crown Prince), dissolution of Parliament, and immediate general elections. The King answered by proclaiming martial law. In the evening a formal ultimatum arrived from the rebels, who had landed thirty miles from the capital. The Ministry resigned. Constantine dispatched General Popoulas to negotiate with the Revolutionary Council on the cruiser Lemnos (formerly U.S.S. Idaho). But at sunrise the Council sent a new ultimatum, giving the King half an hour in which to abdicate. He did. Crown Prince George hurriedly took the oath before the first priest that could be summoned from the church next door. During the afternoon the 25,000 island troops sailed into the harbor while a handful of rebels were occupying Athens without resistance."—L. Denny, *Greeks revolt a little* (*Nation*, Oct. 18, 1922).—On October 2 the Greek army was reorganized and mobilization ordered. General Nidar was placed in command of troops in Thrace and appointed commander-in-chief, October 6. The Greek National banks granted a government loan to be applied exclusively to the army to fight for Thrace. On October 10 at Mudania an armis-

tice was signed by Ismet Pasha for Turkey, settling the sovereignty of Eastern Thrace as Turkish.

1922 (November-December).—Gonatas cabinet.—Trial and execution of former premiers and ministers.—Banishment of Prince Andrew.—On November 26, Colonel Gonatas formed a new cabinet which turned its attention to placing the responsibility of the Asia Minor debacle. "The Smyrna disaster, which uprooted a million and a quarter people from their historic homes in Asia Minor and turned them into a homeless, penniless rabble of refugees, produced such suffering and represented such a gigantic national calamity that public indignation was aroused throughout all Greece. . . . The new Greek revolutionary Government arrested the statesmen held guilty for the disaster, and, after a trial of startling swiftness, condemned them to death (November 28, 1922). The death decree was issued by the extraordinary court-martial at daybreak of November 28 in the Parliament Building at Athens. The court-martial had withdrawn for deliberation at midnight, and it brought in its verdict at 6.30 in the morning, only six and a half hours later. The men condemned were the former Greek Premiers, D. Gounaris, N. Stratos and P. Protopapadakis; the former Ministers, N. Theotokis and George Baltadjis (Baltatzis or Baltazzis), and the ex-Commander-in-Chief of the Greek Army in Asia Minor, General Hadjianestis. At the hour stated, just at daybreak, General Othomeos, President of the court-martial, entered the assembly hall. Here a large throng, which had waited all through the night to hear the decision, among them many women, listened in tense silence to the reading of the sentence by General Othomeos. During the reading the guard presented arms. Messrs. Gounaris, Stratos, Protopapadakis, Baltadjis, Theotokis and General Hadjianestis were condemned to death, while Admiral Goudas and General Strategos were sentenced to life imprisonment. The sentences included military degradation. Heavy fines, varying from 200,000 to 1,000,000 drachmas, were also imposed."—S. S. Papadakis, *How the Greek political leaders faced death* (*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1923).—The following quotations give opposing views on the executions. "The civilized world was shocked at the news that on November 28 three ex-premiers of Greece, two former Ministers, and the late Commander General of the Greek Armies in Asia Minor, had been summarily shot by order of a court-martial following a military trial of unprecedented rigor and severity in the annals of Greece. The men thus shot were the leaders of a régime, elected on November 14, 1920, by an overwhelming vote of the Greek people. They were the men who had brought about the downfall of the Venizelist Party in that election, and they had a long record of public service behind them. . . . The men who tried the former Premiers were self-appointed officers who enjoyed the confidence of the Revolutionary Committee. The President of the Court Martial was a general known for his bitter opposition to King Constantine and for his blind devotion to Mr. Venizelos. . . . Under such circumstances it became apparent that no fair trial was possible. It was claimed, therefore, by the leaders of various political groups in Greece, that as the former Ministers were still the legally and constitutionally elected representatives of the Greek people, they ought to be tried by a special court, or, still better, by the National Assembly to be elected in the near future. . . . The Revolutionary Court rejected all these pleas. The Diplomatic Corps in Athens, with the sole exception of

the Minister from France, took steps to insure the rights of the accused to appeal to the National Assembly after sentence was imposed upon them. The Revolutionary Committee did not heed this diplomatic plea, although no one would accuse the Entente Ministers of being friendly to the régime of King Constantine. In the meantime the trial was concluded with astonishing dispatch, notwithstanding the fact that it was impossible in so short a time to examine all the evidence and hear all the witnesses. . . . The pity of it all is that the men who were thus executed for the failure of the Asia Minor campaign were the victims of a policy which was not their own. They were the leaders of a régime which did not believe in Asiatic expansion and whose political and military philosophy was exclusively tied with a progressive advance on Constantinople by way of Thrace. Against that policy stood Mr. Venizelos, who as early as 1915 advised King Constantine to forego, not only Eastern and Western Thrace, but even Eastern Macedonia itself, in exchange for Asiatic expansion."—A. T. Polyzoides, *Greek political executions* (*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1923, pp. 539, 543-544).—"Gounaris and his accomplices hid from the people the fact that the only method of obviating the peril with which Greece was threatened consisted in yielding to the warnings of the Allied Powers, that is to say in deciding on the abdication of the King. They took the opposite course. Concealing from the people what was said to them by the Allied representatives they proceeded to persecute those who attempted to enlighten public opinion. They went to the length of assassination. . . . It was in order to shield themselves from the grave responsibility of their misdeed that they planned the defeat of the Sangarios. . . . [The end was achieved] by the systematic weakening of the Asia Minor front and the sending of strong contingents against Constantinople at the moment when the general staff anticipated an imminent attack against Afium Karahissar. It was precisely this sector which was weakened most by the movement of the troops in question. This catastrophe has no precedent in history. It spelt ruin for many hundreds of thousands of Greek citizens, the massacre of Christians by tens of thousands, dishonor for tens of thousands of Greeks. At present we have to minister to the needs of eight hundred thousand refugees: We have dozens of thousands of wounded and killed, forty thousand officers and soldiers are in captivity. This is the sum total of the Gounaris treason."—M. Mavromichalis, *Le Petit Parisien* (*Contemporary Review*, Jan., 1923, p. 111).—As a result of these executions Great Britain broke relations with Greece. On December 7 the revolutionary military tribunal at Athens sentenced to perpetual banishment, Prince Andrew, brother of Ex-King Constantine, on the charge that it was by his order that 40,000 Greek troops were sent across the Great Salt Desert to their death at the hands of Turks in Asia Minor. He was also deprived of rank in the army. Counter revolutions broke out in several places. On December 28, General Pangulos was made generalissimo of the Greek army.

1922-1923.—Conference at Lausanne. See NEAR EAST CONFERENCE.

See also CANALS: Principal European canals: Greece; FLAGS: Greece; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Greece.

ALSO IN: G. F. Hill, *Sources for Greek history between the Persian and Peloponnesian Wars*.—J. Beloch, *History of Greece*.—A. Holm, *Griechische Geschichte* (tr. by F. Clarke).—R. Custance, *War*

at sea.—L. Sergeant, *Greece in the nineteenth century*.—R. Seton-Watson, *Rise of nationality in the Balkans*, ch. 5, 12.—Q. J. Toynbee, *Greek policy since 1882*.—R. D. Platykas, *La Grèce pendant la guerre de 1914-1918*.—R. M. Burrows, *New Greece* (*Quarterly Review*, Apr., 1914).—J. Duckett, *Greeks, Bulgars and English opinion*.—D. J. Casavetti, *Hellas and the Balkan Wars*.—A. Tardieu, *Truth about the treaty*.—E. M. House and C. Seymour, *What really happened at Paris*.—B. Baruch, *Making of the reparations and economic sections of the treaty*.—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference*.—G. W. Botsford, *Hellenic history*.—M. E. Volonakis, *Island of roses and her seven sisters*.—R. Boardman, *Venizelos*.—G. Murray, *Legacy of Greece*.—R. W. Livingstone, *Legacy of Greece*.—P. N. Ure, *Origin of tyranny*.—G. F. Abbott, *Greece and the Allies*.—F. Schevill, *History of the Balkan peninsula*.—G. F. Abbott, *Turkey, Greece and the great powers*.—E. Driault, *La Renaissance de Phellénisme* (*Great Britain Foreign Office correspondence with Greek government, Miscellaneous*, 1916, no. 27).—M. C. Shallenberger, *Greek offensive of July, 1921* (*Infantry Journal*, v. 19, pp. 495-501).—J. L. Comstock, *History of the Greek revolution compiled from official documents of the Greek government*.

GREECE, Constitution of (Adopted 1910).

#### Regarding Religion

Article 1. The prevailing religion in Greece is that of the Eastern Orthodox Church of Christ. Every other known religion is tolerated and its worship is permitted under protection of the laws, although proselytising and every other interference against the prevailing religion is forbidden. The official language of the state is the one in which the form of government and the Greek laws were originally written. Any attempt to deform this language is forbidden.

Art. 2. The Orthodox Church of Greece recognizes as its head our Lord Jesus Christ and is inseparably united in dogma with the Great Church of Constantinople and with every other church of Christ of the same faith, keeping as they, unaltered, the Holy Apostolic and Synodical Canons and the sacred traditions. It is, however, independent and acts independently of any other church in her sovereign right, and is governed by a Holy Synod of archbishops. The officials of all the recognized religions are subject to the same supervision by the state as the officials of the prevailing religion. The text of the Holy Scriptures is kept unaltered; it is absolutely forbidden to present it in another language without previous permission from the Great Church of Christ presiding in Constantinople.

#### Regarding the Civil Rights of the Greeks

Art. 3. The Greeks are equal before the law and they contribute to the public expenses in accordance with their power. Only Greek citizens are acceptable in all public offices except in special cases provided by law. Citizens are all those who have acquired or may acquire the qualifications to citizenship according to the laws of the state. To Greek citizens titles of nobility or distinction cannot be granted and are not recognized.

Art. 4. Personal liberty is inviolate. No person may be persecuted, arrested, imprisoned, or otherwise restrained except according to when and as the law prescribes.

Art. 5. With the exception of crime caught in

the very act, no one is arrested or imprisoned without a . . . warrant. . . . [He must be arraigned immediately or within twenty-four hours at latest. The magistrate must then issue order of imprisonment, or release the prisoner within three days.]

Art. 6. [In civil crimes a prisoner may be released on bail. No one can be held longer than three months pending his trial.]

Art. 7. No punishment can be imposed without law providing for it previously.

Art. 8. No one can against his will be deprived of the judge in whose jurisdiction he belongs.

Art. 9. Every citizen and group of citizens have the right, keeping the laws of the state, to appeal in writing to the authorities which are obliged to take quick action and to answer in writing to the appellant as the law prescribes. . . .

Art. 10. The Greeks have the right to meet together quietly and unarmed, although in public meetings the police may be present. Meetings in the open may be forbidden whenever public security is endangered.

Art. 11. The Greeks have the right to foreign associations provided they keep the laws of the state; which laws, however, cannot withdraw this right by any previous permission on the part of the government. No association can be dissolved for violation of law except by court decision.

Art. 12. The home of each citizen is inviolate. No search can be carried out in any house, except as authorized by law. . . .

Art. 13. In Greece, no man can be sold or bought; every mercenary and slave of whatever race or religion is free as soon as he sets foot upon Greek soil.

Art. 14. Any one can publish by speech, by writing, and through the public press, his opinions as long as he keeps the laws of the state. The press is free. Censorship and every other preventive measure is forbidden. It is also forbidden to seize newspapers or any printed articles either before or after publication. It is permitted, however, by exception, to seize after publication such articles as are openly offensive to the Christian religion or to the person of the King or offensive to the morals of the people. But in that case the state prosecutor must, within twenty-four hours from the time of the seizure, submit the case to the council of judges and ask for a ruling, otherwise, seizure is void. The publisher of the offending article may protest against the ruling of the court, but not the state prosecutor. It is permitted, in such a way as the law might provide, to forbid, upon pain of confiscation and criminal prosecution, the publication of reports and communications referring to military movement or acts for the defense of the country. In the event of confiscation, the foregoing orders will govern. The publisher of a newspaper and the writer of a published libelous article concerning private life, besides the penalty prescribed by the criminal code, are civilly and jointly responsible for full restitution for all damage caused and for indemnification of the sufferer by a monetary sum to be fixed according to the discretion of the judge and which sum cannot be less than 200 drachmas. Only to Greek citizens is it permitted to publish newspapers.

Art. 15. No oath may be imposed without law prescribing it and defining its form.

Art. 16. Public education is under the supreme supervision of the state, is carried on at its expense. Elementary education is compulsory for all and is given free by the state. It is permitted, however, to private individuals and to corporations to establish private educational institutions op-

erated according to the Constitution and the laws of the state.

Art. 17. No one may be deprived of his property except for public benefit which must be duly proved, in which case and according to the law, an indemnity is paid to the owner of the property thus condemned. This indemnity is fixed in the legal way. . . . [Here follow proceedings regarding mines, archæological treasures, streams of water, etc.]

Art. 18. The torture of an individual and complete confiscation of his property is forbidden. Political death is abolished. The death penalty for political offenses, except for the instigators, is abolished.

Art. 19. No special permission is required to bring to trial any governmental and municipal officials for wrong acts committed during their services, excepting acts personally ordered by the Ministers themselves.

Art. 20. The secrecy of letters and correspondence is absolutely inviolate.

#### Regarding the Construction of the State

Art. 21. Every authority of the state springs from the Nation and operates in the way prescribed by the Constitution.

Art. 22. The legislative authority is exercised by the King and the Boule.

Art. 23. The right to propose legislation belongs to the Boule and to the King, who acts through the Ministers.

Art. 24. No proposition regarding the increase of the expenditures of the budget, for payment of salaries, or for pension, or for individual profit, may originate in the Boule.

Art. 25. A bill disapproved by either of the parties of the legislative authority may not again be introduced in the same session of Boule.

Art. 26. The authentic interpretation of the laws belongs to the legislative authority.

Art. 27. The executive power belongs to the King. It is exercised through the responsible Ministers appointed by him.

Art. 28. The judicial authority is exercised through the courts and court decisions are carried out in the name of the King.

#### Regarding the King

Art. 29. The person of the King is without responsibility and is inviolate, his Ministers being responsible for his acts.

Art. 30. No act of the King has any force or can be carried out, unless it is countersigned by the proper Minister, who by his signature becomes responsible. In case of change of the entire Ministry, should none of the dismissed ministers agree to countersign the order of the dismissal of the former and of the appointment of the new Ministry, then such decrees are signed by the president of the new Ministry after he has been appointed by the King and taken the oath of office.

Art. 31. The King appoints and dismisses his Ministers.

Art. 32. The King is the supreme chief of the State. He is the chief of the army and navy forces. He declares war. He contracts treaties of peace, of alliance, and of commerce, and he communicates these to the Boule, together with the necessary explanations, whenever the interest and safety of the nation permit. Commercial treaties, however, and other treaties embodying concessions that cannot be granted without a special law in accordance with the present Constitution, or that bind indi-

vidually the Greeks, have no power without the consent of the Boule.

Art. 33. No cession or exchange of territory can be made without specific law. At no time can the secret articles of any treaty reverse the open articles.

Art. 34. The King confers according to the law the military and naval grades, appoints and dismisses also, according to the law, the public officials, with some exceptions expressly provided by the law; but he cannot appoint any official in a position not previously established by law.

Art. 35. The King promulgates the necessary decrees for the enforcement of the laws. He can never restrain the operation of the law and he cannot exempt anyone from its fulfillment.

Art. 36. The King confirms and proclaims all the laws voted by the Boule. Any law not proclaimed within two months after the end of the session of Boule is invalid.

Art. 37. The King convokes the Boule to regular session once a year, and in extra session whenever he deems necessary. He proclaims in person or by proxy the beginning and the end of each session, and has the right to dissolve the Boule; but the decree of dissolution, bearing the signature of the Ministry, must contain also the proclamation of a new election within forty-five days and the convocation of the new Boule within three months.

Art. 38. The King has the right to obstruct the labors of the parliamentary session only once, by either postponing the beginning of the session, or interrupting its continuance. The interruption of the parliamentary labors cannot last for more than thirty days, nor be resumed during the same session without consent of the Boule.

Art. 39. The King has the right to grant pardon, commute and reduce the sentences imposed by the courts with the exception of those sentences affecting Ministers; he can also grant amnesty for political crimes only, provided his Ministers assume the responsibility.

Art. 40. The King has the right to confer decorations as prescribed by the laws.

Art. 41. The King has the right to issue currency in accordance with the law.

Art. 42. The King's compensation is fixed by law, while the annual compensation of King George I, in which the amount voted by the former Ionian Chamber is included, is fixed at 1,125,000 drachmas. This amount may be increased by law after ten years.

Art. 43. King George after the signing of the present Constitution will take before the present national assembly the following oath: "I swear, in the name of the Holy, Consubstantial and Indivisible Trinity, to protect the prevailing religion of the Greeks, to observe the Constitution and the laws of the Greek nation, and to maintain and defend the national independence and the integrity of the Greek nation."

Art. 44. The King has no other authority, except that specifically granted him by the Constitution and by the special laws in accord with it.

#### Regarding Succession and Regency

Art. 45. The Greek Crown and its constitutional rights are hereditary and revert to the direct genuine and lawful descendants of King George I, in order of seniority, the males being preferred.

Art. 46. In the absence of successor in accordance with the foregoing, the King appoints him with the consent of the Boule, convoked for the

purpose, through a two-thirds vote of all the members, and in open ballot.

Art. 47. Every successor to the Greek Throne is required to confess the faith of the Eastern Orthodox Church of Christ.

Art. 48. At no time can the Crown of Greece and that of any other nation be united on the same head.

Art. 49. The King becomes of age when he has completed his eighteenth year. Before he ascends the Throne he takes the oath prescribed in Article 43, in the presence of the Ministers, the Holy Synod, any deputies who might be present at that time in the capital and higher officials. Within two months the King convokes the Boule and repeats the oath before the deputies.

Art. 50. In the event of the King's death when his successor is not of age, or is absent, and there is no regent already appointed, the Boule, even if its session is at an end, or it is dissolved, convenes together without special call, at latest on the tenth day after the death of the King. The Constitutional Royal authority is exercised by the Council of Ministers on its own responsibility until the regent shall take the oath or until the successor to the Throne shall arrive. A special law shall regulate the details of the regency.

Art. 51. If on the death of the King his successor is not of age, the Boule, even if its session is ended, or if it is dissolved, meets to appoint a guardian. A guardian is only chosen if such has not been appointed in the will of the deceased King or when the mother of the minor successor does not remain in her widowhood, she being the rightful guardian for her son. The guardian of the minor king whether appointed by the will of the King or chosen by the Boule, is required to be a Greek citizen of the Eastern church.

Art. 52. In the event of the non-existence of an heir to the throne, the Boule even if its session is ended, or if it is dissolved, elects temporarily, by open vote, a regent who must be a Greek citizen of the Eastern church, and the Council of Ministers exercises under its own responsibility and in the name of the nation the Royal Constitutional prerogatives up to the day when the regent shall take the oath; within two months at latest, the citizens elect representatives equal in number to the Boule, who convene together with the Boule and elect the king by a two-thirds majority of the whole and by open ballot.

Art. 53. If the King on account of illness considers it necessary to establish a regency, he convokes the Boule, and promulgates through his Ministers a special law. If the King is not in a condition to reign, the Council of Ministers convokes the Boule. If the Boule, upon convening, acknowledges the necessity by a three-fourths majority, it elects a regent, and if need be a guardian, by open ballot. A special law will regulate concerning the regency in event of the King's absence outside the country.

#### Regarding the Boule

Art. 54. The Boule convenes *ipso jure* each year from the first of October in regular session to the carrying on of its annual labors unless the King has previously convoked it for the same purpose, in accordance with Article 37.

The duration of each regular session cannot be shorter than three months exclusive of any intermission provided for in Article 38.

Art. 55. The Boule convenes in public session in the parliamentary house, but it can deliberate behind closed doors, upon request of ten of its

members and provided the majority of the chamber in secret session has approved this request and subsequently it is decided whether the details of such a discussion may be repeated in open meeting.

Art. 56. The Boule cannot enter discussion without the presence of at least one-third of its members and it cannot make any decision without the absolute majority of the members present which, however, must not be less than four-fifths of the minimum number of the quorum. In case of an even vote a proposition is defeated.

Art. 57. No bill is accepted which is not discussed and voted upon by the Chamber once in principle, once by article, and once complete, on three different days. After being voted upon on principle the bill is referred to a parliamentary committee unless it has been previously examined by the same committee or by the council of state. Following its examination by the committee within the given time limit, the bill is sent back to the chamber where it is discussed article by article in different sessions, the sessions being at least two days apart. In exceptional instances, the Boule has the right to declare a bill urgent, and not submit it to the committee, but to shorten into one day the period of the discussions. . . . [The rest of this article covers the details of the vote of different bills.]

Art. 58. [Regarding the right of petition to those not members of the Boule.]

Art. 59. [Regarding taxes.]

Art. 60. The Boule in its annual session votes for the coming fiscal year, regarding the strength of the military and naval forces, regarding the budget, and also decides on the accounting for the preceding year. All the income and the expenditures of the state must be written in the budget and in the accounting. The budget is submitted to the chamber during the first two months of the session, and after being examined by special committee is voted upon by chapters and articles on four different days. . . . Within a year at latest from the termination of the fiscal year the accounting is presented to the Chamber, is examined by special committee and voted by the Chamber.

Art. 61. No salary, pension, fee or reward, is listed to the budget of the state, neither is it paid without a special law defining it.

Art. 62. No deputy is prosecuted or otherwise examined on account of an opinion or a vote given by him in the execution of his parliamentary duties.

Art. 63. During the session of the Boule no deputy is prosecuted, arrested, or imprisoned without permission of the Boule, although such a permission is not required in a crime caught in the very act. A deputy can only be arrested four weeks before the session of the Chamber and three days after its conclusion. Should the deputy be imprisoned, he is released four weeks before the Chamber is convened in session.

Art. 64. The deputies take the following oath in the public session of the Chamber: "I swear in the name of the Holy, Consubstantial and Indivisible Trinity to be faithful to my Country, the Constitutional King, to maintain obedience to the Constitution and the laws of the state, and to fulfill conscientiously my duties." Deputies belonging to another religious denomination, instead of taking the oath in the name of the Holy, Consubstantial and Indivisible Trinity, do so according to the formula of their own religion. . . .

Art. 66. The Chamber is made up of deputies legally elected by the citizens having the right to elect by direct universal and secret suffrage. Elec-

tion of deputies are ordered and carried out simultaneously throughout the country.

Art. 67. The deputies represent the nation and not only the district from which they are elected.

Art. 68. The number of deputies of each electoral district is fixed by law according to its population. But at no time can the total number of deputies be less than one hundred and fifty.

Art. 69. The deputies are elected for four consecutive years beginning from the day of the general election. As soon as the four year parliamentary period is ended, the new general elections are ordered. Within forty-five days from the day of election, the new Boule can be compelled to meet in regular session only if the former Boule has not completed its duties for that year as prescribed in Article 60. A parliamentary seat vacated during the last year of the parliamentary period is not filled as long as the number of vacancies does not exceed one-fourth of the total number of the membership.

Art. 70. In order to be elected deputy one must be a Greek citizen, have completed the twenty-fifth year of his age and have legal right of voting. A deputy deprived of these qualifications legally loses his parliamentary office. Should there be differences of opinion on this subject, it is decided by the Boule. . . .

Art. 72. Deputies accepting any office or position incompatible with their duties lose their parliamentary office. . . .

Art. 73. [The examination and judging of parliamentary elections claimed to be invalid.]

Art. 74. The Boule elects from the number of the deputies in the beginning of the parliamentary session its president, its vice presidents and its clerks. . . .

Art. 76. If a deputy has absented himself for more than five meetings without permission of the Boule, . . . he is fined 20 drachmas for each absence.

#### Regarding the Ministers

Art. 77. None of the Royal family can be appointed a Minister.

Art. 78. The Ministers have free access to the sittings of the Boule, and they are heard whenever they request the floor. They vote only if they are members of the Boule. The Boule may request the presence of the Ministers in the sittings.

Art. 79. No order of the King, written or verbal, may relieve the Ministers of their responsibility.

Art. 80. The Boule has the right to impeach the Ministers before a specially constituted court in accordance with the law defining ministerial responsibility. This special court is presided over by the president of the Areopagus [supreme court] and is made up of twelve judges, drawn by lot by the president of the Boule, in open session . . . [from the entire number of the higher judiciary.]

Art. 81. The King may pardon a Minister thus condemned provided the Chamber concurs.

#### Regarding the Council of State

Arts. 82-86. [This section of the constitution was never put into practice and the provisions pertaining thereto are about to be modified.]

#### Regarding the Judiciary

Art. 87. Justice is administered by judges appointed by the King in accordance with the law.

Art. 88. [This article explains how the Greek

judiciary are appointed and what is the time limit of their service. The judges of the Areopagus and the Court of Appeals and all higher judges are appointed by the King for life.]

Art. 89. The qualifications of the judicial officials are defined by law.

Art. 90. The High Council Judiciary, composed of members of the Areopagus, has the right to appoint, transfer or promote according to law those high judicial officials who have attained life appointment with exception of the chief justice, the second chief justice, and high solicitor of the Areopagus.

Art. 91. [This article defines the details of judicial procedure.]

Art. 92. The sessions of the courts are public, except in cases when such publicity might be detrimental to the morals and the good order of society. But in that case the court should issue their decision in this respect.

Art. 93. Every court decision must be specifically justified and proclaimed in a public session.

Art. 94. The jury system is maintained.

Art. 95. Civil crimes are judged by juries, and so are those of the press, provided they do not affect the private life of any individual.

Art. 96. No judge may accept another public office except that of a professor of the University.

Art. 97. Military and naval court-martial and those courts dealing with piracy and barratry are regulated by special laws.

Art. 98. [This article refers to the duties and rights of the members of the Council of Control, which is a body which examines the public accounts of the state.]

#### General Provisions

Art. 99. Without a special law no foreign army is accepted to the Greek service, nor may it remain in the country, nor may it pass through it.

Art. 100. Military and naval officers are deprived of their grades, their decorations and their pensions only with due process of law.

Art. 101. [This article provides for arbitration in the case of conflicts between the judiciary and the administrative authority.]

Art. 102. [This article provides for the fitness of public officials and the requirements demanded of them before and after they are appointed.]

Arts. 103-104. [These articles explain how the high officials of the state can be brought before special courts if found to be delinquent in their duties.]

Art. 105. The election of municipal authorities is by universal suffrage.

Art. 106. Every Greek able to bear arms is obligated to contribute to the defence of the country in accordance with the laws. . . .

Art. 107. [The Constitution may be revised in its non-fundamental provisions, ten years after its adoption.]

Art. 108. All laws and decrees contrary to this Constitution are abolished.

Art. 109. The present Constitution becomes operative as soon as signed by the King, and the Council of Ministers must publish it in the official gazette within twenty-four hours after signature. Every revision of the non-fundamental provisions of the Constitution, voted upon by the Boule, is published in the official gazette within ten days after being voted by the Boule, and is made operative by a special act of the Boule.

Art. 110. The observance of this Constitution is dedicated to the patriotism of the Greeks. —Translated by A. T. Polyzoïdes.

**GREEK:** Origin of name. See HELLAS.

**GREEK ART, Ancient.** See ARCHITECTURE: Classic: Greek Doric and Ionic styles; ART: Relation of art and history; COSTUME: Egyptian, etc.; EDUCATION, ART: Greece; MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 540-A.D. 4th century; PAINTING: Greek; SCULPTURE: Greek; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented, etc.; THEATER; ALPHABET: Theories of origin; also ATHENS: B.C. 461-431.

**GREEK CHURCH.** See EASTERN ORTHODOX CHURCHES.

**GREEK CULTURE.** See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization; HELLENISM; also names of arts, as ARCHITECTURE; SCULPTURE, etc.

**Influence on civilization of Rome.** See EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization; Origins.

**Contrasted with modern scientific spirit.** See EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period.

**GREEK EDUCATION.** See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries.

**GREEK EMPIRE:** Byzantine, 700-1204. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE.

**Of Constantinople, 1261-1453.** See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453; CATALAN GRAND COMPANY.

**Of Nicæa.** See NICÆA: 1204-1261.

**Of Trebizond.** See TREBIZOND: 1204-1261.

**GREEK ETHICS, Ancient.** See ETHICS: Greece, Ancient.

**GREEK FIRE.**—"The important secret of compounding and directing this artificial flame was imparted [in the later part of the seventh century to the Greeks, or Byzantines, at Constantinople] by Callinicus, a native of Heliopolis, in Syria, who deserted from the service of the caliph to that of the emperor. The skill of a chemist and engineer was equivalent to the succour of fleets and armies; and this discovery or improvement of the military art was fortunately reserved for the distressful period when the degenerate Romans of the East were incapable of contending with the warlike enthusiasm and youthful vigour of the Saracens. The historian who presumes to analyze this extraordinary composition should suspect his own ignorance and that of his Byzantine guides, so prone to the marvellous, so careless, and, in this instance, so jealous of the truth. From their obscure, and perhaps fallacious hints, it should seem that the principal ingredient of the Greek fire was the naphtha, or liquid bitumen, a light, tenacious, and inflammable oil, which springs from the earth. . . . The naphtha was mingled, I know not by what methods or in what proportions, with sulphur and with the pitch that is extracted from evergreen firs. From this mixture, which produced a thick smoke and a loud explosion, proceeded a fierce and obstinate flame; . . . instead of being extinguished it was nourished and quickened by the element of water; and sand, urine, or vinegar were the only remedies that could damp the fury of this powerful agent. . . . It was either poured from the ramparts [of a besieged town] in large boilers, or launched in red-hot balls of stone and iron, or darted in arrows and javelins, twisted round with flax and tow, which had deeply imbibed the inflammable oil; sometimes it was deposited in fire-ships . . . and was most commonly blown through long tubes of copper, which were planted on the prow of a galley, and fancifully shaped into the mouths of savage monsters, that seemed to vomit a stream of liquid and consuming fire. This important art was preserved at Constantinople, as the palladium of the state. . . . The secret was confined, above 400 years, to the Romans of the East. . . . It was at length either

discovered or stolen by the Mahometans; and, in the holy wars of Syria and Egypt, they retorted an invention, contrived against themselves, on the heads of the Christians. . . . The use of the Greek, or, as it might now be called, the Saracen fire, was continued to the middle of the fourteenth century."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 52.

**GREEK GENIUS AND INFLUENCE.** See HELLENISM; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization.

**GREEK LANGUAGE.** See PHILOLOGY: 8; 9; EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center, etc.

**GREEK LIBRARIES, Ancient.** See LIBRARIES: Ancient: Greece.

**GREEK LITERATURE:** Its sequence.—"Classical Greek Literature begins with Homer, and ends practically, if not precisely, with the death of Demosthenes. During this period Greece was free. With the loss of liberty, literature underwent a change. Greece ceased to produce men of genius, and this constitutes one difference between the classical and later periods. A second great difference is that whereas the literature of the classical period was written not only by Greeks, but for Greeks, later literature was cosmopolitan; and to this change in the literature correspond the change in the language, which from pure Greek became Hellenistic Greek. The earliest period of Greek literature is, then, classical because it is the work of genius, and is due solely to Greek genius. It reflects Greek life and expresses Greek thoughts alone and, like the language in which it is clad, contains no foreign elements. . . . The various kinds of literature, poetry and prose, epic, lyric, and the drama, history, philosophy and oratory, not only remained true, each to its own type, but on the whole they developed in orderly succession. This was because they were the work of different members of the Greek race, whose latent literary tendencies required different political and social conditions to draw them out. They were evoked one after the other by political and social changes, and so the stages in the development of literature correspond with those of the nation's life. The growth of *Epic poetry*, the earliest form of the literature which has been bequeathed remains to us, was favoured by a stage of civilization in which patriarchal monarchy formed the political machinery, and family life furnished the society and the literary public. Lyric, the next branch of literature, found favouring conditions in the aristocracies which succeeded to monarchy, and in which the social communion of the privileged class took the place of family life, and provided a new public for literature. The Drama was designed for the entertainment of large numbers of persons, and was a response to the demands of democracy. From this time on, literature no longer found its home in the halls of chieftains, or its audience in the social meetings of the few; but when the state came to consist of the whole of the citizens, literature became united with the life of the state as a whole, and thenceforward was but one of the ways in which that life expressed itself. Literary men were not a class distinguished by their profession from the rest of the community, nor was literature a thing apart from the practical matters of life. The *Orators* were active politicians or men of law; and their speeches were not literary displays, but had a practical object, to turn the vote of the Assembly, or to gain a verdict. *History* was the record of a contemporary war, or of a war which had occurred in the previous generation. *Philosophy* was but a picture in words of the conversations between

cultivated Greeks on the great problems of life."—F. B. Jevons, *History of Greek literature*, pp. 1-2.

**Period of the epic.—Pre-Homeric bards.—Homeric poems.—Hesiod and later poets.**—"There are no remains of a Greek literature before Homer. Even the Greeks of the classical period possessed nothing earlier than the Iliad. It is impossible to suppose, however, that poems so perfect as works of art could have come into being without forerunners. There must have been bards before Homer. . . . Greek legend recognizes this necessity, for it records the names of certain mythical bards, such as Orpheus, Musaeus, and Olympus, servants of the Muses, who, in the remote past—an indefinite time before Homer—sang in honor of the gods. . . . So, long before Homer, in the childhood of the Greek race, there were doubtless poets who voiced the religious feelings of the people and contributed their share to the development of the poetic art which the authors of the Iliad and Odyssey inherited in its perfected form."—E. Capps, *From Homer to Theocritus*, pp. 15-16.—"It has long been clear to students of early Greece that the Iliad and Odyssey are not primitive poems. Not only their art and construction, but their whole outlook on the world and the gods is far removed from that of the most primitive Greeks known to us. Both poems, indeed, contain a great deal of extremely ancient matter: but both, as they stand, are the products of a long process of development."—G. Murray, *Rise of the Greek epic*, pp. 115-116.—"Long before history, in the proper sense of the word, came to be written, the early Greeks possessed a literature which was equivalent to history for them and was accepted with unreserved credence—their epic poems. The Homeric lays not only entertained the imagination, but also satisfied what we may call the historical interest, of the audiences who heard them recited. This interest in history was practical, not antiquarian; the story of the past made a direct appeal to their pride, while it was associated with their religious piety towards their ancestors. Every self-respecting city sought to connect itself, through its ancient clans, with the Homeric heroes, and this constituted the highest title to prestige in the Greek world. The poems which could confer such a title were looked up to as authoritative historical documents. In disputes about territory the Iliad was appealed to as a valid witness. The enormous authority of Homer, the deep hold which the Trojan epics had won on the minds and hearts of the Greeks, may partly explain the puzzle, why it was so long before it occurred to them to record recent or contemporary events. . . . The epics relating to the Trojan war, which existed, let us say, about 800 B.C. in order to fix our ideas, would raise in an inquiring mind many questions as to the course of the war, its final conclusion, the fortunes of many heroes who took part in it,—questions to which Homer gave no answer. To quench the thirst for such information was the office of later poets, who related events which the older bards did not know or assumed as known. They had to fill up interstices and to explain inconsistencies, and this process necessarily entailed a definite consideration of chronological sequence, an element which the original creators of myth do not take into serious account. It is impossible to say how far these later poets of the Homeric school drew upon local legends, how far upon their own invention, but in their hands the traditions of the Trojan expedition and its heroes were wrought into a corpus of Trojan epics, chronologically connected,

in which the Iliad and the Odyssey had their places. The new instinct for systematizing tradition gave rise at the same time to the school of genealogical poets, of which Hesiod was the most distinguished and perhaps the first. Their aim was to work into a consistent system the relationship of the gods and heroes, deriving them from the primeval beings who generated the world, and tracing thereby to the origin of things the pedigrees of the royal families which ruled in the states of Hellas. . . . Up to the middle or end of the sixth century, then, their epic poetry satisfied the historical interest of the Greeks. For us it is mythical, for them it was historical. And further, during the later centuries of the epic period, it was becoming quasi-historical in form. The body of traditions was being submitted to crude and rudimentary processes of what we may call historical inquiry. The later poets of the Homeric school, and the poets of the Hesiodic school, worked in obedience to the need of systematic arrangement and chronological order. There was no absolute chronology, no dates; but time-sequence determined the completion of the Trojan cycle, and the relation of the Trojan to other cycles (such as the Theban), and, in the very nature of the subject, it controlled the genealogical poems. Scattered and contradictory traditions were harmonized more or less into a superficially consistent picture of the past by the activity of these poets. Their work must have counted for a great deal in both satisfying and stimulating the self-consciousness of the Greeks."—J. B. Bury, *Ancient Greek historians*, pp. 2, 4-5, 7-8.—See also HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS; HISTORY: 13; 16.

**Development of elegiac and iambic poetry.**—"The Ionians, who had created epics in its highest form, were also the leaders in developing the species of poetry which arose next after it. . . . Epic poetry moved in an ideal region of heroic life. Elegiac poetry was an utterance of the new age which was beginning for Hellas, and especially for Ionia, in the eighth and seventh centuries,—an age of gradual transition from monarchy to democracy, an age of enterprise and discovery, of colonization and commerce, when fresh interests and widening experience stimulated individual thought and feeling. Greek elegiac poetry was universal in its range of theme; it could give utterance to patriotic exhortation, to tender sentiment, to social gaiety, to the thoughts of the statesman or the philosopher, and to mourning for the dead. . . . Iambic poetry, like Elegiac, was an Ionian creation, and first comes into view at the same period, viz., circa 700-650 B.C. . . . Elegiac and Iambic poetry may be regarded as, in a sense, companion forms, alike characteristic of the period which followed that of the great epics. Both alike were fitted for the utterance of individual thought and feeling on any subject; and neither demanded, of necessity, any high poetical gift. . . . The iambic measure (the nearest as the Greeks thought, to the cadence of every-day speech), being more colloquial, is more suitable when the utterance is more personal, as in satire, or in controversy. Solon writes of his reforms both in elegiacs and in iambs; but the iambic form is that which he prefers for keen self-defence in detail. Satire was more especially the purpose to which iambic verse was applied by its earlier masters, as Archilochus (c. 650 B.C.), Semonides of Amorgos (c. 640), and Hipponax of Ephesus (c. 540), the inventor of the 'scazon.' This side of the iambic tradition was continued in Attic Comedy."—L. Whibley, *Companion to Greek studies*, pp. 130-131.



Rise and decline of lyric poetry.—“In the field of poetry, first one division of the Greek race, and then another, comes to the front. The Ionians, after maturing the epic form, develop the elegiac and the iambic; then Aeolians share with Dorians the glory of creating lyric poetry; and as the last named reaches the summit of its excellence, the Athenians are perfecting the drama. The Period during which Greek lyric poetry flourished is roughly measured by the two centuries from 650 to 450 B.C. No loss which the modern world has suffered in respect to ancient literature has been more often deplored than that of the Greek song to which those centuries gave birth. Of all the manifold forms which the Greek lyric assumed, there is only one which is known to us with any completeness, namely, the ode of victory, as treated by Pindar. The other forms are represented only by small fragments. . . . Nine lyric poets, including Pindar, were recognized by the Alexandrian critics as standing in the first rank. With the exception of Pindar himself there is not one of these whose work can now be adequately estimated. . . . Greek lyric poetry had two main branches, the Aeolian and the Dorian. The Aeolian lyric was meant to be sung by a single voice,—it was ‘monodic’; and it was essentially the utterance of the singer’s own feelings. The Dorian lyric was choral, and dealt largely though not exclusively, with themes of public interest, especially with those suggested by public worship. . . . After the days of Simonides and Pindar, it [Greek lyric poetry] languished, and soon perished. Why was this so? As to the Aeolian lyric poetry, that had been virtually extinct from a still earlier time. It could flourish only where the conditions amidst which Sappho and Alcaeus lived were at least partially continued, and where the Aeolian fire burned in spirits like theirs. Sweetness and light, even when Athenian, were not enough to nourish Aeolian song. . . . One cause may be recognized in the diminished number of forms for choral lyrics which Athenian life afforded. In the seventh century B.C., the period at which the intellectual culture of Sparta reached its highest level, the lyrists whom Sparta attracted and honored found one of their best opportunities in those choral dances of Spartan maidens for which *parthenia* like those of Alcman were composed. But the Attic maiden was brought up in a comparatively strict seclusion; the Dorian *parthenia* were wholly opposed to Attic feeling and usage. With regard to other species of the choral lyric, most of them were eclipsed at Athens by the popularity of one, the choral hymn to Dionysus, known as the dithyramb. And the dithyramb in its turn lost much of its hold upon public favor when a more brilliant and enthralled form of the Dionysus cult had been matured in the drama. Meanwhile, the ode of victory, so popular in the age of Simonides and Pindar, gradually died out in the latter part of the fifth century B.C., as the divisions and troubles of Hellas began to react upon the national festivals. And when, in the time of the Peloponnesian war, the dithyramb made a last effort to compete with drama at Athens, that effort only hastened the extinction of lyric poetry. . . . Attic comedy, with its ridicule of these things, well interprets the moribund phase of lyric poetry.”—R. C. Jebb, *Growth and influence of classical Greek poetry*, pp. 109-110, 123-124.

Origin and development of drama. See DRAMA: Origin; Greek comedy; ATHENS: B.C. 461-431: Development of Greek drama; B.C. 421.

Late development of prose.—History.—“It is a remarkable fact in the history of Greek literature

that literary prose was not developed until after the great branches of poetry which we have considered had reached maturity. While the drama, the most perfect and highly finished form of poetry, was being perfected in Attica, the Greeks of Asia Minor were but just turning their attention to narrative in prose. The first work of real literature in prose, the history of Herodotus, was not published until after Sophocles had reached the zenith of his powers. The explanation of this phenomenon lies not in the absence of adequate materials for writing, nor in the fact that there was no reading public, properly so-called, until the age of Pericles. . . . The late rise of prose was due rather to the perfection which narrative verse had early attained, and to the dominating influence which composition in verse, such as the narratives of Homer and the practical philosophy of Hesiod and the elegiac poets, had acquired among cultivated Greeks. Before the sixth century it did not occur to any one who desired to address the public to use any other form of expression than verse. Naturally prose was employed for certain purposes long before it was used in literature. Codes of law, treaties, the annals of cities and sanctuaries, lists of officials and victors at the games, were certainly written down as early as the seventh century. . . . But the impulse to extended composition in prose was first felt by the Ionians of Asia Minor about the middle of the sixth century, first by writers on speculative theology and natural philosophy, and a little later by writers on travel and geography.”—E. Capps, *From Homer to Theocritus*, pp. 301-302.—“The historical study of their past by the Greeks arose out of the epic tradition and was a continuation of the work of the later epic poets. The tradition of the Homeric and Hesiodic poets maintained its control to the end. What we would designate as the post-mythical or historical period overlapped by means of genealogies with the mythical period; the existing families of Greece were connected in line of blood with the heroes and thereby with the gods. The genealogical principle, lying at the base of their historical reconstruction, hindered the Greeks from drawing a hard and fast line between the mythical and the historical age. The historians who approached the subject never got beyond criticism of details and rationalistic interpretation of miracles. But at the very time when the study of mythological tradition began to assume a more critical character, the interest of the Greeks expanded to the ‘modern’ history and institutions of non-Greek states, and here they were in a region not mythical, but historical. This intellectual movement originated in Ionia; its main cause was the Persian conquest, and the resulting contact of Ionian thinkers with oriental history. . . . It was from the ‘modern’ history of the East that the Greeks went on to study the ‘modern’ history of the Hellas. And the struggle with Persia in the first twenty years of the fifth century impelled them to begin to write histories of their own time. Further their contact with the traditions of non-Greek lands within the Persian empire suggested to the Greeks a new kind of criticism of their own mythical traditions.”—J. B. Bury, *Ancient Greek historians*, pp. 33-35.—See also HISTORY: 16.

Oratory as literature.—“Oratory as a branch of literature resting upon formal rules of rhetoric is a creation of this period. . . . In the fourth century the trained professional orator comes forward on the Pnyx as a public statesman, is elected general, and gives orders to the professional soldiers who now command armies and fleets. The

profession of the pleader had grown inevitably out of the legal system in vogue at Athens. Where suits were decided by juries numbering hundreds, a rather violent style of pleading had naturally arisen. Although it was necessary by law for the litigants to conduct their own case, it became customary for them to apply to speech-writers like Lysias, Isaeus, and Demosthenes for a speech to be learnt and recited as dramatically as possible. We should expect such performances to be highly emotional and to consist largely of oratorical clap-trap. That, on the contrary, they are for the most part severely logical, that purple passages are carefully eschewed and references to national feeling kept within limits is the clearest possible proof of the high intellectual standard of the average Athenian citizen who sat upon the jury. It is true that defendants did dress in mourning and produce wives and families in rags and tears to move the sympathies of their judges, but their arguments must be sensible and must include copious reference to the letter of the law. From the so-called 'Private Orations' of Demosthenes we obtain rare glimpses of social life at Athens in the fourth century, the banker Phormio who rises to affluence from slavery, who is liberated and marries his master's daughter, the elegant hooliganism of rich young men who quarrel in camp and assault one another in the Athenian market-place, the extraordinary luxury of Meidias, who rode on a silver-plated saddle, or the quarrels of neighbours in the country about watercourses and rights of way. . . . The public orations of Demosthenes as the opponent of the Macedonian conquerors [made him] . . . unquestionably for European literature the father of oratory. Cicero learnt his art from Demosthenes, and Burke from Cicero. Cleverness is the distinguishing mark of Demosthenes; his style is restrained and logical."—J. C. Stobart, *Glory that was Greece*, pp. 228-230.

**Development of philosophical literature.**—Socrates, Plato and Aristotle.—**Alexandrine period.**—"As Greece more and more enters into her inheritance of the world, she realizes more and more the mystery of it all; and the great questions rise of Whence, and Whither, of the One and the Many, of God and man, of being and becoming."—T. R. Glover, *From Pericles to Philip*, p. 41.—The early philosophers, such as Thales, Anaximander and Anaximenes do not properly belong to a history of literature, since their writings are not contributions to it. Their primary interest was to find the element from which all things are derived. The first of the great philosophers who find a place in literature is Socrates, not for his writings, for we have none left to us, but as the inspiration of the philosophers who followed him. "Socrates, as we know, had taught by means of dialogue, and all his disciples developed their own or their master's teaching in the same form. . . . Dialogue became the dominant form of literary art, and fully met the intellectual requirements of the Greeks and particularly of the Athenians, who liked every form of competition and were always delighted to look on and listen when any discussion was going forward. The Socratic dialogue, by the way, hastened the decline of tragedy, a point which does not seem to have been hitherto noticed. For in tragedy, especially since the time of Euripides, it had become more and more essential that the *dramatis personae* should converse in a witty and instructive manner. The story was of minor importance, for after all not much novelty could be presented in it, as the same legends were treated over and over again. The interest consequently centred more and more in

discussion. These could now be had at first hand in the schools of philosophy, and every one who could not be present in person at the conversations of the philosophers was able at all events to enjoy their reproduction in the written dialogues. The interest which attached to dialogue is shown, for instance, in the introduction to Plato's *Symposium*. In this way educated people lost their interest in tragedy, which had quite exhausted its rôle of instructor, and the composition of tragedies almost came to an end."—A. Holm, *History of Greece*, v. 3, pp. 160-161.—See also SOCRATES.—"We must not forget that although poetry as such had ceased to enjoy much popularity, the need for it never ceases to assert itself. And in the period under discussion this want was satisfied by the rhetoricians in point of form only, and not as regards subject-matter. Then came Plato's philosophy, which is often simply poetry in the garb of prose. That it was sometimes so regarded in antiquity is shown by another circumstance. In the old days tragedies had been grouped into tetralogies. The philosophical discussions of the time replaced the drama for the more cultivated classes to such an extent that even Plato's dialogues were arranged in tetralogies, without much success it is true, for the resemblance between tragedy and philosophical dialogue is after all not so patent that the accidental form assumed by the one is bound to reappear in the other. It was mainly through Plato that the study of philosophy became a favourite occupation of the Athenians and of foreigners staying in Athens. . . . Thus Athens by her great thinkers occupied a higher position in the intellectual life of Greece in the first half of the fourth century than she had done in the fifth. A democracy, and a high type of one, she became through Isocrates and Plato the great school of aristocratic culture. . . . The aristocratic tendency in literature was dominant in Athens in the fifth century, when she was in her prime and at the zenith of her material and intellectual power in the age which produced the history of Thucydides, the poetry of Aristophanes, and the teaching of Socrates, but in those days Athens was not visited by so many foreigners as in the fourth century. For at the moment when she reached the climax of her intellectual and artistic greatness, the Peloponnesian War broke out, which kept half the Greek world away from Athens for more than twenty years. It was only after its close that the whole of Greece could thoroughly enjoy the grandeur and beauty offered by Athens. It may safely be asserted that in the first half of the fourth century Athens was a centre which diffused throughout the world a wealth of ideas unmatched by any single city at any other period of history. Aristotle was one of the most acute and prolific of writers, and the importance of his writings is immense. He traversed the whole field of the human knowledge of that day and advanced the cause of every science. . . . His own publications were marked by perfection of form; they were philosophical dialogues, after the fashion of the day."—A. Holm, *History of Greece*, v. 3, pp. 166-168, 428-429.—"Aristotle's life fell at the end of the old Hellenic world of freedom and artistic creativeness and entered into the new, cosmopolitan, Hellenistic world which was ushered in by the conquests of Alexander. He belonged to the one but was no small factor in shaping the other. It was a fortunate circumstance for Greece and for humanity that an Aristotle was at hand precisely when the transformation of Greece was taking place, to bring together and to summarize the

results of the creative period and to hand down the essence of its experiences and achievements to the new and complex civilization that was to follow. . . . With the death of political liberty in Greece, the creative spirit and the genius which goes with it, slowly but surely passed away. There were still writers innumerable. The art of elegant composition in prose and verse survived, but the spirit was fettered. The conditions which had produced Homer, Sappho, Sophocles, Aristophanes, Thucydides, Plato, and Demosthenes had departed forever. Greece was yet to produce great writers, but the distinctively Hellenic flavor which had made the earlier literature preëminent for all time was gradually weakened, and then lost altogether. The quick and wholesome reaction of an intelligent populace upon the poets, orators, and historians, who addressed the public directly and depended upon the popular verdict—a relationship which was possible only in a free citizen-state—now gave place to the unsafe and often capricious judgment of a literary oligarchy. The result was affectation in place of simplicity. . . . The loss of the old creative spirit, however, was in part compensated by the wider diffusion of Greek culture which followed the conquests of Alexander. Greek civilization was spread throughout Asia and Egypt, and over portions of Europe which had once been counted barbarian. The cultivated world came to speak and to write Greek. . . . The period extending from about the beginning of the third century down to the Roman conquest is known as the Alexandrine period of Greek literature. The literature of the post-classical period—in fact the whole civilization—is often called ‘Hellenistic,’ from the fact that, while Hellenic in its general character, the people who participated in it were not exclusively pure Hellenes. But the term is somewhat vague and often misused. The literature of the Alexandrine age, with the exception of the New Comedy, was essentially a book-literature—that is, the authors addressed a reading public and no longer the people at large through oral recitation or performance. . . . In the second place, it was mainly an imitative or derivative, and not an original, literature. The canons of the great classical writers in each branch were established, their unapproachable excellence acknowledged, and the new poets, instead of drawing their inspiration directly from life, labored, by careful study of the old models, to reproduce their literary qualities.”—E. Capps, *From Homer to Theocritus*, pp. 400-401, 442-444.—See also ARISTOTLE; DEMOCRACY: During the classical period; ECONOMICS: Greek theory; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; ETHICS: Greece, Ancient: B.C. 4th century; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization; Philosophy; Renaissance and Reformation: Earlier and later Renaissance.

Relation to Latin literature. See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. c. 753-264.

Greek poetry reborn in Sicily.—“It was during the first half-century of the Alexandrine period, a time so unfavorable to original creations in pure literature, that the last flower of true Greek poetry came to bloom. The bucolic or pastoral poetry of Theocritus represented a natural reaction from the conventionalities of the over-refined life of the Egyptian court, with its luxuries, flatteries, and artificial standards of taste. It was a revolt from art to nature. Sicily was the birthplace of this branch of poetry, which was, in the main, the natural outgrowth of the conditions of peasant life in Sicily.”—E. Capps, *From Homer to Theocritus*, pp. 446-447.—Theocritus was the greatest of the pastoral poets of this era, and with him

closes the history of truly Greek literature.—See also CLASSICS; HELLENISM.

ALSO IN: E. Abbott, *Hellenica*.—W. C. Lawton, *Introduction to classical Greek literature*.—J. P. Mahaffy, *History of classical Greek literature*.—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, ed., *Hellenic civilization*.—G. Murray, *History of ancient Greek literature*.

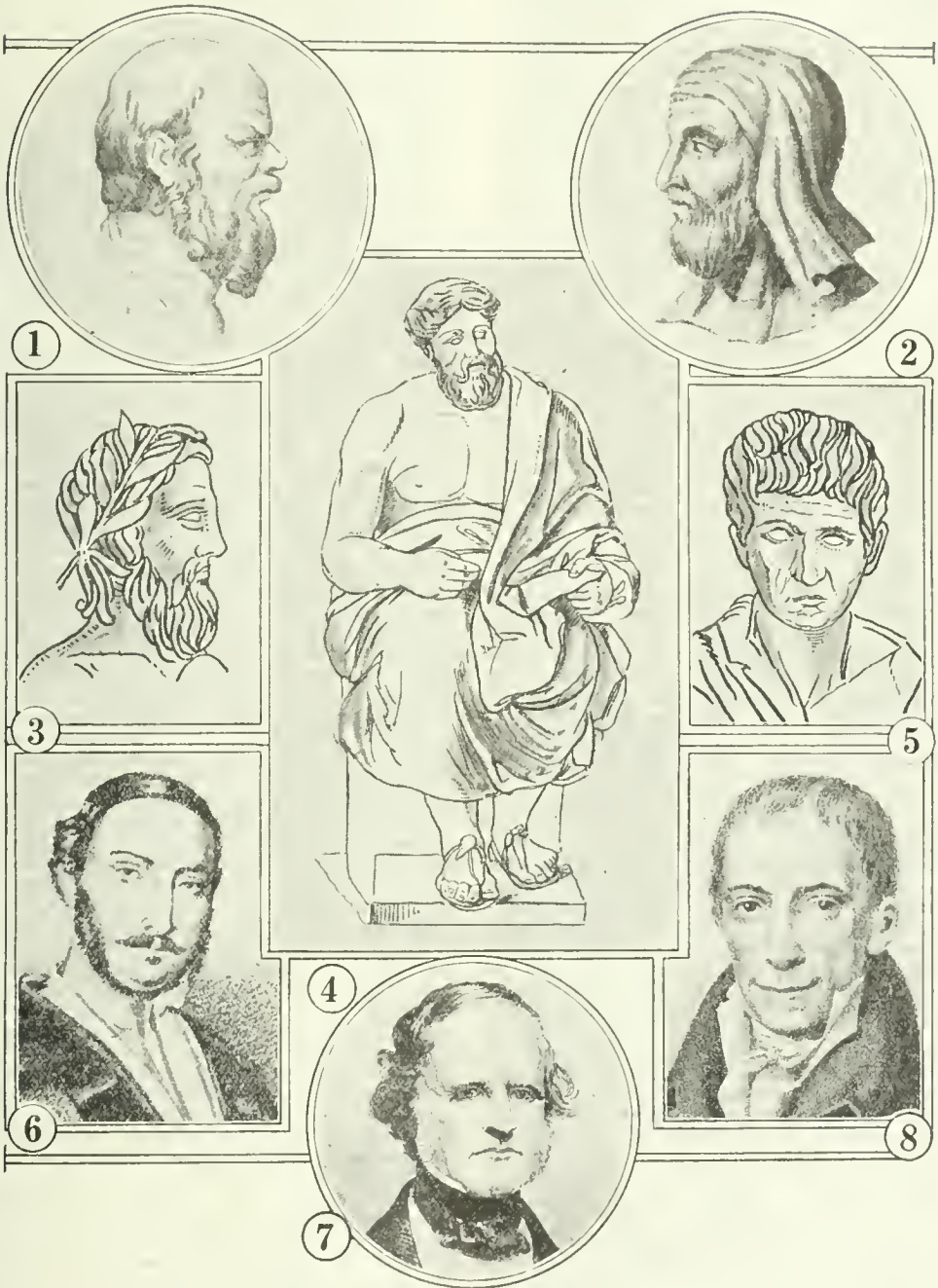
First part of Greco-Roman period.—Polybius and Siculus.—“As Greece was first in the things of the mind, so Rome was to rule the nations. The bent of his [Polybius, c. 205-120 B.C.] great work was to show that this was no accident, but the deliberate purpose of a wise Power. ‘The whole earth subject to Rome’ is his vision. Yet he writes neither as a Roman, nor as a Greek who flatters Rome, but as a Greek with keen insight and a clear sense of harmony. Of earlier history he is not always a good judge; he shows that he did not understand the growth of the Roman constitution, and he misjudges Demosthenes; but he understood the lessons of his own wonderful age. . . . His style has been called ‘a camp style.’ It is plain, straightforward, sometimes rough; but it has not the faults of the contemporary rhetoric. His work has the further interest of being the oldest and best in the common dialect, based on the Attic, which dates from about 300 B.C., and is distinguished by a few peculiar forms, but chiefly by a less pure vocabulary. . . . His history, in 40 books, was a record of Roman conquest from 264 B.C. to 146 B.C. . . . Polybius used some Roman authorities, as the annalist Fabius Pictor. [See also HISTORY: 15; 16.] . . . From about 80 B.C., Greek literature, especially Rhetoric, became thoroughly established in the higher Roman education. The study of History and Geography also flourished. Didorus Siculus (40 B.C.) wrote a history of the world in 40 books, down to Cæsar’s Gallic Wars. . . . This *Historical Library* was, as the title implies, less a single history than a series of histories, founded on the labours of predecessors, and grouped round the point which Polybius had recognised as henceforth the centre of political interests—Rome. Historians had now ceased to produce original works with an artistic unity, such as those of Herodotus and Thucydides. Their aim was to present, in new combinations or more lucid arrangements, facts amassed by previous writers. This endeavor becomes the source of the most useful work which marks the closing centuries of the old literature.”—R. C. Jebb, *Greek literature (Literature Primers Series)*, pp. 146, 144, 146-147.

Greco-Roman period.—History: Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Strabo, geographer and historian, Josephus, Arrian, Appian and Herodian.—Biography: Plutarch, Laertius and Philostratus.—Geography: Pausanias and Ptolemy.—Rhetoric: Hermogenes, Aphthonius and Longinus.—“Under the Roman Empire the Greek language and literature were diffused throughout the civilised world. Institutions resembling universities arose in the great cities. Teachers recognised by the State gave celebrity to the schools of Alexandria and Antioch, of Tarsus and Rhodes, of Pergamus and Byzantium, of Athens and Rome, of Marseilles and Lyons. The varied literature of Hellenism in the five centuries from Augustus to Justinian has four great departments:—History, with the neighbouring provinces of Biography and Geography; Erudition, including grammar, criticism, archæology and literary miscellanies; Rhetoric, in theory and practice, with kindred forms of ornamental prose, such as Dialogues, Novels and Letters; Philosophy, represented chiefly by Stoics

and Neoplatonists. In Poetry there is little to record."—R. C. Jebb, *Greek literature (Literature Primers Series)*, pp. 147-148.—"The early history of the Romans was written by Dionysius of Halicarnassus, where he was born in the second quarter of the last century before Christ. He betook himself to Rome in 29 B.C., probably giving instruction there in rhetoric, and preparing his history. He wrote a number of books on both subjects. Those on rhetoric are intelligent; and his history, although his method ill bears the test of modern scientific examination, contains a vast mass of information. . . . Strabo, . . . who lived from about 60 B.C. until about 24 A.D., was . . . a contemporary of Dionysius of Halicarnassus. His Description of the Earth, in seventeen books, contains abundant historical facts, besides many interesting descriptions of places that the author had himself seen. It was not a mere geography that he wrote, but rather a sort of manual of general information about the different regions he describes. Flavius Josephus, born about 37 A.D., is a marked instance of the cosmopolitanism that was growing up with the increasing power of Rome. . . . His history of the Jewish War, which he first composed in his own language and then translated into Greek, was much admired in Rome, where the author was treated with great respect. Another book, on Jewish Antiquities, in twenty books, begins with the creation of the world and brings the record down to 66 A.D., when Nero was emperor. Here he made an especial effort to conciliate the Romans, speaking of the books of the Old Testament as nothing more than ancient history, with no claim to divine authority. Yet he makes very clear the difference between Judaism and Paganism, in spite of his efforts to smooth them away."—T. S. Perry, *History of Greek literature*, pp. 815-816.—"Arrian, born about 100 A.D., and raised to consular rank by M. Antoninus Pius in 146, emulated Xenophon's *Anabasis* by relating the Asiatic Expedition of Alexander the Great in 7 books, of which we have all but the end of the 7th; and, after the example of Xenophon's contemporary Ctesias (a Greek physician at the Persian court) wrote, in the Ionic dialect, an *Indian History*, including the voyage of Alexander's general Nearchus from the mouth of the Indus to the Persian Gulf. And, as Xenophon preserved records of his master Socrates, so Arrian preserved records of his master Epictetus, who, like Socrates, left nothing written. From Appian (140 A.D.) we have still 10 books, besides fragments, of a History of Rome, divided according to the countries. Herodian (240 A.D.) has left a history of the Emperors from Commodus to Gordian (180-238 A.D.), in a style far from pure, but not without dramatic force. Plutarch was born at Chaeronea in Boeotia about 40 A.D. He frequently visited Rome, and received honours from the emperors Trajan and Hadrian; but he never thoroughly mastered Latin; and, though he could use Roman annalists, the only allusion to Roman poetry in all his works is a quotation from Horace in his life of Lucullus. Greece in his day had been almost drained of inhabitants; he tells us that the whole country could not put more than 3000 men in the field—the number sent in old days by one little town, Megara, to Plataea. It may have been partly the wish to remind the world that Greece could once breed as good men as Rome that led him to write his 46 Parallel Lives. These 'lives' are in pairs, one Greek and one Roman in each pair. The ground of comparison is sometimes rather slight; thus *Alcibiades* and *Coriolanus* seem to be joined merely because both were slain

in banishment. There are also four detached Lives—*Artaxerxes II.* (Mnemon), *Aratus*, founder of the Achaean League, and the Emperors *Galba* and *Otho*. These Lives are vivid portraits of character, with some brilliant historical pictures. Plutarch was useful to Shakspeare (through North's translation) in the Roman plays. The *Moralia* or 'Ethical Works' are a collection of about 80 pieces, by no means all on ethical subjects, but also on history, archæology, and physical science. Some of the best ethical pieces are those on Garrulity, on False Shame, on Restraining Anger, on the Delays of Divine Justice. Among works wrongly ascribed to Plutarch are the 'Lives of the Ten Orators,' a 'Life of Homer,' and probably the collections of Apophthegms. These 'Sayings' are sometimes neat. . . . Diogenes Laertius, who is usually placed early in the third century, in his eighty-four *Lives of the Philosophers*, deals with the early schools of Greek philosophy, with the schools of Plato and Aristotle, and, in fuller detail, with Epicurus. Though neither an accurate nor an elegant writer, he is often valuable as supplying information which is preserved nowhere else. Flavius Philostratus (235 A.D.), in his 59 *Lives of the Sophists*, gives us valuable material for the later history of Rhetoric. In his *Pictures (Eikonnes)* he has described 66 paintings of various classes, professedly from real works in a gallery at Naples, but more probably from his own imagination. Though essentially rhetorical in conception, this curious and once popular treatise is of much interest for art-history. . . . Pausanias (160 A.D.) has left a Tour of Greece in 10 books—(going through Attica—Corinth—Laconia—Messenia—Elis—Achaia—Arcadia—Boeotia—Phocis)—which is of the greatest value for the details of topography and the monuments of art. Somewhat in the spirit of Herodotus, but less simply and freshly, he seeks to bring out the *religious* meaning of all that he sees on this sacred ground of Greece. Ptolemy (Claudius Ptolemaeus) of Alexandria (160 A.D.) built up a mathematical system of astronomy and geography which was universally received until, in the course of the 16th and 17th centuries, the system of Copernicus displaced it. Ptolemy believed that the sun, planets and stars revolved round the earth. [See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.] . . . Rhetoric was reduced to a complete system by Hermogenes (170 A.D.). His work was long the standard text-book of an art which employed the best energies of the age. Early in the fourth century, however, it found a rival in the treatise of Aphthonius, which, at the Revival of Letters, once more became a favourite manual. Cassius Longinus (260 A.D.), one of the most accomplished Greeks of the third century, and minister of Queen Zenobia at Palmyra, has left a treatise on Rhetoric. To him is ascribed, though doubtfully, the essay *On Sublimity*, one of the best pieces of literary criticism in the language."—R. C. Jebb, *Greek literature (Literature Primers Series)*, pp. 149-52.

Greco-Roman period.—Lucian, first of the moderns.—Emperor Julian.—Romances: Xenophon of Ephesus, Longus, Heliodorus and his followers.—Alciphron.—Philosophy: Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius.—Plotinus, Hypatia and Proclus.—Verse: Babrius, Oppian and Musæus.—Anthology.—Sibylline books.—Works of the Fathers.—Decay of literary Hellenism.—"While Plutarch . . . presents us a picture of what was best in the old religion and early society, and drew from them lessons that should counteract the corruption of his day, Lucian, on the other hand, broke with the past, derided its religion,



REPRESENTATIVE WRITERS IN GREEK LITERATURE

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|------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Socrates.                 | 2. Plutarch.          | 3. Theocritus.         |
| 4. Plato.                    | 5. Aristotile.        | 6. Panagiotes Soutzos. |
| 7. Alexander Rizos Rangaves. | 8. Adamantios Korais. |                        |

scorned its philosophy; denounced his contemporaries as well, with no occult purpose of favoring any sect, but merely to show the age its own rottenness. Plutarch fought wrongdoing with good advice and good examples from early history: Lucian's weapons were ridicule and satire. Plutarch has been well called the last of the ancients, and Lucian the first of the moderns. Yet, true as this statement is, Lucian still shows many of the qualities of an ancient in the artistic completeness of his work, the lightness and certainty of his touch, and in his freedom from deep imprecations. He says what he has to say without sullen wrath, and having said it, he stops. Lucian's possession of this classic quality is the more striking in view of the fact that he was not a Greek. He was born at Samosata, near Antioch, at an uncertain date in the second century of our era, 120 A.D., or 140 A.D.—T. S. Perry, *History of Greek literature*, p. 817.—His *Dialogues of the Gods*, almost Homeric in their freshness and almost Aristophanic in their fun, bring out the ludicrous side of the popular Greek faith; the *Dialogues of the Dead* are brilliant satires on the living. In his *Auction of Philosophers* the gods knock down each of the great thinkers to the highest bidder; Socrates goes for about £500; Aristotle for a fifth of that sum. In another piece, Lucian himself is tried for this jesting; but is acquitted, with the approval of Plato and others. Much historical interest belongs to his sketch of *Peregrinus*, a man whom he represents as having been a Christian. Lucian notices several traits in the 'strange philosophy' of the Christians; their hope of immortality and their patience unto death; their holding of their goods in common; and their teaching that all men are brothers. His *Timon*, the misanthrope, is interesting in connexion with Shakspeare's play. The *Veracious History*, a mock narrative of travel, is the original of such books as *Gulliver's Travels*. Lucian has much in common with Swift, and more, perhaps, with Voltaire. The Emperor Julian (b. 331-d. 363 A.D.) claims mention here, less for his extant orations or addresses than for his satirical pieces. His *Emperors, or the Banquet*, is a criticism, in the form of a dialogue, on his predecessors, in which Marcus Aurelius is extolled and Constantine disparaged. The *Misopogon*, or *Beard-Hater*, is a satire levelled at the people of Antioch, who during a visit of Julian had insulted the opinions, and even the beard, of their sovereign. The Greek Romance, or Novel, originated not later than the age of Augustus, and had two chief lines of descent. One of these was purely Greek, and is represented by Xenophon the Ephesian (probably not later than 360 A.D.) in his elegant but somewhat frigid *Tale of Ephesus*, the love-story of Anthia and Habrocomes; and by the charming pastoral romance, *Daphnis and Chloe*, which bears the name of Longus. The other series was influenced, through Syria, by oriental and especially by Indian fiction. Its best representative is Heliodorus (390 A.D.). His *Tale of Æthiopia* relates the fortunes of Chariclea, a priestess at Delphi, and Theagenes, a Thessalian with whom she flies to Egypt. After many perils and separations they reach Æthiopia, and are on the point of being immolated to the sun and moon, when it is discovered that Chariclea is the daughter of the Æthiopian king,—having, by a miracle, been born white; and the union of the lovers is followed by the introduction of a more humane religion. Achilles Tatius and Chariton were inferior followers of Heliodorus. Three books of fictitious *Letters*, written with vivacity in an artificial Attic style, bear the name of Alci-

phron (about 180 A.D.). They represent a kind of literature popular from the beginning of the second century, and derive much of their material from the New Attic Comedy. . . .

"Philosophy, during these centuries, is represented chiefly by the Stoics and the Neoplatonists. The Stoic School, with its unbroken Greek tradition from the beginning of the third century B.C., was distinguished under the Empire as that School which most earnestly sought to find a practical rule of life."—R. C. Jebb, *Greek literature (Literature Primers Series)*, pp. 153-156.—See also ETHICS: Greece, Ancient: B.C. 5th century, also B.C. 4th century.—"In both Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius we may see the most serious statements of the dignity of the moral law. While these two men were alike in announcing this important truth, no greater contrast can be found than that between their respective conditions; M. Aurelius was Emperor, Epictetus a slave. The two men, however, met on a ground which does not concern itself with social position. Both owed the direction of their thought to the philosophy of the Stoics, and both taught the same lofty lessons. The manual of Epictetus was not written down by him, but by one of his disciples, Arrian. . . . Epictetus was born in Phrygia in the first century of our era, and was the slave of a freedman in Rome at the time of Nero. In that city he lived many years, until Domitian exiled the philosophers, when he betook himself to Nicopolis, a town in Epeirus, and there he is supposed to have died. All that we know of his life is his lameness, his poverty, and his untiring zeal in teaching upright-ness in thought and conduct. The upshot of his maxims may be expressed in the words, 'Bear and forbear'; endurance and abstinence he forever inculcated with an intensity of language which is very different from the grace of the earlier philosophers. . . . The Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius, the last of the great pagan moralists, show us the same intense feeling of the claims of duty, expressed with a certain tendency to meditation on the emptiness of all things, that is rather a matter of sentiment than of cold reason. . . . He modifies the rigid tone of Epictetus, and turns continually to the statement of the need of toleration. . . . The upshot of its teaching is virtue and a reasonable, determined virtue, which is surely a good fruit by which to judge its value for mankind."—T. S. Perry, *History of Greek literature*, pp. 846, 848-849.—See also ROME: Empire: 138-180.—"While Stoicism was thus pre-eminently a moral guide, Neoplatonism strove to seize the essence of knowledge and of existence. [See NEOPLATONISM.] The oriental element traceable in Plato was developed at Alexandria, largely under Jewish influences, into a mystic doctrine. By ascetic discipline and intense contemplation the soul may achieve complete abstraction from the world of the senses, and may attain to complete union (*henôsis*) with God, the source of all knowledge. This doctrine, defined by Numenius (150 A.D.) and developed by Ammonius Saccas, was expounded in writing by the pupil of the latter, Plotinus (240 A.D.), who claimed inspiration and miraculous power, and averred that, four times during his life, in ecstatic trance, he had risen to the union with deity. His disciple and editor Porphyry and the pupil of the latter, Iamblichus, a mystic who forestalled the extravagance of a dervish, continued the laborious enthusiasm. It found a more gifted witness in the beautiful and noble-hearted Hypatia, who was cruelly murdered by the fanatic mob of Alexandria in 415 A.D. In the fifth century calmer minds, still to be found

in the School of Athens, made a last effort to rally the forces of Greek wisdom. Proclus (450 A.D.) sought to combine whatever was scientific in the conceptions of Neoplatonism with the best elements of earlier systems. The attempt failed; and his followers were equally unsuccessful. The victory of Christianity over the thought of the age was already all but complete when the edict of Justinian formally closed the schools of heathen philosophy (529 A.D.). Meanwhile, for seven hundred years, the higher Poetry had been almost silent. Babrius (40 A.D.) put into choliambic verse the Fables ascribed to Aesop, whose legendary date is about 560 B.C., but from whom we have no authentic remains. Plato describes Socrates in prison amusing himself by putting such fables into verse. 'The Wolf and the Lamb' is a fair sample of the skill of Babrius, who was freely translated into Latin by Phaedrus. Oppian (180 A.D.) wrote the *Fisher's Art* (*Halieutica*), a clever epic of the didactic sort in 5 books, on the habits of fish and the modes of capturing them. He is also the reputed author of the epic on *Hunting* (*Cynegetica*), in 4 books,—greatly inferior to the other, but with some good descriptions. Buffon [the great French naturalist] consulted it. Nonnus, early in the fifth century, gave epic poetry a short, flickering life; his huge epic *On the Adventures of Dionysus* is a romance of physical nature,—fervent, but often turgid, and showing an Egyptian taste for crude colour. Quintus Smyrnaeus (450 A.D.) wrote a sequel to the Iliad in 14 books, carrying it down to the capture of Troy; and though devoid of poetical originality, is of value for the study of Homer. Under the name of Musaeus (500 A.D.) we have 340 verses, of much beauty, on the story of Leander swimming the Hellespont to see Hero. Poetry of a mystic character forms a special province of the later Greek verse. The *Argonautica* (which must be distinguished from the poem of Apollonius Rhodius) is an epic in 1384 lines, written probably in Egypt before 400 A.D., and treating select incidents in the voyage of Jason. Orpheus, bard, prophet and enchanter, is the central figure: his mysterious power over the world of gods, spirits and men is the central motive of the whole. The *Lithica*, in 768 hexameters, composed probably soon after the death of Julian in 363 A.D., celebrates the talismanic properties of rare or precious stones, and vindicates magic science from the disrepute into which it is falling. The eighty-seven *Hymns*, sometimes styled 'Orphic,' can have nothing in common with the Orphic hymns which old Greek writers mention in connexion with an Orphic ritual. The hymns in our collection represent the tendency of the later Neoplatonists to resolve the old Greek deities into abstract or mystic formulas; and few of them, perhaps, are older than 350 A.D. The Greek Anthology brings together epigrams and short pieces ranging over about 1000 years,—from Simonides of Ceos (490 B.C.) to the sixth century of our era. . . . Early Christian writers occasionally quote the Sibylline Oracles, regarding these, apparently, as genuine utterances of a heathen prophetess who sometimes became the involuntary mouth-piece of divine truth. [See *SIBYLS*.] . . . As the literature of Greek culture had gradually lost its significance, a constantly greater importance had accrued to the Greek Literature of Christianity, represented by the Epistles, Homilies and learned works of the Fathers, and by Ecclesiastical Histories such as those of Eusebius, Socrates and Sozomen. The relations between the declining and the rising literature passed through two great phases. The Christian writers

who immediately succeeded the Apostolic age, true to its example, had not ignored either the humanising value of Greek letters or the theological interest of Greek thought. Justin Martyr, Origen and, above all, Clement of Alexandria had in their different ways claimed recognition for the endeavours of the Greek search after truth. But towards the end of the third century a different spirit began to appear. While Neoplatonists like Plotinus alleged that philosophy had anticipated revelation, Christian writers like Eusebius maintained that whatever was good in Greek thought had come to it through the Hebrew Scriptures. The progressive estrangement of the Christian laity from Greek letters, and the divergence of spoken from written Greek at Constantinople, were the two great causes which in the fourth century hastened the decay of literary Hellenism. Yet the greatest Christian Fathers of that century, Gregory of Nazianzus, Basil, his brother Gregory of Nyssa, and Chrysostom were trained by Greek masters in the art of expression—that art in which all men still felt the power of ancient Greece; and the matured eloquence of the preacher first issued from the schools of Antioch and Athens.—R. C. Jebb, *Greek literature (Literature Primers Series)*, pp. 157-162.—See also *ETHICS: Greece, Ancient: B.C. 2nd-A.D. 4th centuries*.

**Middle or Byzantine period.—Contributions of Photius and Constantine VII.—Psellus.**—“Learning continued to be cultivated up to the sixth century, when the Athenian colleges were suppressed, and theological controversies began. From the seventh century to the ninth is the darkest hour of Greek learning; at least, we have no means of knowing anything about those centuries, save in the annals of the Byzantine historians, who are indeed our only authorities for those times. Just after this dark hour, the ninth century brings in a dim light of a new day. Learning revives, and we become acquainted from Arabian sources with the fact that a great philosopher named Leo lived at Constantinople. . . . Literature in the ninth century was patronised by powerful men, but the brightest work in this direction is due to the exertions of the celebrated patriarch Photius. He was a man of vast intellectual powers, and the extracts left by him from 280 out of the total number of authors whom he had read, reveal to us the existence of eighty authors who otherwise would have remained unknown. The labours of Photius are followed by the reign of the Emperor Porphyrogenetos, or Constantine VII., a man of great literary attainments, who contributed much to the intellectual advancement of the race. But neither the political condition of the Empire nor the character of the succeeding emperors was favourable to productive literary work, until the eminent scholar Psellus, in the eleventh century, who was named by his admirers Prince of Literature, enriched his age by a great number of writings in all departments of knowledge, which are ranked among the best in all literature. The greatest part of them, as of many other mediæval Greek writings, is still in manuscript, hidden in the great libraries of Europe. . . . The Frankish invasion had its beneficial aspect. It gave a colour to the native poetic bent. It infused into it a modern spirit of a romantic nature and stimulated versification. Modern versification dates from that time. Greek romances began then to be written in verse. Prose romances, it must be noted, were peculiar to the Greeks from the time of their contact with the Oriental peoples through the Alexandrian expedition. They continued to be written up to the twelfth century, but only a few of them

survived in their entirety."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, pp. 20-23.

**Renaissance.—Klephtic poetry.**—Effect of fall of Constantinople.—Spread of Greek learning in the West.—Cretan poetry.—"The pride of the rising literature of modern Greece is the unwritten poetry of the Klephts, a poetry which stirred the soul of the race to its depths, and did more for its resurrection than anything else. . . . They are without rhyme and for the most part the metre is accented iambic of fifteen syllables, the final syllable remaining unaccented. The verse is characterised by an abruptness and rapidity of narrative and by terse and pithy expression. These songs constitute a whole cycle of poetry and naturally represent a great variety of subjects. Being the product of a large number of men they exhibit a great many views of human life from the most joyful optimism to the most despairing pessimism. A certain Homeric vein in them is unmistakable. There are, at all events, minor characteristics which are common in Homer's manner and in the Klepht's mode of expression; for example, the occurrence of three or four lines exactly the same in various parts. . . . All our modern poets have drunk in that well of lyric sentiment which had been for centuries the sole inspiration and delight of the race. The whole tone of Neohellenic poetry is marked by the Klephtic longing for a free fatherland and a free life."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, pp. 24-26, 32.

—"Learning was entirely neglected after the Crusaders took Constantinople; and it was only when they, sixty years later, were expelled that there was a new literary revival. The family of the Paleologi, who regained the Byzantine throne, made great efforts to promote education, founded schools, collected libraries, and we are indebted to those educational activities for a large number of solid scholars who were destined later to awaken the literary taste and a zeal for real study, in lieu of the mania for authorship which characterised the previous centuries. . . . The very despair which followed the conquest engendered a new hope. National energies were rudely roused, and at the same time was revived that literary taste which impelled a small number of men to take an interest in the old writers long forgotten in the monasteries. How providential this coincidence was is shown by the fact that those few students, in seeking a refuge, created a place of safety for menaced Hellenism in Italy, where a new spirit had been inaugurated by Dante and Petrarch. Up to the time when Petrarch took up the study of Greek, the language was but little known in Europe; at least, it exercised no influence on the character of European literature. Boccaccio learned it from Leo Pilatus, who became the first Professor of Greek in Florence. In the fourteenth century, during the negotiations for the reunion of the Churches, Chrysoloras, who had been Greek ambassador to King Richard II. of England, became the second Professor of Greek at Florence, and had a brilliant career, including among his pupils some of the most illustrious scholars of the time. These were among the first Greeks who paved the way to a long series of scholars fleeing from Constantinople, and carrying to Italy the manuscripts of the classics. A remarkable Greek prelate, who embraced the Catholic creed and became a cardinal, proved most efficient in founding a centre of Hellenism at Rome. This eminent hierarch was Cardinal Bessarion, whose speeches at the council of Florence are important as an index of linguistic development. Greek studies now travelled northwards, though

an Italian named Vitalli is said to have taught Greek at Oxford in 1475. His pupil, Grocyn, taught here later, and had among his scholars Erasmus, who afterwards completed his knowledge of Greek in Italy under the tuition of the Greek Chalcocondyles. . . . Another stronghold of Hellenism, besides Florence, became the island of Crete, after the great catastrophe in Constantinople. Nearly the whole activity for propagation of Greek learning in the West was carried out by Cretans, who founded printing presses and edited Greek authors. The first impulse for writing modern Greek poetry was born, like Zenus, in Crete, and the island is remarkable for the production of several poems with which the Neohellenic literature may be said to begin. . . . Two poems only I need mention here; one is the epic entitled *Erotokritos*, a long poem, not of any great merit, but worth noticing on account of the great popularity it has acquired, as also for its peculiarities of language and for the transition it marks in the growth of modern Greek poetry, being the first to introduce rhyme. It was composed in the sixteenth century by Vicentio Cornaro, a Cretan of Venetian extraction, and in all probability a relative of Tasso. His style is diffuse, but there are here and there passages of poetic elevation. . . . The next poetical production of Crete worth mentioning is a tragedy entitled *Erophile*, and written by Hortakes in the seventeenth century. In its historic sense it is more truthful than *Erotokritos*, but its arrangement and taste are inferior, though it contains some passages marked by a really Dantesque vein."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, pp. 34-38.

**Modern period.**—General cultural activities.—Regas and Koraes, makers of modern Greece.—Effect of victory at Navarino, 1828.—Poetry: Rangavos family and others.—The brothers Soutzos, pioneers of romantic movement.—Humorists.—Valaorites, national poet.—Prose: Fiction, history and journalism.—Soures.—Younger poets.—"The picture presented by Greek activities between the sixteenth and the nineteenth centuries shows these prominent points: A vigorous and well-regulated University at Constantinople, under the ægis of the patriarchate, sets the example of founding schools in various parts of the Greek world. An endless series of publications on all subjects, and especially editions of classic authors with a view to their ideas, not restricted to grammar as hitherto, engenders a craving for reading. . . . During this period nearly every Greek town could boast of an efficient college, and the men whom these colleges produced exercised a very great influence on the moral tone of the nation. . . . A refreshing current of idealism permeated the Greek world through their exertions. Chrysoloras, George Gemistos, George Kortesios, Laskaris, Mousouros, Eparchos, are some of the names among those pioneers of the Greek resurrection. . . . After the Renaissance, both in the West and in the East, literary energies were converging into that declaration of the new order of things which we call the French Revolution. . . . The fact that the two makers of modern Greece, Regas and Koraes, were literary men and democrats is very characteristic and significant. Regas was the *Tyrtaios* of modern Greece. He was born at Velestino, in Thessaly, about the year 1753. His songs had a tremendous influence, and are still remembered and sung. . . . He was the first national poet and the first national martyr. Vigour rather than elegance characterises his songs of freedom, but they were all-sufficient for their mission. They were first published in 1814,



and by the year 1821 their effect was completed. . . . Another class of instructors must be mentioned here, whose object of education was to make their fellow-countrymen think, and think not only as individuals, but as a collective unity. Mere scholarship and grammar were no longer sufficient; wider views were inaugurated. . . . Among those more distinguished were Bardalchos, Proios, Doukas, Photiades, Philippides, Konstandas, Psalidas, Gennadius. . . . But the greatest of these great instructors was Koræes. He stands alone in the history of modern Greece as a moral teacher. His work for the language was not his primary object. He aimed principally at the moral elevation of the race and he considered that a pure Greek tongue with political autonomy was the *sine qua non* for the attainment of that object. Justly, therefore, Regas and Koræes are placed very high in the estimation of the Greek nation. . . . [Greek freedom was regained through the battle of Navarino, 1828.] Naturally, the literary instinct received new impetus after so signal a national triumph, and there is abundant creative power in the literature produced during the last sixty years, in spite of periodical depression and political unrest. The language as reformed by Koræes found at once a field of activity in the periodical press, in school handbooks, in parliamentary speeches, and in official business. Nowhere is it more elegantly exhibited than in the works of Alexander Rangaves, who is the Atlas, so to say, of Neohellenic literature. . . . Rangaves wrote a vast number of works on science, classic art, mathematics, political economy. His poetical works are lyric, dramatic, and epic, but he is most successful in lyric poetry. His religious poems are full of an exquisite spirit of adoration, and his patriotic songs are eminently inspiring. He wrote a number of beautiful little idylls of remarkable simplicity of taste and directness of expression. He seems to have founded a new kind of epic poetry. He calls his little poems metrical narratives, and regards them, in relation to *epopee*, as little tales must be regarded in relation to novel-writing. . . . A singular chasteness of style characterises all his productions. . . . His son, Kleon Rangaves, is almost as fertile as his father, but his style suffers somewhat from his great zeal to use archaic forms, though possibly by doing so he anticipates a still further development of the language in the archaic direction. Many of his works will always rank among the best products of Neohellenic literature. . . . He is most original in lyric poetry, and often excels his father in this branch. He wrote many dramas based on historical subjects, and his manner generally is that of a man who feels deeply and thinks deeply on the wider human interests. The Rangaves family produced many poets, and it was, so to speak, a fountain of modern Greek poetry and novel-writing. . . . Modern Greece can boast of a great number of poets, and although criticism has not yet decided as to whether any of them must be called great, there are a few who, if judged by the influence they have had on the Greek people, and by the good they have produced, deserve that epithet. . . .

"The present century [the nineteenth] begins with the poetry of John Vilaras, an Epirote, born in 1770. . . . Most of his poetry is lyric, and evinces a lofty nature and a stoic character. He most excelled in the satirical mood of his muse. His contemporary, Athanasios Christopoulos, a Macedonian, wrote lyrics which have been compared to Anacreon's. Sweetness and grace are their chief characteristics. The versification is very

melodious, and entitles him to be ranked among the very best poets of modern Greece. His imagery is very felicitous, and remarkable for its freshness, serenity, and joyfulness. Each of his songs has a unity of its own, and is a miniature drama excellently conceived. . . . Beautiful poems and several dramas have also been written by Jacobos Risos, an uncle of Rangaves. . . . One of the sweetest singers of natural beauty was Elias Tantalides, a native of Constantinople, who was deprived of his eyesight while quite young. There is no tone of discontent or impatience in the large number of poems which he wrote, and which reflect a gentle, cheerful, ethereal disposition. A stanza from his 'Hymn to May' may be cited as a single instance of regret. . . . Tantalides was one of the most learned men of the age, and lectured in the Theological College of Chalke, in Constantinople, to the end of his long life. For artistic use of the language in versification, George Zalokostas may be mentioned, who wrote chiefly under the inspiration of patriotic achievement, though his love-lyrics would suffice for his poetic reputation. A tone of melancholy pervades his poetry. . . . Vizyenos is another intensely lyrical poet. . . . Perhaps to the Ionian Islands belongs the honour of the production of Greece's greatest poets. Dionysios Solomos wrote at first in the Italian language. He was born at Zante in 1798—the year when Regas died—and belonged to a family of Cretan descent. He was educated in Italy, whither he went when ten years old, and lived there up to his twentieth year. He then returned to Greece. His 'Ode to Liberty' became celebrated, and was translated into most languages. It is a long poem, and reflects all the enthusiasm and all the passions of that remarkable generation of Greeks who achieved the national emancipation. The first two stanzas of this ode have been selected to constitute the National Anthem."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, pp. 43-48, 53-57, 59-60, 63.—"Two brothers, Alexander and Panagiotes Soutos [Soutzos], natives of Constantinople, and belonging to a distinguished Greek family, were both poets and men of letters, producing romances, drama, and lyric and narrative poems. The brothers were both educated in France and Italy, and their poetic work shows unmistakable influences of Beranger and Lamartine, and also of Byron. But they hold a distinctive place as the writers who initiated the romantic school in modern Greek literature."—L. Whiting, *Athens, the violet-crowned*, pp. 216-217.—"The island of Cephalonia produced the best humorists of modern Greece. Andreas Laskaratos is pre-eminent among them. All his works are written in the unreformed idiom, and his satire is generally directed against ecclesiasticism. . . . Cephalonia, like Zante, is extremely fertile in poets, of whom I have only time to mention Charalambes Anninos, distinguished for wit, melody, and imagination; Panayotes Panas for originality, fervour, sarcasm, and harmonious versification; Vergotes, whose translation of some cantos of Dante into popular idiom are eminently successful. The island is also rich in thinkers, mathematicians, jurists and physicians. A very remarkable epic, called 'O'Opkos (The Oath), containing 1,800 lines, has been written by Markoras, a native of Corfu. It relates to one of the most dramatic incidents of the war of independence, and exhibits linguistic skill, chasteness of style and imagination, and a beautiful tone of spirituality."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, p. 64.—"Aristotle Valaorites, born in Leucadia in 1824, and educated at Corfu and in

Paris, is ranked as the most typically national poet of modern Greece. . . . He died in 1879, leaving several volumes of his works, the most important of which bears the title of *Mnemosyna*. One of his most ambitious poems has for its theme a tragic episode at the court of Ali Pasha. Dr. Theodore Apbentoules, a Cretan, and later a professor in the University of Athens, is especially the interpreter of Crete in song. He was born in 1835 and died in 1893, leaving a high reputation as a savant and a patriot, as well as of a poet with much claim to distinction. . . . Achilles Paraschos is a genuine Athenian, born and educated in Athens, who has been one of the most popular poets in Greece for the past forty years. George Drosines is another of the poets whose lyrics are highly regarded in Athens, and who has written much prose in the way of stories, sketches, and folklore. Among his best-known lyrics are *The Fortune Teller*, *The Osier Bough*, *Snows*, and some personal poems of an order not common in Greek poetry. Perhaps the best English translations of modern Greek are those by Elizabeth Mayhew Edmonds and by Florence MacPherson, both of whom are highly commended by Dr. Drakoules."—L. Whiting, *Athens, the violet-crowned*, pp. 218-219.

"Of prose writers many have been distinguished in branches. In fiction, Rhoides wrote masterful pieces of imagination and satire, like his story of Pope Joan. Besides being a critic and a writer on philology, he is a clever humorist, somewhat after Lucian and Voltaire. Xenopoulos, Drosines, and Eftaliotes, whose tales have been recently translated into English, are among the best of a rising school of short story-telling. In history, most notable names are Philemon, Trikoupes, and Paparegopoulos of the past generation, while the present generation can boast of Spiridion Lampros, Soteriades, Karolidis, and many others. . . . The greatest part, however, of prose literary energy is absorbed by the press. The Greeks are extremely fond of reading, but they do not pay for books, being better able to afford the modest price of the daily paper or the periodical magazine. As a consequence nearly all literary production has been concentrated in the columns of the journals. Works of all kinds, from the most abstruse scientific treatises to the most entertaining accounts of travel, are published in these papers, the number of which is incredibly great. Even poetry condescends to enshrine herself in a weekly of four pages written exclusively in rhyme from the title to the last advertisement. It is all the work of one man, George Soures, who eminently deserves the great popularity he enjoys. His satirical power is astonishing; and of its real value it is enough to say that he endears himself even to those whom he attacks. . . . His work evidently marks a new era in the literary history of Greece—an era of more sober views of life."—P. E. Drakoules, *Neohellenic language and literature*, pp. 65-67.—"There are, too, a group of younger poets, whose work gives promise, among whom are Strateges, Kambyses, Stephanou, Polemes, Mano, Zetouniates, Palamas, and others. Athens has not lost her classic love for poetry. Homer called the divine Athena of the Parthenon 'the goddess of many thoughts'; and the poetic expression of thought is now, as then, held in reverence. The art of poetry is encouraged by the University of Athens, and is fostered by competitions, and by prizes offered by citizens. But the latest poetic expression reveals a tendency to contemplation and to philosophic speculation which is a result of the growing influence of Western ideals. The produc-

tion of dramatic poetry is not very great, although Rhangabes, Zampelius, and Angelos Vlachos have all made some contribution to the creative drama; but more notable than these is the enthusiasm for translating great foreign masterpieces, as plays from Shakespeare, rendered with singular artistic perfection by Demetrios Bikelas, and the translation of *Faust* by Probelgios. Athens, as studied in this second decade of the twentieth century, still maintains herself as the city of genius whom Pindar celebrated as 'the city brilliant, immortal, violet-crowned, like the Muses and the Graces.'"—L. Whiting, *Athens, the violet-crowned*, pp. 222-223.

**GREEK MYTHOLOGY.** See MYTHOLOGY: Greek.

**GREEK ORTHODOX CHURCH.** See EASTERN ORTHODOX CHURCHES.

**GREEK PHILOSOPHERS.** See ETHICS: Greece, Ancient; EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization: Philosophy.

**GREEK SCIENCE AND INVENTION, Ancient.** See SCIENCE: Ancient: Greek; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient Greece; INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes; WARSHIPS: Earliest shipbuilders.

**GREEK THEATER.** See DRAMA: Physical features of Greek theater.

**GREELEY, Horace** (1811-1872), American journalist. Editor successively of the *Evening Post*, *New Yorker*, and *Tribune*, 1833-1834, 1841-1872; member of Congress, 1848-1849; participated in abortive peace conference at Niagara, 1864; unsuccessful candidate for the presidency, 1872. See U. S. A.: 1862 (September); 1864 (July); 1865 (May-July); 1872; SOCIALISM: 1832-1847.

**GREELY, Adolphus Washington** (1844- ), American Arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1850-1883; Chronological summary: 1881-1884; SAN FRANCISCO: 1906.

**GREEN, Duff** (1791-1875), American politician and journalist and member of that group of unofficial advisers of Jackson, called the "Kitchen Cabinet." See U. S. A.: 1829.

**GREEN, John Richard** (1837-1883), English historian. See HISTORY: 29; BIBLE, ENGLISH: Modern estimates, etc.

**GREEN BAY**, city in Wisconsin at the mouth of the Fox river. Population, 1920, 31,017. Was an early trading post. See WISCONSIN: 1812-1825.

**GREEN CROSS SHELL**, type of poison gas shell. See POISON GAS: Description of a gas shell.

**GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS**, name given to force raised by Ethan Allen of Vermont in the War of Independence. See VERMONT: 1749-1774; 1781; U. S. A.: 1775 (May).

**GREEN RIBBON CLUB.** See KING'S HEAD CLUB.

**GREEN VS. FRAZIER.** See DUE PROCESS OF LAW: Relation to taxation; NON-PARTISAN LEAGUE.

**GREENBACK PARTY.**—"In 1876 dissatisfaction with the financial policy of the government was so bitter that it crystallized in a separate political organization known as the Greenback or National party, and later as the Greenback Labor party; a consideration of the views of this organization throws light upon the success of the free silver agitation. The propositions advocated by the Greenback party, . . . were by no means new; inflationists are in evidence from the beginning of financial reconstruction; at one time or another, when party lines were not firmly drawn on financial questions, they exercised influence within each of the great political organizations. Unable, however to force these parties to

accept their views without reservation, many voters in 1876 abandoned their allegiance in order to form a new organization; nevertheless, this secession and party reconstruction did not mean that each of the older parties was purged of the doctrines of government fiat money and payment of bondholders in greenbacks. There still remained such a latitude of opinion that, on all questions touching monetary policy or the treatment of public debt, Greenbackers were likely to find a sympathetic support among Republicans and Democrats. It was during this period that the term of 'soft' currency was invented. The significance of the term is not very precise, but it included the doctrines of all then opposed to specie or hard money as the basis of the monetary system. The specific demands of the Greenback party in 1876 were as follows: (1) Repeal of the act [passed in 1875] for the resumption of specie payments; (2) Issue of legal-tender notes convertible into obligations bearing interest not exceeding one cent per day on each \$100; (3) Suppression of bank-notes; (4) No gold bonds for sale in foreign markets. The underlying idea in the greenback philosophy, an idea which still finds much popular acceptance, is that the issue of currency is a function of the government, a sovereign right which ought not to be delegated to corporations. Such a view appealed to the spirit of nationalism and democracy, and naturally and quickly led to the full acceptance of the principle of 'fiat money.' This phrase in its extreme form signified a money that was not dependent for its value on the material of which it was made, that was not redeemable in any other money, and that had its origin, force, sanction, and value in the mandate of the government. The value of currency was held to depend not upon its convertibility, but upon its purchasing power. Bonds were based upon the credit of the United States and thus had value; why not follow the same reasoning and policy as to paper money? According to the greenbacker logic, resumption in 1879 was effected not by the retirement of greenbacks, or the creation of a gold reserve backed up by fortunate trade conditions, but by the word of the secretary of the treasury ordering the acceptance of greenbacks at par at the custom-houses in payment of the duties. 'At once these greenbacks were made equal to gold. The greenback, meeting all the demands for money equally as well as gold, had the same worth as gold, and the premium on gold at once disappeared.' The speakers and newspapers in the greenback cause were fierce in the denunciation of the so-called money interests; to them the American people were opposed, if not enslaved by the bondholding interests. These interests, rendered skilful and wise by years of dealings in the old world and new, were accused of successfully laboring for two objects: the perpetuation of the bond, and the increase of the value of the currency in which all payments on interest or principal of the bonds were to be made. It was thus reasoned that all of the banking, coinage, and bond legislation since the Civil War had been a part of a well-defined scheme to defraud the public. In 1876 the Greenback party polled less than one hundred thousand votes (81,740); in 1878, at the congressional election, it secured the support of more than 1,000,000 voters; in 1880, 308,578; in 1884, with Butler as the presidential candidate, 175,370. This was the last presidential election in which the Greenback party figured. For a time its financial demands were enunciated by the Labor party, and later were put into the platform of the Populists or People's party. Al-

though the advocates of greenbacks never acquired responsible party power, they gained several decisive victories which have left permanent results. Chief among these may be mentioned the stopping of contraction in 1868, and in 1878, the repeal of the cancellation of notes which was authorized by the resumption act.—D. R. Dewey, *Financial history of the United States*, pp. 378-381.—See also U. S. A.: 1876-1877; 1880: Twenty-fourth presidential election.

**GREENBACKS**, name used after the Civil War, designating government legal tender notes. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1861-1864; U. S. A.: 1895 (January-February); 1895-1896 (December-February); 1896-1898; 1900 (March-December).

**GREENE, Francis Vinton** (1850-1921), American general, and author. Military attaché United States Legation in Petrograd, 1877-1879; with Russian army in Turkish campaign during that period; 1886, resigned from army, but joined the United States volunteers in the Spanish-American War and served in the Philippines.—See also U. S. A.: 1898 (July-September).

**GREENE, Nathanael** (1742-1786), American general. Was of Quaker birth. 1770, member of Rhode Island legislature; reelected, 1771, 1772, 1775; 1776, in command of city of Boston; 1778, made quartermaster-general, a post he resigned in 1780; 1780, commander-in-chief of the Southern army; 1783, retired to Rhode Island.—See also U. S. A.: 1775 (May-August); 1780-1781; 1781 (April-May).

**GREENE, Robert** (c. 1560-1592), Elizabethan prose writer and dramatist. See DRAMA: 1558-1592; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1530-1660.

**GREENLAND: Area.—Glaciers.—Climate.—Vegetation.—Population.—Government.—Trade.—State of civilization.—**The Danish dependency of Greenland "extends from about 59° N. to about 83° N. It thus lies well within the Polar regions, while nearly three-quarters of its length is actually within the Arctic circle. Greenland is twice as long as it is broad. The extension . . . from Cape Farewell . . . to the Polar coast of Peary Land—has been estimated as 1650 miles, the maximum breadth as about 800 miles, and the total as 827,300 sq. miles. This great island is separated from the American Archipelago to the west by the shallow passage-ways of Robeson's Channel, Kane Basin, and Smith Sound in the north-west, and southward by the wider waters of Baffin Bay and Davis Strait. To the east, beyond the continental shelf, are the deeper waters of the North Atlantic [see also BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world]. . . Greenland consists of a vast continuous ice-cap entirely covering the interior, and a narrow coastal fringe of headland, fiord, and island. The ice-cap of the interior, overlying an area of approximately 715,000 sq. miles, is sufficiently thick to obliterate entirely the underlying topographic features. It forms an accumulation of snow and ice congealed into the largest glacier of the north. . . The ice-cap of the interior slopes exceedingly gently to the coastal fringe. It is a solid but not entirely motionless block. Impelled by the weight of its colossal mass, it tends to flow slowly outward, and at its margins is broken by great crevasses. In the constricted areas of the valleys and fiords of the coast the ice gathers pace, and finally, as the glacier enters the sea, it breaks and is dispersed in the numerous icebergs characteristic of these northern waters. . . By far the greater part of the coast of Greenland is much indented and fringed with numerous small islands. . . The interior of Greenland forms one of the poles of

cold. . . . During the brief summer, where the surrounding areas record temperatures as high as 40° F. the temperature in Greenland appears to remain below 32° F. Over this pole of cold, permanent anticyclonic conditions seem to prevail, from which the winds blow towards the coasts. . . . Though the interior is entirely ice-covered, vegetation of the Arctic type flourishes along the coasts during the summer. In the north are the lichens, mosses, creeping dwarf willows, and even such flowering-plants as the yellow poppy, pyrola, &c. In South Greenland the vegetation becomes somewhat more profuse, and in sheltered places dwarf birches and bushes occur. Gardening has been attempted with success in the south, and even as far north as Umanak (lat. 70° 40' N.), where [hardy vegetables are grown]. . . . The population, scattered in small groups along the coasts, throughout the 46,700 square miles of Danish territory, has been estimated as about 13,449. It fluctuates, however, both with migration and disease. [Except in the east and north, where about 800 'Polar' Eskimos live] the original Eskimo population has been completely crossed with European stock. [Many show the stature, and the fair hair and blue eyes of their Danish progenitors.] The largest settlement is at Sydproven, with a maximum population of 780 (1920); the smallest is in the north at Skansen, consisting of 46 people. The majority of the settlements are in the south on the west coast. The most important are Julianehaab, Frederikshaab, Godthaab, Sukkertoppen, Holsteinborg; and in the region of Disco Bay, Godhavn, Egedesmunde, Retterbuck, Jacobshaven, Christianshaab. North of lat. 70° N. is Upernivik. On the east coast is the colony of Angmagssahk, established in 1804."—J. H. Lyde (A. R. H. Moncrieff, *New world of today*, v. 3, pp. 242-243).—"The exports consist of oil (whale, seal, and shark), furs (white and blue fox, seal), fish (cod, caplin, and halibut), eiderdown, and certain minerals, viz., graphite from Upernivik, cryolite from the Ivigtut district. Iron and coal have been found in the Disco Bay area, but are not worked. The cryolite is exported to the United States of America for the manufacture of soda. . . . For purposes of trade and administration the country is divided into Inspectorates—a southern, lying south of 67° N., and a northern, from 67° N. to about 74° N. These Inspectorates are ruled by two governors, with their headquarters at Godthaab and Godhaven respectively, who are responsible to the director of the Government Board at Copenhagen. The Inspectorates are subdivided into districts, each with its chief settlement in addition to the Eskimo stations, and administered by the local 'Udligger,' who is responsible to the superintendent. The superintendent is also a magistrate. Councils for local administration also exist, consisting of delegates (one for every 120 of the population) from the stations. The Councils meet twice a year. Their functions are: (1) To inquire into and punish crime (which, however, is very rare). (2) To relieve the poor. (3) To settle litigation. (4) To distribute some of the public funds. Five-sixths of the price of goods is paid to the sellers in Greenland, but one-sixth is kept back for the public funds."—*Ibid.*, p. 244.—"Hans Egede [see below: Modern history] and his two sons first taught the Eskimos to put their language into writing, and in the last two centuries the Greenlanders have brought this written language to a high state of cultivation, capable of unlimited growth by the compounding of native elements. Illiteracy is now unknown, thanks to the Danish

system of public schools, where the young Eskimos are taught reading and writing, but very little arithmetic, . . . [for the native can seldom] get beyond his aboriginal ability to count twenty on his fingers and toes. He has adopted Christianity without losing his tribal superstitions, the two kinds of belief producing many queer combinations. Most of the Greenland school teachers are natives who have had a course of training in Denmark. . . . There are [now] two printing offices in Godhaab and one in Godhaven, and many books are published in the Eskimo language, which is the same, with intelligible dialectical variations, throughout Greenland and all the way across Arctic America and Siberia. . . . Two monthly journals are distributed free to the whole population. The one at Godhaab, entitled *Atuagadgluutit* (Something to Read), was founded over sixty years ago [c. 1862]. . . . It contains news, native literary contributions and general features. The monthly paper at Godhaven, entitled *Avangnamiog* (The Northlander), is more political in character and has been running for about ten years. The political sense has become very strong in the Greenland Eskimos; even nationalism is taking root, and the natives are making many patriotic national songs. . . . [Native epics] are of historical value as telling stories of the Eskimos' contact with the Vikings of the period A.D. 1000-1400. Many tell of the raids in which the natives exterminated the Viking colonies, . . . and thus afford the only record of the fate of Greenland's earlier white population. . . . [Difficult as it is to make farmers out of nomadic hunters], Eskimos are settling down to the occupations of farming and the raising of cattle and sheep on the good haylands and pastures around the southwestern fjords. The meadows and pastures are fenced off and used in rotation, the crops being improved by constant fertilization. Enough hay is harvested for home consumption without the need of importing more from Iceland, as was necessary in the Viking age. For fuel most of the natives use peat. There are considerable soft-coal deposits on Disco Island and further south along the west coast, and a good deal is mined on the island for use in the port towns"—I. C. Waterbury, *Danish achievements in Greenland* (*New York Times Current History*, July, 1922).

ALSO IN: A. W. Greely, *Handbook of Polar discoveries*, p. 242.

**Native inhabitants.** See **ESKIMO FAMILY**; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: Eskimo area.

**Early history.**—Discovery by Leif, son of Eric the Red.—Origin of name.—Settlement.—Life of the settlers.—Discovery of the mainland of North America.—Voyages of exploration.—Disappearance of settlers.—"The first account of Greenland given to the world, indeed the first mention of that region in literature, is by Adam of Bremen, an ecclesiastical official and geographical author [who in 1069 interviewed] . . . the enterprising king Sweyn of Denmark, and acquired from him divers Scandinavian and other northern items which [about 1076] Adam embodied . . . in his work 'Descriptio Insularum Aquilonis.' . . . 'To this island [he writes] it is said, one can sail from the shore of Nortmannia [*sic*] in five or seven days, as likewise to Iceland. The people there are blue ("cerulei," bluish-green) from the salt water; and from this the region takes its name. They live in a similar fashion to the Icelanders, except that they are more cruel and trouble seafarers by predatory attacks. To them also, as is reported, Christianity has lately been wafted.'

It was in fact about seventy-five years since Leif, son of Eric the Red, according to the sagas, had effected that wafting from the Christian court of Norway to the still pagan Norsemen of his father's far-western domain. For Adam clearly means these white people and not the Eskimos, with whom they had not yet come in contact and of whom no whisper had yet reached the European world. . . . Adam's idea of oceanic insulation was accepted in many quarters, as the maps disclose. Of course, they may not have derived it from him in all instances, directly or indirectly, but at least they shared it. Usually the name becomes the equivalent of 'Green Island.' It is pretty well understood that about 985 or 986 Eric Rauda (Eric the Red, or Ruddy), the first explorer and colonizer of this new region, applied the name at least partly as an advertisement of fertility and promising conditions for the encouragement of Icelandic colonists. . . . Greenland to the intending colonists would naturally mean . . . the really habitable thousand-mile fringe of uncovered land along the southwestern shore, on the average fifty miles wide and occasionally much wider. It was partly shut in by forbidding headlands and perverse currents, but feasible of access when the true course was disclosed. Some parts of this region were, and still are, green with grass and bright with summer flowers. Nansen, who certainly ought to know, declares that the Greenland sites chosen would have seemed more attractive than Iceland to an Icelander. . . . Eric settled in Eric's fiord, the present Tunugdliarfik, at a place which he called Brattahlid, now Kagsiarsuk, in 985 or 986 [see AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries]. Two distinct colonies were founded, the Eastern Settlement, extending from about Cape Farewell to a point well beyond Cape Desolation, comprising the whole of Julianehaab Bay and the coast past Ivigtut, and the Western Settlement, beginning about one hundred and seventy miles farther north at Lysufiord, [i.e., Agnafjord], the present Ameralikfiord, comprising the district of Godthaab. The fiord next Eric's fiord in the Eastern Settlement was Einarsfiord, now Igalikofiord. These fiords were separated at their head by a low and narrow strip of land, the present Igaliko Isthmus. It was here, at Gardar, that the Althing of Greenland met, and here was also found the bishop's seat, established at the beginning of the twelfth century. There were as many as sixteen churches in Greenland, for almost every fiord had its own church on account of the long distances and difficult traveling between the fiords. . . . It is apparent that from the first to last the heart of Greenland was about the low fairly fertile, favorable tract near the heads of the two fiords named for Eric and his friend, Einar and not far from Eric's Greenland home. The Western Settlement was a comparatively small offshoot, with four churches only, yet it contrived to maintain existence for between three and four centuries, being at last obliterated, as is supposed, by the Eskimos [or absorbed by them]. The main settlement was still more enduring, having a continuous record of nearly half a millennium. . . . This seems marvelous, if it be true that the entire population never exceeded 2,000 souls, as Nansen and Hovgaard have supposed. Rink, on the other hand, estimated the maximum at 10,000. Some intermediate number would seem more likely than either extreme. . . . The prosperity of the colony, such as it was, seems to have been at its best in the eleventh and twelfth centuries but was never conspicuous enough to get an outline of Greenland into the maps until about the time of final extinc-

tion. . . . The life of the people seems simple and innocent enough, as disclosed by their relics and remnants, which have been unearthed with great care. As seal bones predominate in their refuse piles, this offshore supply must have been their greatest reliance for animal food; but they had also sheep, goats, and a small breed of cattle. They spun wool and wove it; they carved vessels of soapstone, sometimes with decoration; they milked cows and made butter; they exported seal-skins, ropes of walrus hide, and walrus tusks; they paid tithes to the Pope in such commodities; they boiled seal fat and made seal tar; they gathered tree trunks as driftwood far up the coast and probably brought back cargoes of timber from Markland; they built substantial houses and churches. . . . But they had to import grain, iron, and many other articles from Europe; and the infrequent visits of ships from Iceland, Norway, and elsewhere must have made a break in the monotony of their lives which they could ill afford to forego. . . .

"If Greenland had a long history, it was that of a few people in a remote region and could not present many salient features. The colony possessed at least one monastery and the beginning of a literature, including, it is said, the Lay of Atli, revealing a curious interest in the career of the great Hun Attila, on the part of a distant colonist hidden in Arctic mists and writing beside the glaciers. . . . In seamanship and exploration their achievements, considering their numbers and resources, were really wonderful. All experts agree that Eric's first exploration was daring, skillful, persistent, and exhaustive, according to the best modern standards, and that his selection of settlement sites was exceedingly judicious; in fact, could not have been improved upon. Then followed in less than twenty years the discovery of the American mainland by Eric's son Leif (or, as some say, by one Biarni, followed by Leif) and a series of other voyages, including Thorfinn Karlsefni's prolonged effort to colonize, involving the tracing of the American coast line from at least upper Labrador to some point south of Newfoundland. The precise lower limit is matter of dispute, but, according to the better opinion, may be found somewhere on the front of southern New England [see also AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries]. These were followed in 1121 by the missionary journey, as it seems to have been, of Bishop Eric Gnuþsson, who then sailed out of Greenland for Vinland, we do not know with what result. Subsequent communication with parts of the American continent was probably not uncommon, as has been inferred from the accidental arrival in 1347 of a ship which had sailed from Greenland to Markland and been storm-driven from the latter westward. It pursued its course to Norway. In the opposite (Northern) direction we know of at least two venturesome voyages up Baffin Bay, and, as the records have reached us almost by accident, we may naturally conjecture many more. A British exploring expedition in 1824 acquired a small stone inscribed with runic characters near some beacons on an island north of Upernivik on the upper north-western coast of Greenland. The original is lost, but a duplicate of it is preserved in the Copenhagen National Museum. . . . The inscription is thought to date from about 1300, but, of course, may relate to a much earlier event. It has been translated by various runologists, with differences in detail. As given by Professor Hovgaard, it reads: 'Erling Sivgatsson and Bjarne Thordarson and Endride Oddson built this (or these) beacon (s) Saturday after "Gadnday" (April 25th) and

cleared (the place) (or made the inscription) 1135 (?). . . The date 1135 would better accord with the climax of Norse strenuousness and Greenland adventure. . . But, whether the original visit took place in the twelfth century or the fourteenth, and whether the stone denotes two Norse visits to this place or only one, it is still conclusive that some Greenlanders had explored well to the northward along the shore of Baffin Bay in the time of the old colony. A more extensive exploration was undertaken in 1266 by the clergy, apparently of the Bishop's seat, since they traveled home to Gardar. It appears that certain men had been farther north than usual but reported no sign of previous occupancy by the Eskimos (who seem by this time to have awakened some concern among the Norsemen) [except at a pasture land a little below Disco bay]. . . The Eskimo race was the ominous shadow of the Norse colonist from the beginning, though long unrecognized as a menace. Apparently there had been a temporary movement of these people down the western coast about the tenth century, withdrawing before the first white men appeared. After that for generations, perhaps centuries, the weaker heathen wisely kept out of sight. . . At last they moved nearer, and there was occasional contact while still the Norsemen were formidable. But by the fourteenth century Norse Greenland had begun to dwindle in power and population, with diminishing aid and reinforcement from Europe, and the danger drew nearer. Perhaps there was some special impulsion of the uncivilized people which resulted in the obliteration of the Western Norse Settlement, always relatively feeble. Some rumor of its need having reached the Eastern Settlement, an expedition of relief was dispatched about 1337, or perhaps a little later, accompanied by Ivar Bardsen, then or afterward steward of the Bishop, who tells the tale. Only a few stray cattle were found; presumably the colonists had been killed or carried away. The ground thus lost could not be regained. On the contrary, we may suppose the Eskimos to be getting stronger and drawing nearer. In 1355 an expedition under Paul Knutson came out to reinforce the Norsemen; but it returned home in or before 1364 and can have made only a temporary lightening of the load. In 1379 there seems to have been an Eskimo attack, costing the Norsemen 18 of their few men. But peace may have reigned as a rule. At any rate, the ordinary functions of life went on, for it is of record that a young Icelander, visiting Greenland, was married by the Bishop at Gardar in 1409; and the last visit of the Norwegian *knorr*, or supply ship, occurred by way of Iceland in 1410. After that nothing is certainly known. There are two papal letters at different periods of the century, based on very questionable hearsay information and indicating confusion and general falling away. There was even a futile effort to reopen communication in 1492."—W. H. Babcock, *Legendary islands of the Atlantic*, pp 94-95, 101-104, 106-110, 112.

ALSO IN: F. Nansen, *In northern mists*.

**Modern history.**—In 1585, John Davis, the English explorer, when on his way in search of the North Pole visited the island, and found no sign of the Northmen, except a few traditions among the Eskimo, and some traces of the influence of Norse civilization. Frobisher, Hudson (see AMERICA: 1607-1608) and Baffin also touched on the coasts, and made a few forced visits to the southwest of Greenland; but no attempt at European settlement was again made until 1721, when Hans Egede, a Danish missionary, went there

with his family, determined to convert the heathen tribes, and for that purpose made a settlement where the little town of Gotthaab now stands, and took possession for the king of Denmark. In spite of many discouragements, not the least being the fact that a number of the settlers sent up were lawbreakers or even convicts, Egede persevered, and succeeded so well that as the result of his efforts, and those of his successors, the natives of the present-day are all Christians. This result, however, was probably helped by constant intermarriage between the settlers and the natives. About ten years after the new settlement was made, a virulent epidemic of small-pox reduced the population by relatively large numbers. The trade which developed was, in 1750, made the monopoly of one private company, which, however, did not make it pay. In 1754, therefore, it was retrieved by the government in whose hands it still remains. Although exploration of the coasts was made by a number of Arctic explorers, no effort was made to cross the central ice cap until 1870 when Nordenskiöld attempted this feat. He failed; but was successful in 1883, and was followed by Nansen in 1888; Peary, 1892, and 1895; Rasmussen, 1912; De Quervain, 1912; Koch, 1913 (see also ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1886-1900). The great interest of Greenland's modern history, therefore, lies in achievement in exploration and its scientific value. This has been enhanced by the foundation, by M. P. Porsild, of an Arctic station, or laboratory at Godhavn, where excellent work has been done in the field of experiment and research. The work was begun as a private enterprise, but in 1906 was taken over by the government. In 1921 the king of Denmark paid a visit to this great northern portion of his dominions.

ALSO IN: A. W. Greely, *Three years of Arctic service*.—K. Rasmussen, *People of the polar north*.

**Explorations in the nineteenth century.** See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1860-1870; 1801-1892; 1805; 1897; 1808; 1890.

**GREENS**, one of the four companies of circus providers who supplied horses and men for chariot races in ancient Rome, so called from the identifying color.—See also CIRCUS: Factions of the Roman.

**GREENVILLE**, Treaty of (1795). See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES: 1790-1795.

**GREENWOOD**, Sir Hamar (1870- ), Canadian lawyer. Member of Parliament; served in the World War, 1914-1916; created baronet, 1915; under-secretary of state for home affairs, 1919; chief secretary for Ireland, 1920.

**GREGOIRE**, Henri (1750-1831), French revolutionist. Dec. 27, 1790, under the new civil constitution of the clergy, he was made bishop of Blois; member of National Convention, 1792. See FRANCE: 1792 (September-November).

**GREGORIAN CALENDAR**, calendar instituted by Pope Gregory XIII, February, 1584. See CHRONOLOGY: Gregorian reformation of Julian calendar; Plans for world-wide reform; FRANCE: 1804-1805.

**GREGORIAN CHANT**, ritual music of the early Christian church, as revised by Pope Gregory. See Music: Ancient: 540-604.

**GREGORIAN CODE**. See CODES: 117-533.

**GREGORIANS**. See BROTHERS OF THE COMMON LOT.

**GREGORY I** (called the Great) (c. 540-604), pope, 590-604. Laid the foundation for the papacy in the Middle Ages; organized the ritual of the church; enforced the celibacy of the clergy, arranged the Gregorian chant, and displayed great

missionary zeal.—See also PAPACY: 461-604; CHRISTIANITY: 553-800; 597-800; ENGLAND: 597-685; HISTORY: 18; ROME: Medieval city: 590-640; MUSIC: Ancient: 540-604; MASS: 6th-7th centuries.

**Gregory II**, pope, 715-731. He opposed the iconoclasm of Leo the Isaurian, and sent Boniface to Germany as a missionary. See **ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY**.

**Gregory III**, pope, 731-741. He denounced iconoclasm and confirmed the worship of images. See **ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY**.

**Gregory IV**, pope, 827-844.

**Gregory V**, pope, 996-999. First German pope.

**Gregory VI** (d. 1047), pope, 1044-1046. He had two rival claimants for the papacy and was deposed with them in 1046 by Henry III. See **PAPACY: 887-1046**.

**Gregory VII (Hildebrand)** (1020-1085), pope, 1075-1085. He desired the supremacy of church over state, issued a decree against investitures, and cited Henry IV of Germany to answer to certain charges. Henry deposed him, was in turn excommunicated and did penance at Canossa to Gregory, who absolved him. War between them was later renewed, Gregory was besieged by Henry, rescued by Robert Guiscard, but died in exile. See **PAPACY: 1056-1122; CANOSSA, HENRY IV AT; GERMANY: 973-1056; 1056-1122**.

**Gregory VIII**, pope, 1187, October 26 to December 17. See **CRUSADES: 1188-1192**.

**Gregory IX**, pope, 1227-1241. During his reign he was occupied with the struggle between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. See **ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: Definition**.

**Gregory X** (1210-1276), pope, 1271-1276. See **FLORENCE: 1248-1278**.

**Gregory XI**, pope, 1371-1378. Terminated the "Babylonish Captivity" at Avignon by removing to Rome. See **FLORENCE: 1375-1378; PAPACY: 1352-1378**.

**Gregory XII** (1325-1417), pope, 1406-1415. He was elected in opposition to Benedict XIII, who reigned at Avignon. Both were deposed in 1409, but Gregory refused to recognize it until 1415. See **PAPACY: 1377-1417**.

**Gregory XIII** (1502-1585), pope, 1572-1585. Famous for introducing the Gregorian calendar. See **CHRONOLOGY: Gregorian reformation, etc.**

**Gregory XIV**, pope, 1590-1591. See **JESUITS: 1573-1592**.

**Gregory XV** (1554-1623), pope, 1621-1623. Famous for founding the Congregation of the Propaganda. See **PAPACY: 1622**.

**Gregory XVI** (1765-1846), pope, 1831-1846. See **VATICAN MUSEUM**.

**Gregory V** (1739-1821), ecumenical patriarch of the Greek Orthodox church. Bishop of Smyrna, 1784; patriarch of Constantinople, 1795, 1806-1817, 1819. At the beginning of the Greek War of Independence, he was hanged by the Turks at Constantinople for revolutionary sympathies. See **GREECE: 1821-1829**.

**GREGORY, Augusta, Lady**, Irish dramatist. See **DRAMA: 1892-1921**.

**GREGORY, Thomas Watt** (1861- ), American lawyer and cabinet officer. See **U.S.A.: 1913 (March)**.

**GREGORY OF TOURS, Saint (Gregorius Turonensis)** (538-594), Frankish historian. See **HISTORY: 19**.

**GREGORY THE PATRIARCH**. See **BOHEMIA: 1434-1457**.

**GRENADES**, small projectiles filled with explosives, and, in modern warfare, thrown by hand.

"Bombing as a war measure dates back to antiquity. The Chinese are early supposed to have fired poisonous or incendiary compositions at an enemy at short range with their frog-gun called 'huo-p'an.' They first began the use of the 'stink-pot' bomb. Indications lead us to believe that this weapon was used in various forms since the year 904 when they were used at the siege of Salonika. At the siege of Nice, William of Tyne also reported the use of pitch balls, composed of pitch, oil, and fat. Explosive grenades were utilized early in the history of gunpowder warfare. As early as 1427 they were used at the siege of the fortress of Casalmaggiore on the River Po, the defenders having thrown bottles filled with gunpowder at the besieging troops. This constituted the early or primitive grenade employed largely during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In 1665, during the reign of Louis XIV, grenades were carried in an especially made pocket called the *grena-diere*. Soon the name *grenadier* began to be applied to a group of picked soldiers who scoured the country in advance of the line of march. While only four grenadiers, each carrying twelve to fourteen grenades, were assigned to each regiment of infantry during the early years, companies were organized after 1670 and soon after each grenadier was armed with a rifle in addition [see also **MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 16**]. During the Napoleonic wars, grenades were not much in vogue, but they were employed at Saragossa (1808-1809), at Antwerp (1832), and at Sebastopol (1854-1856). Here, during the Crimean War, the French are reported to have thrown about 3,200 grenades, while the Russians also used them extensively. The Russians used two types of grenade, one of cast-iron about four inches in diameter, and another of glass. The latter was a specially shaped bottle filled with gunpowder with a fuse attached to it. The grenades were used for close combat both in assault and in defense. They weighed about three pounds, so that they could be thrown by hand from twenty to thirty yards. This weapon of war fell into disuse amongst the armies of Europe until 1885, when it was used against the Sudanese tribes by the English. The advent of the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905 found the hand-grenade nearly as important an adjunct of infantry equipment as the rifle. They were first utilized during the siege of Port Arthur, and then gradually became the main weapon for close, hand-to-hand fighting. The Russian grenade was composed of old cannon balls or rolled brass cases of quick-firing artillery cut into four inch lengths which were filled with dynamite or pyroxil, to which was attached a fuse set to burn fifteen seconds. The Japanese grenade was made from two ordinary preserve boxes of bamboo canes which were filled with a pound of pyroxil and later replaced by picric acid. To this was attached a Bickford's fuse which was composed of flax treated with gunpowder. Soon after the commencement of the World War, the experiences gained during the Russo-Japanese and the Balkan wars began to be utilized. Commanders of the belligerent armies saw the great possibilities of the hand-grenade in the close trench warfare, and soon we saw the reappearance of this ancient engine in many new and modified forms. The modern grenade is not unlike a miniature high explosive shell. [The body is composed of steel or cast-iron containing a charge of T. N. T., picric acid, toluite, gun-cotton, or any other suitable explosive, and a detonator fired by a fuse. This is arranged to fire only on impact, but cannot explode until the grenade has

traversed a certain distance. This eliminates the possibility of a premature explosion. Time fuses are also employed, but they must be so arranged that the grenade can become active only after having been thrown. The general weight of modern grenades is about a pound.] . . . For a long time in the trenches of France [in the World War] only one type of hand-grenade was used. This was the so called defensive grenade, built of stout metal which would fly into fragments when the interior charge exploded. As might be expected, such a weapon was used only by men actually within the trenches, the walls of which protected the throwers from the flying fragments. But, as the war continued, six other distinct kinds of grenades were developed, America contributing one of the most important of them. The defensive, or fragmentation, type grenade was the commonest, most numerous, and, perhaps, the most useful of all of them. Another important one, however, was that known as the offensive grenade, and it was America's own contribution to trench warfare. The body of the offensive grenade was made of paper, so that the deadly effect of it was produced by the flame and concussion of the explosion itself. It was quite sure to kill any man within 3 yards of it when it went off, but it was safe to use in the open offensive movements, since there were no pieces of metal to fly back and hit the thrower. A third development was known as the gas grenade. It was built of sheet metal, and its toxic contents were effective in making enemy trenches and dugouts uninhabitable. A fourth, a grenade of similar construction, . . . scattered burning phosphorus over an area 3 to 5 yards in diameter and released a dense cloud of white smoke. . . . As a fifth class there was a combination hand and rifle grenade, a British device adopted in the American program. The sixth class of grenades was known as the incendiary type. These were the paper bombs filled with burning material and designed for use against structures intended to be destroyed by fire. In the seventh class were the thermit grenades, built of terneplate and filled with a compound containing thermit, which develops an intense heat while melting. Thermit grenades were used principally to destroy captured guns."—E. S. Farrow, *American guns in the war with Germany*, pp. 74-75.—See also TRENCH WARFARE: Defensive weapons.

ALSO IN: W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*.

**GRENADIER.** See GRENADES.

**GRENADIER GUARDS,** British army. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 31.

**GRENFELL,** Francis Wallace, 1st Baron Kilvey (1841- ), English soldier. See EGYPT: 1885-1896.

**GRENOBLE,** town in southeastern France, contained in the kingdom of Arles during the 10th century. See BURGUNDY: 843-933.

**GRENVILLE,** George (1712-1770), English statesman. Held various governmental positions, 1741-1762; secretary of state, 1762; prime minister, uniting the offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer, 1763; known for his advocacy of the Stamp Act. See ENGLAND: 1760-1763; 1765-1768; U. S. A.: 1763-1764.

**GRENVILLE,** or Greynville, Sir Richard (c. 1541-1591), British naval commander and colonizer. See AMERICA: 1584-1586.

**GRESHAM'S LAW.**—"When different grades of an article can be secured for the same price, individuals use the better one; when different grades of money are in existence, they use the

poorer one. In the first case the individuals act as buyers, in the second as sellers. The use of money is not its consumption, but its alienation in order to secure things that can be consumed. Hence, so long as the poor money has legal tender equally with the good, individuals can make profits by melting or exporting the latter and paying out the former. This principle is known as Gresham's law. The name Gresham's law is due to the fact that a Scotch writer, McLeod, who was not familiar with the history of economic thought, happened half a century ago to find the idea in a report to Elizabeth by Sir Thomas Gresham. In reality, it is expressed more fully and forcibly by many of the earlier mediæval writers, not to speak of those of classic antiquity. It applies primarily to underweight or debased coin which will drive out the full-weight or good coin of the same metal. This will happen, however, only under two conditions. First, the total amount of money, good and bad, must be in excess of the country's needs. In the second place, both the good and the poor coins must be actually used as money. A better statement of Gresham's law would therefore be that whenever a coin is worth appreciably more as bullion than as money it will disappear from circulation. Gresham's law applies also to paper money as contrasted with metallic money. Here, however, as before, not only must the paper be issued to excess before it drives out the coin, but public opinion may entirely prevent the circulation of the paper money, as was the case with the greenbacks on the Pacific slope during the civil war. Gresham's law finally applies practically also to coin of one metal whose bullion value is less than that of coin of another metal, provided that both metals are legal standard money, with free coinage. In every case, whenever there is a double standard with free coinage of both metals, a discrepancy between the mint and the market ratio makes one of the two metals the poorer money, and leads to a gradual disappearance of the better money."—E. R. A. Seligman, *Principles of economics*, pp. 473-475.

**GREUZE,** Jean Baptiste (1725-1805), French portrait painter. See PAINTING: French.

**GREVILLERS,** town in France about three miles west of Bapaume. Was a center of fighting during the World War, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 18; d; k, 1.

**GRÉVY,** François Paul Jules (1807-1891), French statesman and president of the republic, 1879-1887. See FRANCE: 1875-1889.

**GREY,** Charles, 2nd Earl (1764-1845), English statesman. In the House of Commons, where he worked for reform of borough system, 1786; first lord of the admiralty, 1806; then secretary of state for foreign affairs; of opposition party in House of Lords, 1807-1830; prime minister, 1830-1834. See ENGLAND: 1830-1832; 1834-1837.

**GREY,** Sir George (1812-1898), British statesman and colonial governor. Explored Australia, 1837-1840; governor of South Australia, 1841; governor of New Zealand, 1846-1854; governor and commander-in-chief, Cape of Good Hope, 1854-1861; premier of New Zealand, 1877-1891. See NEW ZEALAND: 1850-1855; 1853-1870; 1855-1870; 1870-1876; 1876-1890; SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1840-1862.

**GREY BOOK,** Belgian diplomatic correspondence dealing with World War. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 3.

**GREY DE WILTON,** Arthur, 14th Baron (1536-1593), Irish statesman. Was lord deputy of Ireland. See IRELAND: 1559-1603.



**GREY FRIARS**, name applied to the Franciscans, one of the great mendicant orders of medieval Europe, and originating in the color of their habit. See FRANCISCAN FRIARS.

**GREY LEAGUES**, three leagues formed by the Swiss of Graubunden. See SWITZERLAND: 1306-1490.

**GREY OF FALLODEN**, Edward Grey, 1st Viscount (1862- ), English statesman. Undersecretary for foreign affairs, 1892-1895; secretary of state for foreign affairs, 1905-1916, when he resigned; accepted peerage, 1916; special ambassador to the United States, 1919.—See also WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, xxi.

Letter concerning Anglo-Russian agreement. See ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT OF 1907.

Attitude on annexation of Congo by Belgium. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1909.

Correspondence on American fishing rights in Newfoundland waters. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1905-1909.

Speech on European situation in 1909. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1913: Anticipation of World War.

Foreign policy. See ENGLAND: 1912; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71.

Attempts to avert World War.—To settle by arbitration.—Correspondence with other foreign ministers. See ENGLAND: 1914; 1914 (Aug. 3): Meeting of Parliament; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 12; 20; 21; 23; 27; 34; 56; 71; 71, iii; 71, xxiii; 71, xxv.

Speech on Bulgarian war attitude. See BULGARIA: 1914.

Attitude toward blockade and treatment of neutral ships during World War. See CONTINUOUS VOYAGE: Origin; WORLD WAR: 1915: XI. Politics and diplomacy: a, 1.

Note to Venizelos concerning concessions for Greece in entering World War. See GREECE: 1915 (January-February).

Attempts to save Captain Fryatt. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: d.

**GREYBACKS**, nickname for Confederate soldiers. See BOYS IN BLUE.

**GREYS**, political faction in Florence in the 15th century. See BIGL.

**GREYTOWN**, terminus city of Panama canal. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1897; NICARAGUA: 1850.

**GRIBEAUVAL**, Jean Baptiste Vaquette de (1715-1789), French general. Instituted reforms to artillery. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 17.

**GRIBOVO**, Battle of. See TURKEY: 1897.

**GRIBOYEDOV**, Alexander Sergéyevitch (1795-1829), Russian dramatic poet and statesman. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1800-1852.

**GRIEG**, Edward Hagerup (1843-1907), Norwegian composer. Studied at Leipzig conservatory, and later with Gade and Hartmann; founded the Concert Society Euterpe, Copenhagen, 1864; established and conducted the Philharmonic Society, Christiania, 1871-1880; wrote exquisite miniatures for the pianoforte—among them the two suites "Peer Gynt" (op. 46 and 55), and songs that are recognized as the most beautiful in all song literature, such as "Ein Schwan," "Solvegg's Lied," and "Ich liebe dich." See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia.

**GRIERSON**, Benjamin Henry (1826-1911), American cavalry officer in Civil War. Noted for his famous raid from La Grange, Tennessee, to Baton Rouge, Louisiana. See U.S.A.: 1863 (April-May: Mississippi).

**GRIESINGER**, Wilhelm (1817-c. 1867), German physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th-20th centuries.

**GRIEVE**, Mackenzie, English aviator and companion of Harry Hawker in attempted trans-Atlantic flight. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1000: 1919 (May): Attempts to cross Atlantic; Hawker's attempted Atlantic flight.

**GRIFFITH**, Arthur (1872-1922), Irish statesman and Sinn Fein leader. In October, 1921, delegate to London conference for the establishment of the Irish Free State; January-October, 1922, president of the Dail Eireann. See IRELAND: 1905-1916; 1921; 1921 (May-June); 1922 (January-July); (August).

**GRIFFITHS**, John Willis (1800-1882), American naval architect. Was especially interested in clipper ships. See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1820-1920.

**GRIGNARD**, Victor (1871- ), French chemist. Was winner of the Nobel prize in 1912. See NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1912.

**GRIGORIEV UPRISING**. See JEWS: Russia: Ukraine.

**GRIGOROVICH**, Demitri Vasilievitch (1822-1900), Russian novelist. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1855-1889.

**GRIJALVA**, Juan de (c. 1480-1527), Spanish explorer. See AMERICA: 1517-1518; MEXICO: 1519 (February-April).

**GRILLPARZER**, Franz (1791-1872), Austrian dramatist. See DRAMA: 1800-1900: Dearth of great drama: 1817-1871.

**GRIMALDI FAMILY**, famous family of Genoa, and supporters of Guelph interests throughout Italy. Its members were princes of Monaco until the 18th century. See ITALY: 1313-1330; MONACO.

**GRIMALDI MAN**, anthropological remains. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Physical; EUROPE: Prehistoric Earliest remains, etc.: Grimaldi man; Cromagnon man.

**GRIMES**, James Wilson (1816-1872), American statesman. Governor of Iowa, 1854-1858; United States senator, 1858-1869. See IOWA: 1848-1860; 1867-1868.

**GRIMM**, Jacob Ludwig Karl (1785-1863), eminent German philologist who discovered the law of the permutation of consonants. See PHILOLOGY: 6; 8.

**GRIMMELSHAUSEN**, Hans Jakob Christoffel von (c. 1625-1676), German prose writer. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1600-1750.

**GRIMM-HOFFMAN AFFAIR**. See SWITZERLAND: 1917 (June).

**GRINNELL EXPEDITIONS**. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1850-1851; 1853-1855.

**GRIQUAS, GRIQUALAND EAST, AND GRIQUALAND WEST**.—"Territorial divisions of the Cape Province of the Union of South Africa. Griqualand East has an area of 6,602 square miles, southeast of the Drakensberg, and contains about 6,000 Griquas, and a quarter million of other inhabitants (5,880 Europeans in 1918). Griqualand West, lying north of the Orange river, is noted for its diamond mines in the neighborhood of Kimberley, the principal town, celebrated for its siege by the Boers in the South African War. The area of Griqualand West is 15,197 square miles, its population in 1914 being 110,000 of whom some 40,000 were whites. The Griquas, or Baastards, a mixed race sprung from the intercourse of the 'Boers' [of South Africa] with their Hottentot slaves," migrated from Cape Colony after the Emancipation Act of 1833, "and, under the chiefs Waterboer and Adam Kok, settled in the country north of the confluence of the Orange and Vaal,

the present Griqualand West. Subsequently, in 1852, Adam Kok's section of the Griquas again migrated to the territory then called No Man's Land, between Kafraria and southern Natal, now known as Griqualand East, or New Griqualand. . . . In consequence of the discovery of diamonds in the Griqua country in 1867, and the rush thither of thousands of Europeans from all the surrounding states, as well as from Europe, America, and Australia, the chief Waterboer ceded his rights to the British Government, and this region was annexed to the Cape Colony as the Lieutenant-Governorship of Griqualand West in 1871."—Hellwald-Johnston, *Africa*, ch. 23, sect. 5.

**GRISONS** (Graubünden), largest canton of Switzerland. Entered the Swiss Confederation in 1497. It was partly controlled by the French in 1626, and dismembered by Bonaparte in 1797. See SWITZERLAND: 1300-1499; FRANCE: 1624-1626; 1797 (May-October).

**GROCHOW**, Battles of (1831). See POLAND: 1830-1832.

**GRODEK**, town sixteen miles west of Lemberg, Galicia. Strongly defended by lakes, river and marshes, played a part in the World War campaigns of 1914 and 1915, between German-Austrian and Russian forces.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 1; 1915: III. Eastern front: f, 6; g, 1.

**GROGAN**, Ewart Scott (1874- ), British military officer who traversed Africa. See CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY.

**GROL**, small town in Holland. Was captured in 1627 by Frederick Henry. See NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

**GRONDO**, city of Poland, on the Nieman, about ninety miles southwest of Vilna. Was in the zone of conflict between Russians and Germans during the first two years of the World War. See RUSSIA: Map; WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6.

Congress of (1793). See POLAND: 1793-1796.

**GRONDWET**, Dutch word meaning fundamental law, and applied to early constitutions in South Africa.

**GRONENBURG**, Dutch city. Was captured in 1593 from the Spaniards by Prince Maurice of Nassau. See NETHERLANDS: 1588-1593.

**GROOT**, Gerhard (1340-1384), preacher and founder of Brethren of the Common Lot. See BROTHERN OF THE COMMON LOT.

**GROOT**, Huig van. See GROTIUS, HUGO.

**GROS**, Jean Baptiste Louis (b. 1793), French diplomat in China. See CHINA: 1856-1860.

**GROS VENTRE INDIANS**. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; HIDATSA; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains Area; SIOUAN FAMILY.

**GROSS BEEREN**, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: 1813 (August-October).

**GROSS GÖRSCHEN**, or Lützen, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1813 (April-May).

**GROSSCUP**, Peter Stenger (1852- ), American jurist. See TRUSTS: United States: 1903-1906; 1904-1909.

**GROSSE RATH**, Swiss legislative body. See SWITZERLAND: 1848-1890.

**GROSSWARDEIN**, Treaty of (1538). See HUNGARY: 1526-1567.

**GROTE**, George (1794-1871), English historian. See HISTORY: 27; AUSTRALIAN BALLOT: Origin.

**GROTIUS**, Hugo, (properly Huig van Groot) (1583-1645), Dutch scholar and jurist. At age of twenty-one, historiographer of the United Provinces and advocate-general to Holland and

Zeeland; member of embassy to England, 1613; imprisoned for life, 1619, for connection with Remonstrants; escaped to Paris, 1621, where he served some years as Swedish ambassador; called the "father of international law," his most important treaties being "De jure belli et pacis."—See also FREEDOM OF THE SEAS: 1400-1650; INTERNATIONAL LAW: Grotius and the early jurists; NETHERLANDS: 1603-1619.

**GROTTE DES ENFANTS**, cave in France where human remains of early man were found. See EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.: Grimaldi man.

**GROUCHY**, Emmanuel, Marquis de (1766-1847), French marshal. Took part in the various Napoleonic campaigns; did not arrive at Waterloo in time to help Napoleon, but conducted the retreat to Paris.

**GROVETON**, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (August-September: Virginia): End of General Pope's campaign.

**GRUNDY**, Felix (1777-1840), American lawyer and politician. See U. S. A.: 1810-1812.

**GRUNWALD**, or Tannenburg, Battle of (1410). See POLAND: 1333-1572; 14th century.

**GRÜTHUNGI**, Roman name for Ostrogoths. See GOTHS: 376.

**GRÜTLI**, or Rütli, Meadow of. See SWITZERLAND: Three forest cantons.

**GRYNEUM**, celebrated oracle of the Island of Lesbos. See ORACLES.

**GUADACELITO**, or Salado, Battle of (1340). See SPAIN: 1273-1460.

**GUADALAJARA**, Mexico, capital of the state of Jalisco. Founded in 1531 by Nuño de Guzman; made a bishopric in 1540. The cathedral, one of the largest churches of Mexico, was built in 1618. It is the third city of Mexico in size; center of the iron, steel and glass industries, and widely known for the manufacture of Indian pottery.—See also MEXICO: 1535-1822; and Map.

**GUADALAJARA**, Spain, capital of the province of Guadalajara. Known as Orriaca or Caraca during Roman and Visigothic times; captured by the Moors in 714; retaken by Spanish in 1081; originally noted for the cloth-weaving industry, which however, has been superseded by manufactures of leather, woolen fabrics, soap and bricks.

**GUADALAJARA**, Battle of (1811). See SPAIN: 1810-1819.

**GUADALETE**, Battle of (711). See SPAIN: 711-713.

**GUADALOUPE HIDALGO**, Treaty of (1848). See MEXICO: 1848.

**GUADALUPES**. See GACHUPINES.

**GADELOUPE**, French West Indian islands lying between the British islands of Montserrat and Dominica. Discovered by Columbus in 1493; settled by the French in 1635; captured by the British in 1759, and ruled by them for four years. In 1794 and 1810 the British captured the colonies, but almost immediately lost possession; transferred to Sweden in 1813; reverted to France again in 1816. In 1848 slavery was abolished there. Guadeloupe consists of two islands: Basse-Terre, forming Guadeloupe proper, and Grande-Terre. Basse-Terre is best known for its beautiful scenery, and Grande-Terre for its sugar plantations.—See also CARIBS; LOUISIANA: 1762-1766; WEST INDIES.

**GAICARUS INDIANS**. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

**GAJIRA**. See COAJIRA.

**GUAM**, largest of the Ladrone or Mariana islands (see MARIANNES), in the Pacific ocean, about thirty miles long and six miles wide. Noted chiefly as a naval station and a port of transit

between the United States and the Philippine islands (see BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the world). A small part of it is under cultivation. The inhabitants are of the Indonesian stock, greatly mixed with Filipino and Spanish elements. The language is dialect of Malay corrupted by Spanish. According to the United States census of 1920, the population was 14,724.

1521-1898.—**Spanish control.**—Guam was discovered by Magellan in 1521, but not effectively occupied by Spain till a century and a half later. It was ceded to the United States by Spain on December 10, 1898, but not effectively occupied until 1899.—See also U. S. A.: 1898 (June); (July-December).

1900-1922.—**Under American control.**—Guam is governed by the officer of the United States navy who is commandant at the naval station. Under American rule the condition of the people has been improved, and the island developed. Peonage was abolished in 1900 and a public school system established. There is also a good hospital, and the capital, Agana, has a sewerage and water system. In 1908 an agricultural station was established in Guam. A high power radio station was constructed by the navy department and opened for communication November, 1917. In 1918 the island was struck by a terrific typhoon which was described as follows: "The Navy Department . . . received a dispatch from Captain Roy C. Smith, Governor of Guam, stating that Guam was swept by a typhoon on July 6 [1918]. . . . Half of the inhabitants are destitute and homeless, crops destroyed and food scarce. Governor Smith states: 'I am feeding destitute natives as necessary from naval supplies and commandeered food stocks, making repairs as soon as possible.'"—*New York Times*, July 10, 1918.

See also TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

ALSO IN: H. E. Crampton, *Journey to the Mariana islands.—Guam and Saipan* (*Journal of Natural History*, 1921, v. 21, pp. 126-145).—B. H. Richard, *Question of Guam* (*Military Historian and Economist*, 1916, v. 1, pp. 63-69).—R. C. Smith, *Guam, our tropical real estate* (*Asia*, 1920, v. 20, pp. 323-330).

**GUANAJUATO**, or Santa Fé de Guanajuato, capital of the state of Guanajuato, Mexico. Founded in 1554; received the title of city in 1741. In the war of independence against Spain it was the scene of the storming of the Alhóndiga de Granaditas in 1810. See MEXICO: 1810-1819; Map.

**GUANAS INDIANS.** See PAMPAS TRIBES.

**GUANTANAMO**, town in Cuba. The harbor was captured by the American navy, 1898, during the Spanish-American War. In 1903 land for a coaling station was leased to the United States by Cuba. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June-July); CUBA: 1903.

**GUAP**, or Yap. See YAP.

**GUARANI INDIANS.** See PAMPAS TRIBES; PARAGUAY: 1515-1557; 1914-1917; TUPI; URUGUAY: Aborigines.

**GUARD**, National. See NATIONAL GUARD.

**GUARINO OF VERONA** (1370-1460), Italian scholar and teacher. See EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries; Italy the center.

**GUARNIERI**, celebrated family of violin makers of Italy. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1737.

**GUAST**, Pierre du. See MONTS, PIERRE DU GUAST, SIEUR DE.

**GUASTALLA**, city of north Italy. Given to the control of Spain by treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and to Marie Louise of Austria by the Treaty of

Fontainebleau and the Congress of Vienna. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: CONGRESS: 2; FRANCE: 1814 (March-April); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

**Battle of (1734).** See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

**GUATEMALA:** Origin of name.—"Like its Mexican neighbor, it still bears a name of Aztec origin, the term Guatemala (Quaubtematlan), according to some interpreters, meaning 'Eagle Land,' though a less poetic etymology gives it the signification of 'Land of the Wooden Piles.' Others again write, U-ha-tez-ma-la, a group of syllables which would mean 'Mountain vomiting water,' the whole region being so named in reference to the Aqua ('Water') volcano, one of its loftiest cones."—E. Reclus, *International geography*, v. 17, p. 206.—"According to Fuentes y Guzman, derived from 'Coctemalan'—that is to say 'Palo de leche,' milk-tree, commonly called 'Yerba mala,' found in the neighborhood of Antigua. . . . In the Mexican tongue, if we may believe Vasquez, it was called 'Quauhtimali,' rotten-tree; . . . and Juanos suggests that it may be from Juitemal, the first king of Guatemala."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states of North America*, v. 1, p. 620, *foot note*.

**Geographic description.**—**Area.**—**Population.**—"Guatemala, the most northern of the Central American States, . . . is bounded on the west and north by the Mexican States of Tabasco, Chiapas, Campeche, and Yucatan, and on the northeast by British Honduras and the Gulf of Honduras; on the east by the Republics of San Salvador and Honduras, and on the south by the Pacific Ocean. The total area is about 48,000 square miles. The coast line on the Atlantic, or Gulf of Honduras, is about 100 miles in length, and that on the Pacific, approximately 155 miles [see CENTRAL AMERICA: Map]. . . . The hydrographical system of Guatemala may be divided into two watersheds. The Cordillera of the Andes, which runs from north to south of the country, affects the course of the rivers in such a distinct manner that the rainfall in the city of Chimaltenango, which is situated in the mountains, is equally divided; that falling in the north and east feeds the rivers flowing to the Atlantic, and the rain falling on the south and west goes eventually to the Pacific. . . . The physical aspect of Guatemala is very mountainous. The whole centre of the country is broken by the lofty Andean range and its spurs, only the coast lands bordering the two oceans being but little above sea-level. This central table-land, which has an area of some thirty thousand square miles, is by far the largest and most populated portion of the country, and upon it are situated all the important cities and towns of the Republic, with the exception of the coast ports."—C. W. Dornville-Fife, *Great states of South America*, pp. 211-212.—In 1914 the estimated population was 2,003,579.

ALSO IN: A. H. Keane, *Central and South America* (*Stanford's compendium of geography*, v. 2).—N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of today*, p. 3.

**Aborigines and their culture.**—"Long before the dawn of written history this portion of Central America was inhabited by a nation skilled in the arts of weaving by hand, carving, and metal-work. When, in the sixteenth century, the Spanish adventurers came from over the sea, they discovered, in ruined temple and beside stately monolith, priceless treasures of antiquity. Exquisitely carved vases, copper ornaments covered with hieroglyphics, curious images and strange gods of gold and silver, all told them tales of an early civiliza-

tion which historians and antiquarians believe to have resembled that which flourished under the famous Incas of the Bolivian tableland. . . . Their temples were magnificently decorated with pictures and altars of carved stone, adorned with finely worked ornaments. The tiled floors were covered with rich carpets, and the masonry of these holy edifices must have called for the united labour of many hundreds, so splendidly was it fashioned. The true origin of this strange race of Guatemalan Indians is a mystery the solution of which lies hidden deep in the realms of myth and fable. Some believe that they are the descendants of the yellow men, whom ancient tradition asserts to be the first settlers in the land. Certain it is that the Indians can understand and be understood by the Chinese with more facility than is the case with any other stranger race. We must remember, too, that the sacred book, 'Popol Vuh,' . . . states that primitive man was made of clay; thus confirming the universal tradition that the primitive American was formed of red or yellow earth. . . . In times very remote there came down from the north a people called the Nahoas, whose great chief was Quetzalcoatl—that is, 'the serpent with the plumes of the Quetzal'—or Gucumatz, as he is called in 'Popol Vuh,' 'the serpent with the skin of green and azure.' This Gucumatz succeeded in overthrowing Xibalbag, another great chief then ruling in the land, whose subjects were scattered broadcast. Some went northward to Mexico, and, when famine drove them thence, returned, after some four hundred years, and founded, in the seventh century, the kingdom of Hucytlat, in Honduras, whose principal city, Copantl, is now represented by the strange ruins of Copan. Another inroad from the north appears to have resulted in the foundation of the tribe known as the Quichés, a powerful race, to whom the other neighbouring tribes in turn submitted. The Quiché dominions gradually grew in extent, until they stretched from Mexico to the Pacific Ocean, and eastward as far as Lake Izabal. We do not know very much about the history of these people, but from the chief source of our information, their most interesting sacred book, 'Popol Vuh,' they appear to have had a certain civilisation and an established feudal system comparable only with that of mediæval Europe."—C. W. Domville-Fife, *Guatemala and the states of Central America*, pp. 13-15.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: ABORIGINES; QUICHÉS AND CAKCHIQUELS; MAYAS.

1524-1776.—Conquest by Alvarado, the lieutenant of Cortés.—Settlement.—"Pedro de Alvarado, a lieutenant of Cortez, was the first to attempt the conquest of Guatemala, then inhabited by the Quichés, Caribs, and other warlike Indian tribes. Due to constant strife among the natives the Spaniards easily succeeded in conquering and enslaving them, and in the year 1524 Alvarado, in order to firmly establish his authority, had the two kings of the Quichés executed. Guatemala, which at that time comprised all the territory now known as Central America, as well as the Mexican States of Chiapas and Yucatan, became a Captain-generalcy, at first independent, but later under the authority of the Viceroy of Mexico. In July, 1527, Alvarado founded the city of Guatemala. This first city was short lived and in the year 1542 it was rebuilt on the site of what is now the old city, which was itself in time destroyed by an earthquake in the year 1773. In 1776 the present city was laid out at a site 25 miles northeast of La Antigua."—*General descriptive data prepared*

in June, 1900 (*International Bureau of American Republics*, p. 3).—See also MEXICO: 1521-1524.

1776-1821.—Under Spanish domination.—Up to the year 1821, the history of Guatemala is purely that of its colonization by Spain; this process was marked by extreme severity on the part of the Spaniards, whole tribes being entirely wiped out and others exploited for the advantage of the conquerors.

ALSO IN: C. W. Domville-Fife, *Guatemala and the states of Central America*, pp. 28-36.—N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of today*, pp. 13-14.

1821-1894.—Separation from Spain.—Brief annexation to Mexico.—Contests over Central American federation.—Wars of the states. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871; 1871-1885; 1886-1894.

1824.—First congress of South American republics. See LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830.

1859.—Boundary treaty with British Honduras. See HONDURAS, BRITISH: 1850-1859.

1885-1898.—Presidency of Manuel Lisandro Barillas.—Dictatorship of José Maria Reina Barrios.—His assassination.—Rufino Barrios 1783-1885 was succeeded by Manuel Lisandro Barillas, a man of kind and benevolent instincts but ill fitted to control a turbulent republic like Guatemala. He at once withdrew the decree of federation which had proven so ill-timed and made peace with the other republics. Little was accomplished by him, although he attempted to continue the reform policies of Barrios. He was elected for and served for one full term, but was defeated for re-election by a nephew of the elder Barrios. This soured him and from that time until his death he was a more or less turbulent factor in the Guatemala political situation. . . . Barillas had figured that the malcontents would flock to him as soon as he entered the country. He had sacrificed his all, and even his daughters had sold their diamonds to purchase guns and ammunition for his campaign. The President of Mexico compelled him to leave their territory, and President Cabrera rushed troops to the border, so that the movement was a fiasco. Had it not been for this, the result might have been different, for the discontented in Guatemala at that time numbered many. Ex-President Barillas was killed in the City of Mexico on the 7th day of April, 1907, aged sixty-seven years. . . . The successor of Barillas as president, José Maria Reina Barrios, served only a few years [1892-1898] and developed no marked policy. He was a man of energy and strong will, but did not possess the ability or strength of character of his uncle. During the first few years of his term he gave the country a fairly good government and worked much for the prosperity of Guatemala. Near the close of his first term, however, he sought by legislative enactment to extend his term of office for five years, and a series of revolutions followed."—N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of today*, pp. 194-196.—In June, 1897, President Barrios, whose six years term in the presidency would have expired the following March, fearing defeat in the approaching election, forcibly dissolved the National Assembly and proclaimed a dictatorship. Three months later a revolt was organized by General Prospero Morales; but Barrios crushed it with merciless energy, and a veritable reign of terror ensued. In February, 1898, the career of the dictator was cut short by an assassin, who shot him to avenge the death of a wealthy citizen. Don Juan Aparicio, whom Barrios had executed for expressing sympathy with the

objects of the rebellion of the previous year. Control of the government was then taken by Dr. Cabrera, who had been at the head of the party which supported Barrios. A rising under Morales was again attempted, but failed. Morales, in a dying condition at the time, was betrayed and captured. Cabrera, with no more opposition, was elected president for six years.

1890.—Represented at first international American congress.—Controversy over Barrundia. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890; ASYLUM, RIGHT OF: Right of Asylum on merchant ships; CENTRAL AMERICA: 1886-1894.

1898-1901.—Period of progress and prosperity.—Accession of Manuel Estrada Cabrera, first civilian president.—“The *Premier Designado*, which corresponds to the position of Vice-President under our form of government, at the time of the assassination of Reina Barrios, was Manuel Estrada Cabrera. He was a lawyer by profession and the first civilian to hold that office since the establishment of the republic. Upon his accession to the presidency he found the country involved in many serious complications. The foreign obligations were threatening to precipitate trouble with international entanglements, and the new President at once exerted every effort to place this indebtedness in a more favourable condition, and to organize the finances in such a way that the legitimate demands of creditors might be met. . . . His legal training stood him in good stead. The finances of the country were reorganized, foreign creditors were appeased, and, after the first few years, for he was elected to a full term in September of the same year, the way to permanent peace and prosperity seemed to open up wide.”—N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of today*, pp. 197-198.

1901-1906.—Participation in second and third international conferences of American republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; 1906.

1902.—Treaty of compulsory arbitration between Guatemala, and Nicaragua, Salvador, Honduras and Costa Rica. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1904.—Represented at peace conference held at San José, Costa Rica. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1904.

1906.—Guatemala, Salvador and Honduras at war.—Ended by mediation of the United States and Mexico. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1906.

1907.—Washington peace conference.—General treaty of peace and amity.—Central American court of justice. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1907.

1907-1917.—Attempts on President Cabrera's life.—Reign of terror.—Cabrera assumes dictatorial powers.—Order restored.—“In 1907 an attempt was made upon the life of President Cabrera by exploding a mine, but this failed. Severe measures were adopted by the officials, and several of those suspected of implication in the plot were put to death, while a larger number were imprisoned *incommunicado*—that is, without privilege of communication with friends or counsel. Among this number were several foreigners who were suspected of designs against the President. Again, in April, 1908, another attack was made upon the President by some of his soldiers and he narrowly escaped death by shooting. The conditions that followed have been described as a ‘regime of terror’ because of the many executions and incarcerations. . . . [When Mexico] wanted him to give up certain persons for trial on the

charge of conspiracy in the murder of ex-President Barillas, which had occurred on Mexican soil, Cabrera absolutely declined to grant this request, and his refusal almost resulted in the breaking off of all diplomatic relations between the two countries. . . . [With this exception, Cabrera] consistently refrained from becoming involved in the various conflicts that have raged between Nicaragua and its neighbours, and [was] . . . an active supporter of the Central American peace conference which was brought about by the influence of the United States.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 200-201.—“The favorable status enjoyed by the Guatemalan affairs during 1908 . . . are dwelt upon in a message delivered by President Estrada Cabrera to the National Assembly on March 1 of the latter year. A surplus is credited to public revenues and increased earnings noted for various public enterprises. The new mining code, promulgated in June, 1908, was productive of augmented activity in this field, and increased yields of bananas, rubber, sugar, and hard woods are features of the year's industrial life. The gathering of medical men of the Western Continent in the capital of Guatemala during the month of August was made the occasion of many notable celebrations, both of a social and official character. That the Pan-American Medical Congress as a feature of international development is fully appreciated is evidenced by the utterances of the delegates. . . . Especially appropriate remarks were made at the opening of the Congress by the delegate from the United States, who called attention to the fact that the first Congress was held in Washington to commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. Representatives were present from practically all the countries of Latin America. Another important event of the year was the inauguration in the city of Guatemala on September 15 of the International Central American Bureau, in accordance with the Washington Convention of December 20, 1907. The personnel of the Bureau embraces representatives from the five Republics of Central America. The Government is taking steps to establish adequate hygienic measures in the country through the opening of a National Pasteur Institute in Quezaltenango and by the requirement that entry into Government employ and also into certain specified private enterprises shall be made only by persons who have been vaccinated. The sanitation of Puerto Barrios is another organized effort in the same direction. This port is the Caribbean terminus of the country's interoceanic railway, which was completed and opened in January, 1908, with imposing ceremonies. The development of railway communication with the adjacent Republics is another forecast of progress in this enterprising Republic, measures for connection by rail with the Salvador and Mexican frontiers being the subject of recent contracts [written in 1909]. On February 15, 1909, the Government ratified many of the conventions adopted by the Third International Conference of American States held in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, covering the status of naturalized citizens who return to their own country after a foreign residence, international law, patents of invention, trade-marks, and literary and artistic property.”—*General descriptive data prepared in June, 1909 (International Bureau of American Republics, pp. 6-8)*.—From 1909 to 1917, Cabrera with the strong hand of the dictator restrained the turbulent elements within the republic and maintained friendly relations with the neighboring states. The preservation of peace and order

gave impetus to considerable economic development.

ALSO IN: D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America*, pp. 52-56.

1910.—Represented at fourth international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

1913.—Arbitration treaty with the United States. See LATIN AMERICA: 1913.

1915.—Pan-American conference. See U.S.A.: 1915 (August-October).

1917-1918.—Severance of diplomatic relations with Germany.—Guatemala declared her intention of entering the war on the side of the Allies. On April 27, 1917, diplomatic relations were severed with Germany. On April 22, 1918, the government of Guatemala announced that Guatemala occupied the same relationship to the belligerents which the American government had adopted. It was announced some days later that the republic would participate with the United States in the war against the Central Powers.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1917-1918: Central America in the World War.

1919.—Conference at Paris.—Treaty. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1920.—Revolt against President Cabrera.—Overthrow of President Cabrera.—Carlos Herrera elected president.—New government recognized by the United States.—“A revolt broke out on April 7 against Estrada Cabrera, President of Guatemala since 1898. . . . [A movement against the methods of the dictator had been gathering force since 1917. The immediate] cause of the trouble was the agitation for a Central American union of the five republics of Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Salvador and Costa Rica. Such a union would have terminated the rule of the dictator, and he began making wholesale arrests of all who favored it. A large number of college students were thrown into prison for favoring the union, and many are reported to have been executed. There had been riots and other disturbances, ruthlessly put down by troops since early in March. Finally the Unionists gained control of Guatemala City in spite of Cabrera's army, the largest in Central America. The President . . . ordered an attack on the city. . . . He began shelling it on April 8 (1920) and for three days shells continued to fall in the city, many non-combatants being killed. The whole country by this time had joined the revolutionists, who formed a new Government with Carlos Herrera as President. . . . On the night of April 11 a conference was held by both sides at the American Legation in Guatemala City and an armistice between the Unionists and the forces of President Cabrera was signed. . . . Señor Cabrera was formally deposed from the Presidency on April 17 by the National Assembly, and Dr. Carlos Herrera was named as President. On the same morning the Cabrera forces near Guatemala City surrendered and Cabrera himself was taken prisoner. The new Government at once began functioning, and perfect order was reported throughout Guatemala.”—*New York Times Current History*, May, 1920, pp. 261-262.—In an official proclamation issued by the state department at Washington the new government in Guatemala was recognized by the United States on June 24 “as the constitutional successor of the Government of Estrada Cabrera.” On July 25, Herrera, having been duly elected, took the oath of office and pledged himself to endeavor to effect a union of the Central

American states; he took the oath of office before the National Assembly on September 15. On the 29th President Wilson received Dr. Julio Binachi as Guatemalan minister to the United States, representing the new (Herrera) government.

1921.—Central American Union created.—Bank proposals.—Ex-president Cabrera held prisoner.—Herrera government overthrown in revolution.—As a preliminary step to the foundation of a Central American Union the Guatemalan government in January abolished all trade restrictions with the republics of Nicaragua, Salvador, Costa Rica and Honduras. On January 20 it was announced that the standing army of 15,000 men would be reduced to 5,000; at the same time a new law was passed prohibiting illiterates from participating in political contests. The pact establishing a Central American Union was signed on January 22. During March-April the export duty on sugar was abolished and proposals invited for a concession to establish a bank with a capital of 10,000,000 gold pesos and the privilege of issuing thirty millions in currency, the notes to be redeemable at sight in national money or American dollars. Since his downfall in 1920, the former president, Cabrera, had been held in prison. On May 9 it was reported that Guadalupe Cabrera, his eighteen-year-old daughter, had committed suicide by shooting, in order to call the world's attention to her father's continued imprisonment, despite the Guatemalan government's pledge to guarantee his life, liberty and property. When the Provisional Federal Council of the Central American Union began its functions on June 17, the Guatemalan delegate Vicente Martinez was named president of the Council. Early in August a revolt headed by General Isidro Valdez was quickly suppressed. An uprising of Indians in the department of Zacapa was also put down. On October 10 the Union was formally constituted, and Guatemala, Salvador and Honduras ceased to be separate entities. Elections for deputies for the Union Congress were held in those countries on the 30th. On December 5 another revolution broke out, in the course of which the Herrera government was overthrown, the president and his cabinet taken prisoners, and a provisional government under General Orellana proclaimed.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1921; 1921 (October); 1921 (December).

1922.—Orellana president.—Collapse of the Union.—Amnesty for political prisoners.—Release of Cabrera.—The Central American Union was destined to have a short existence. On January 7 Orellana took the oath of office as president and formed a cabinet; senators were elected to represent Guatemala in the federal state. On January 29, however, the new Union flag was hauled down in the capital and replaced by the Guatemalan flag. The Union was defunct. On February 15 Orellana was elected constitutional president, not without some bloodshed. He opened parliament on March 2, and in April ordered the release of political prisoners after investigation of their cases. In a message to Congress he asked for a general amnesty for all political prisoners, but this clemency met with considerable opposition. The United States recognized the Orellana government on April 15, a procedure which reversed the rule of President Wilson's State Department not to recognize governments in Latin America established by force. On July 4, President Orellana decreed an amnesty for all prisoners committed for military offences. In August ex-president Cabrera was removed from prison to a private house owing to illness.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1922 (January-February).

1922 (October).—Attitude towards Tri-Party Treaty.—On October 5th, the Guatemalan government “announced it would not become a party to the treaty signed recently [August 22] aboard the United State cruiser *Tacoma* by Nicaragua, Salvador and Honduras. . . . Guatemala says she is still abiding by the treaty of 1907 signed at Washington by the Central American Governments and does not wish ‘to lend herself to entangling alliances and difficulties embraced in the treaty signed aboard the cruiser.’”—*New York World*, Oct. 5, 1922.—See also HONDURAS: 1922.

See also CENTRAL AMERICA; COSTA RICA; HONDURAS: LATIN AMERICA; SALVADOR.

ALSO IN: N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of today*.—A. C. and A. P. Maudslay, *A glimpse at Guatemala*.—C. W. Domville-Fife, *Guatemala and the states of Central America*.—T. Brigham, *Guatemala, the land of the Quetzal*.—C. H. Stephan, *Le Guatemala économique*.

GUAYACANES, Encounter at (1916). See SANTO DOMINGO: 1908-1918.

GUAYAMA, town of southern Porto Rico, near the coast; population, about 8,320; scene of a battle during the Spanish-American War. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-August; Porto Rico).

GUAYANAS INDIANS. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

GUAYAQUIL, Battle of (1906). See ECUADOR: 1901-1906.

GUAYCURAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

GUCHKOV, Alexander (1862- ), Russian politician, founder of Octobrist party. See RUSSIA: 1905-1906; 1917 (July); 1917: Disintegrating propaganda.

GUCK, or COCO, GROUP, extensive linguistic group of tribes in Brazil, on the north of the Amazon, extending as far as the Orinoco, has been called the Guc., or Coco, group. “There is no common name for the group, that here used meaning a father’s brother, a very important personage in these tribes. The Guck group embraces a large number of tribes. . . . We need enumerate but few. The Cuyriri or Kiriri (also known as Sabaja, Pimenteiros, etc.), number about 3,000. Some of them are half civilized, some are wild, and, without restraint, wander about, especially in the mountains in the Province of Pernambuco. The Araicu live on the lower Amazon and the Tocantins. Next come the Manaos, who have a prospect of maintaining themselves longer than most tribes. With them is connected the legend of the golden lord who washed the gold dust from his limbs in a lake [see EL DORADO]. . . . The Uirina, Baré, and Cariay live on the Rio Negro, the Cunimaré on the Jurua, the Maranha on the Jutay. Whether the Chamicoco on the right bank of the Paraguay, belong to the Guck is uncertain. Among the tribes which, though very much mixed, are still to be enumerated with the Guck, are the Tecuna and the Passé. In language the Tecunas show many similarities to the Gês; they live on the western borders of Brazil, and extend in Equador to the Pataça. Among them occur peculiar masques which strongly recall those found on the northwest coast of North America. . . . In the same district belong the Uaupe, who are noticeable from the fact that they live in barracks, indeed the only tribe in South America in which this custom appears. The communistic houses of the Uaupe are called ‘malloca;’ they are buildings of about 120 feet long, 75 feet wide, and 30 feet high, in which live a band of about 100 persons in 12 families, each of the latter, however, in its own room. . . . Finally, complex tribes of the most different nationality are

comprehended under names which indicate only a common way of life, but are also incorrectly used as ethnographic names. These are Caripuna, Mura, and Miranha, all of whom live in the neighborhood of the Madeira River. Of the Caripuna or Jaûn-Avô (both terms signify ‘watermen’), who are mixed with Quichua blood, it is related that they not only ate human flesh, but even cured it for preservation. . . . Formerly the Mura . . . were greatly feared; this once powerful and populous tribe, however, was almost entirely destroyed at the end of the last century by the Mundruco; the remnant is scattered. . . . The Mura are the gypsies among the Indians on the Amazon; and by all the other tribes they are regarded with a certain degree of contempt as pariahs. . . . Much to be feared, even among the Indians, are also the Miranha (i.e., rovers, vagabonds), a still populous tribe on the right bank of the Japura, who seem to know nothing but war, robbery, murder, and man-hunting.”—J. S. Kingsley, ed., *Standard natural history*, v. 6, pp. 245-248.

ALSO IN: F. Keller, *Amazon and Madeira rivers*, ch. 2, 6.—H. W. Bates, *Naturalist on the River Amazon*, ch. 7-13.

GUDEA, high priest of Lagash. See BABYLONIA: Historical sources.

GUDRUN, German epic. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1050-1350.

GUEBRIANT, Jean Baptiste Budes, Comte de (1602-1643), French marshal. See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

GUELDERLAND, Gelderland, or Guelders, an eastern province of the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: Map.

1079-1473.—Under the House of Nassau.—Acquisition by the duke of Burgundy.—“The arable extent of Guelderland, its central position, and the number of its ancient towns, rendered it at all times of great importance. The men of Zutphen and Arnheim were foremost among the claimants of civic freedom; and at Tiel and Bommel industry struck early root, and struggled bravely to maturity through countless storms of feudal violence and rapine. Guelderland was constituted a county, or earldom, by Henry III [emperor, 1079], and bestowed on Otho, count of Nassau; and thus originated the influence of that celebrated family in the affairs of the Netherlands. Three centuries later the province was created a duchy of the empire. Vigour and ability continued to distinguish the house of Nassau, and they were destined to become eventually the most popular and powerful family in the nation. Apart from their influence, however, Guelderland hardly occupies as important a place in the general history of the country as Utrecht or Holland.” In 1473, when the House of Burgundy had acquired sovereignty over most of the Netherland states, Charles the Bold asserted himself of a domestic quarrel between the reigning prince of Guelderland and his heir “to purchase the duchy from the former for 92,000 crowns of gold. The old duke died before the pecuniary portion of the bargain was actually completed; and, the rightful heir being detained in prison, the grasping lord of Burgundy entered into possession of his purchase, for which no part of the price was ever paid.”—W. T. McCullagh, *Industrial history of free nations*, v. 2, ch. 8, 10.

1703.—Taken by imperialists. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1713.—Spanish province ceded to Prussia. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

GUELFs, or GUELFs, AND GHIBELLINES: German origin of these factions and

their feuds.—On the death (1125) of Henry V, the last of the Franconian dynasty of Germanic emperors, Lothaire, Duke of Saxony, was elected emperor, in rather a tumultuous and irregular manner. Lothaire, and the Saxons generally, were embittered in enmity against the house of Franconia, and against the new family—the Suabian or Hohenstauffen—which succeeded by inheritance, through the female line, to the Franconian claims. It was the object of his reign, moreover, to pass the imperial crown from his own head to that of his son-in-law, Henry the Proud. Hence arose a persecution of the Suabian family, under Lothaire, which stirred deep passions. Henry the Proud, for whose succession Lothaire labored, but vainly, united in himself several ancient streams of noble blood. He “was fourth in descent from Welf [or Guef], son of Azon marquis of Este, by Cunegonda, heiress of a distinguished family, the Welfs of Altorf in Suabia.” His ancestor, Welf, had been invested with the duchy of Bavaria. He himself represented, by right of his mother, the ancient ducal house of Saxony; and, by favor of his imperial father-in-law, the two powerful duchies, Bavaria and Saxony, were both conferred on him. He also received Hanover and Brunswick as the dowry of his wife. “On the death of Lothaire in 1138 the partisans of the house of Suabia made a hasty and irregular election of Conrad [one of the Hohenstauffen princes], in which the Saxon faction found itself obliged to acquiesce. The new emperor availed himself of the jealousy which Henry the Proud’s agrandizement had excited. Under pretence that two duchies could not legally be held by the same person, Henry was summoned to resign one of them, and on his refusal, the diet pronounced that he had incurred a forfeiture of both. Henry made but little resistance, and before his death, which happened soon afterwards, saw himself stripped of all his hereditary as well as acquired possessions. [See also AUSTRIA: 805-1246.] Upon this occasion the famous names of Guef [or Guef] and Ghibelin were first heard, which were destined to keep alive the flame of civil dissension in far distant countries, and after their meaning had been forgotten. The Guef, or Welf, were, as I have said, the ancestors of Henry, and the name has become a sort of patronymic in his family. The word Ghibelin is derived from Wibelung, a town in Franconia, whence the emperors of that line are said to have sprung. The house of Suabia were considered in Germany as representing that of Franconia; as the Guef may, without much impropriety, be deemed to represent the Saxon line.”—H. Hallam, *Middle Ages*, v. 2, ch. 5.—Sir Andrew Halliday, in his “Annals of the House of Hanover,” traces the genealogy of the Guef with great minuteness and precision—with more minuteness, perhaps, in some remote particulars, and more precision, than seems consistent with entire credibility. He carries the line back to Edico, king or prince of the Heruli, or Rugii, or Scyrii,—the stock from which came Odoacer, who overturned the Western Roman empire and made himself the first king of Italy. Edico, who was subject to Attila, and the favorite adviser of the king of the Huns, is thought to have had a son or brother named Guef or Welf, who fell in battle with the Ostrogoths. It is to him that Sir Andrew is disposed to assign the honor of being the historical chief of the great family of the Guef. If not from this shadowy Guef, it is from another of like name in the next generation—a brother of Odoacer—that he sees the family spring, and the story of its wide-branching and many-rooted growth, in Friuli, Altdorf, Ba-

varia, old Saxony, Brunswick, Hanover,—and thence, more royally than ever, in England,—is as interesting as a narrative of highly complicated genealogy can be.—A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*.—From the Guef uncertainly indicated above were descended two Marquesses of Este, “successively known in German and Italian story as the first and second of that name. . . . Azo, the second Marquess of Este in Italy (born 995, died 1097), the head of the Italian (junior) branch of Guef [see ESTE, HOUSE OF], married Cunigunda, the sole heiress of the German Guef of Altdorf, thus uniting in his family the blood, wealth, and power of both branches of the old Guef, and becoming the common father of the later German and Italian princes of the name of Guef. No wonder, then, that he was elected by the Emperor, Henry III., as his representative in Italy. . . . Cunigunda, the first wife of Azo II., bore him one son, Guef, who was known in German history as Guef VI. He succeeded to his mother’s titles and vast estates on her death, A.D. 1055, and to those of his father, A.D. 1097. . . . Henry IV. invested him with the duchy of Bavaria, A.D. 1071—a title first assumed 170 years before (A.D. 900) by his almost mythological ancestor, Henry of the Golden Chariot.” This Guef VI. was the grandfather of Henry the Proud, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, referred to above.—P. M. Thornton, *Brunswick accession*, ch. 1.—See also SAXONY: 1178-1183; GERMANY: 1138-1197.

**Beginning of the strife in Italy between the two factions.**—Progress of the struggle. See ITALY: 1183-1250; 1215; 1250-1520; 1310-1313; 1313-1330; FLORENCE: 1215-1250; 1248-1278; 1289; 1358; MILAN: 1277-1447; PISA: 1063-1293; VERONA: 1236-1259; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval league of Lombardy.

ALSO IN: O. Browning, *Guef and Ghibellines*.

**GUELFs, White and Black (Bianchi and Neri)**, temporary division of the party in Florence. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300; 1301-1313.

**GUELFH**, city in Ontario, Canada, noted for its agricultural college. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Canada.

**GUELFHs**. See GUELFs.

**GUELFHs OF HANOVER**, Order of.—“The Hanoverian troops having much distinguished themselves at the battle of Waterloo, George IV. (then prince regent) determined to found an order of merit which might, with especial propriety, be conferred upon such of them as deserved the distinction, and the 12th of August, 1815, was fixed upon as the date of its foundation. By the second statute, the Order is inseparably annexed to the possession of the Hanoverian crown, by vesting the grand-mastership in the sovereign of that country for the time being.”—C. R. Dodd, *Manual of dignities*, pt. 3.

**GUÉMAPPE**, town in France taken by the British in 1918 during the Cambrai-St. Quentin battle. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: 1.

**GUERANDE**, Treaty of (1365). See BRITANY: 1341-1365.

**GUERICKE**, Otto von (1602-1686), German physicist and experimenter in electricity. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Early experiments.

**GUÉRIN**, Jules (d. 1910), French anti-Semitic agitator. See FRANCE: 1899-1900 (August-January).

**GUERNSEY**, one of the Channel islands. See CHANNEL ISLANDS; JERSEY AND GUERNSEY.

**GUERRA**, José Nestor Gutierrez, Bolivian statesman. See BOLIVIA: 1917; 1920-1921.



**GUERRA DOS CABANOS**, rebellion in Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1825-1865.

**GUERRA GRANDE**, Uruguay. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

**GUERRERO**, Manuel Amador (1834-1909), president of Panama, 1904. See PANAMA: 1904.

**GUERRERO**, Vincent (1782-1831), Mexican general. Joined the patriots, 1810; united his forces with those of Iturbide, 1821; member of the executive junta, 1823-1824; vice president, 1824-1828; elected president, Jan., 1829, but at end of the year forced to retire to the south where he kept up an armed resistance until captured and shot.

**GUERRERO**, state in Mexico where a revolt occurred in 1910. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

**GUERRILLAS**, a term of Spanish origin, derived from 'guerilla', signifying little or petty warfare, and applied to small, irregular bands of troops, carrying on war against an enemy by harassing, destructive raids.

**GUERZONI**, Giuseppe (1835-1885), Italian writer. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1860-1914.

**GUESDE**, Jules Basile (1845- ), French socialist. He established the so-called Guesdist wing of the Socialists, based on the philosophy of collectivism; sat almost constantly in the Chamber of Deputies; minister without portfolio in the war cabinet, 1914; minister of state in Briand's cabinet, 1915; favored the Third Internationale, 1921. —See also SOCIALISM: 1871-1904.

**GUESHOV INCIDENT**. See BULGARIA: 1908-1909.

**GUEUX**, name adopted by Dutch in 1566 to oppose Spanish oppression of the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566.

**GUGLIELMI**, Pietro (1727-1804), Italian composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1730-1816: Italian.

**GUIANA**: Geographic description.—Area.—

**Population**.—Guiana, a region on the eastern coast of South America, north of Brazil and east of Venezuela (see LATIN AMERICA: Map), is the only portion of the continent still held by European powers. "The English occupy the extreme west and to them undoubtedly belongs the lion's share; British Guiana (q.v.) comprising the whole basin of the Essequibo, besides that of the Demerara and Berbice rivers, and the left bank of the Corentyne [for a total of 90,000 square miles]. It is the most flourishing, agriculturally and commercially, of all the divisions of the region. To the east of the British section lies Dutch Guiana, or Surinam [of 46,000 square miles]. French Guiana [with its 31,000 square miles] comes next extending to the northern boundary of Brazil, on the Atlantic sea-board, and containing the well-known penal settlement of Cayenne."—H. W. Bates, ed., *Stanford's compendium of geography and travel, Central and South America*, pp. 436-437.—In 1918, the estimated population of French Guiana, and Dutch Guiana was 26,325, and 107,827 respectively; and in 1921 British Guiana had an estimated population of 297,691.

**Resources**.—The chief exports from British Guiana are sugar, timber, rice, gold, rum, rubber, balata, coffee, cocoanuts, diamonds, cattle, and molacuit—a cattle food. In 1920, about 170,000 acres were under cultivation including 69,530 acres in sugar-cane; and 55,250 acres under rice. Gold production amounted to 12,600 ounces valued at £46,803½; and the output of diamonds was 39,362½ carats valued at £211,829. French Guiana has immense forests rich in many kinds of timber; but the most important industry is gold mining (placer). There is little agriculture in the colony; only about 7,500 acres being under cultivation.

The principal exports are gold, timber, hides and essence. Agriculture is the chief means of subsistence in Dutch Guiana and the principal exports are cocoa, coffee, sugar, rice and gold. The production of gold in 1920 amounted to 458,700 grammes valued at 706,561 guilders. Exploitation of the forest products has been exceedingly difficult.

**Aboriginal inhabitants**. See CARIBS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Amazon area.

**1498-1500**.—**Early voyagers**.—From 1498 to 1500 Guiana was sighted by Columbus, Ojeda, and Vespucci; and touched by Pinzon, in a voyage along the coast. See AMERICA: 1490-1500.

**16th century**.—**Search for El Dorado**. See EL DORADO.

**1580-1814**.—**Dutch, French and English settlements and conquests**.—"There was one European nation which was not likely to hunt for a golden city, when gold was to be earned by plain and matter of fact commerce. The Dutch had as early as 1542 established a systematic if contraband trade with the Spanish Main; and in 1580 they began to settle in Guiana by planting a depot on the river Pomeroon, in what is now the county of Essequibo. In 1599 they built two forts at the mouth of the Amazon, but were driven out by the Portuguese; and about 1613 they established a colony on the Essequibo, building the fort of 'Kyk over al,' 'Look over all,' on an island where the Massaruni flows into the Essequibo. The colony was founded by Zealand merchants, was known as Nova Zeelandia, and came under the control of the Netherlands West India Company, which was incorporated in 1621. Shortly afterwards colonisation began further to the east on the Berbice river. The founder was a Flushing merchant, Van Peere by name; he founded his settlement about 1624, and he held his rights under contract with the Chamber of Zealand. . . . Thus was the present province of British Guiana colonised by Dutchmen. . . . While English discovery was attracted to the west and Orinoco, the first attempts at English settlement were far to the east on the Wuyapoco or Oyapok river. Here, in 1604, while Raleigh was in prison. Captain Charles Leigh founded a colony at the mouth of the river. . . . In 1609 Robert Harcourt of Stanton Harcourt in Oxfordshire took up the work in which Leigh had failed. . . . In 1613 he obtained from King James a grant of 'all that part of Guiana or continent of America lying between the river of Amazones and the river of Dessequebe,' which was not actually possessed or inhabited by any Christian power in friendship with England. . . . In 1619 a scheme was started for an Amazon Company, the leading spirit in which was Captain Roger North. . . . The company was fortunate enough to secure the powerful patronage of the Duke of Buckingham. Harcourt threw in his lot with them, and on the 19th of May, 1627, a royal grant was made to the Duke of Buckingham and 55 other adventurers, including the Earl of Pembroke and Montgomery, who were incorporated under the title of 'the governor and company of noblemen and gentlemen of England for the plantation of Guiana.' The Duke of Buckingham was Governor, North was Deputy-Governor, and the grant included the 'royal' river of the Amazon. For about two years the company did some solid work, sending out four ships and 200 colonists; an attempt was then made in 1629 to bring the territory covered by their grant immediately under royal protection, and upon its failure their efforts at colonisation appear to have gradually died away.

The English were not the only Europeans who tried their hand at settlement in the east of Guiana. . . . In 1613, 160 French families settled in Cayenne. The first colony failed, but in 1624 and 1626 fresh attempts were made a little to the west on the rivers Sinamari and Cananama; and in 1643 a Rouen Company, incorporated under the name of the Cape North Company, sent out three or four hundred men to Cayenne under the Sieur de Bretigny. Bretigny ruined the scheme by savage ill-treatment of Indians and colonists alike, and the remains of the settlement were absorbed by a new and more powerful Normandy Company." This failed in its turn and gave way to a "French Equinoctial Company," organized under the auspices of Colbert, which sent out 1,200 colonists and fairly established them at Cayenne. Colbert, in 1665, placed the colony, "with all the other French possessions in the West Indies, under one strong West India Company. Such were the beginnings of colonisation in the west and east of Guiana. Between them lies the district now known as Dutch Guiana or Surinam." The first settlement in this was made in 1630 by 60 English colonists, under a Captain Marshall. The colony failed, and was revived in 1650 by Lord Willoughby, then representing the fugitive King Charles II., as Governor of Barbadoes. In 1663, after the Restoration, Lord Willoughby, in conjunction with Lawrence Hyde, second son of the Earl of Clarendon, received Letters Patent "constituting them lords and proprietors of the district between the Copenam and the Maroni (which included the Surinam river) under the name of Willoughby Land." Soon afterwards "war broke out with the Dutch and in March 1667 the colony capitulated to the Dutch admiral Crynseenn. The peace of Breda between Great Britain and the Netherlands, which was signed in the following July, provided that either nation should retain the conquests which it had made by the preceding 10th of May, and under this arrangement Surinam was ceded to the Netherlands, while New York became a British possession. . . . Thus ended for many long years all British connexion with Guiana. . . . When at length the English returned [in 1796 and 1803, during the subjection of the Dutch to Napoleon, and while they were forced to take part in his wars], they came as conquerors rather than as settlers and by a strange perversity of history, the original Dutch colonies on the Berbice and Essequibo became a British dependency, while the Netherlands retain to this day the part of Guiana which Lord Willoughby marked out for his own." These arrangements were settled in the convention between Great Britain and the Netherlands signed at London in 1814.—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, v. 2, sect. 2, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: H. G. Dalton, *History of British Guiana*.

1814-1834.—Slavery agitation.—The period of 1814 to 1834 was chiefly remarkable for the agitation on the part of the negro slaves in Guiana, for emancipation. Having heard that the question of abolition of slavery was under discussion in England the slaves took the matter into their own hands and instituted attacks on houses and property on the east coast of Demerara. The case of the missionary, John Smith, attracted attention in England, and though found guilty of fostering the rising by his teachings in special court-martial, the death sentence was remitted.

1834-1900.—Problem of labor supply in British Guiana.—Abolition of slavery.—Im-

ported labor.—System of importing coolies.—"After the slave trade was abolished by Great Britain [1834] other countries still carried it on, even when their Governments were supposed to discountenance it. Several vessels brought Africans to Surinam, notwithstanding the reports and protests of the British consuls. The fact was, the demand for labour justified the risk of execution for piracy. In the British colony the want was quite urgent, but no illicit slave-trading took place. Protests were, however, made against the law that prevented labourers from being removed from one colony to another. Prices were very high where the demand was great and correspondingly lower in depressed West Indian islands. Why should the trade be hampered? Here in Demerara £100 or £150 was asked for an able-bodied man; in some of the islands he was worth about half as much. But the law prevented removal. Now came the British emancipation. Immediately the hours of work were reduced from 10 to 7½ per day—a reduction of one-fourth. Already most of the plantations of cotton and coffee were abandoned to concentrate labour on sugar estates; now ruin stared the planter in the face, for in four years the apprentice would be entirely free. When this critical time arrived the labour supply failed; women no longer went into the field, men only worked when they pleased, and at extortionate wages. More than half the plantations were abandoned, and the others worked at a loss in hopes that immigration might prevent total ruin. Already a few negroes had been brought from the West Indies, but nothing like a supply was obtainable. Some Africans from condemned slavers also helped a little, and an attempt was made to get Kroom boys. But the Exeter Hall contingent would not allow recruiting of labourers in Africa for fear it might develop another kind of slave trade. Suggestions were made to bring Irish and Germans, but without success, only a few people coming who were quite unfit to labour in the field. Maltese were tried, but without success, and were sent back. Madeirans, who were then suffering very much from the result of the vine disease, were brought in some numbers but they could not labour in the field. They, however, became gardeners, pedlars, and shopkeepers, their descendants now forming a very important element in the population. Finally, coolies from India were brought under engagement. At last the best labourer had been found, but the planter waited a long time before he got a proper supply. The first coolie immigrants from Calcutta came as strangers to a strange land. The planter knew nothing of their habits, customs, or language, and could only leave them to their sirdar who, it was said, beat the coolie and drove him into the field whether sick or well. No one seems to have thought of the care necessary during acclimatisation or the sympathy required by a stranger. The coolie was an experiment; he was the last resort of the ruined planter, who had no money to provide all the necessaries now demanded by the Government. . . . After a great deal of trouble and the passing of many ordinances the present system was adopted. Under this arrangement the coolie agrees to serve five years and to work at the current rate of wages, after which a residence of another five years entitles him to a free passage back to India. There is a Protector of Immigrants and a large staff of agents, Government medical service, provisions for housing, and hospitals. Under this system about five thousand have arrived annually until of late, when the number has been lessened, more than half of whom re-

main in the colony. By these means the exports of sugar have nearly doubled as compared with those of the highest years before the emancipation. Even now, however, there is a want of cheap labour if the colony is ever to be developed to the extent that might be wished. Chinese coolies have also been brought to British Guiana under similar arrangements, but without success. They are not so well suited for field labour, but most of them have become very useful colonists, competing with the Madeirans as small shopkeepers."—J. Rodway, *Guiana, British, Dutch and French*, pp. 200-204.

1895.—Boundary dispute of British Guiana with Venezuela. See VENEZUELA: 1895 (July); U. S. A.: 1895 (December).

1900.—Arbitration of French Guiana boundary dispute with Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1900.

1901-1906.—Brazilian arbitration and the settlement of the boundary question of British Guiana.—"In the course of 1901 Senhor Nabuco, as plenipotentiary for Brazil, and the British Foreign Office arrived at bases of negotiation which resulted in a treaty of arbitration, signed on November 6, 1901. By this treaty the two Governments agreed to limit their claims by a definite zone, and to submit the question of boundary to the decision of the King of Italy. The zone finally accepted lay between a line formed by the courses of the Cotinga and Takutu on the west and a line formed by those of the Ireng or Mahu and the Rupununi on the east. . . . This arbitration was conducted entirely by written case and argument. The documents submitted on each side were even more complete than those on which the arguments in the Venezuelan matter had been based; they form a most valuable contribution to the history and geography of the Colony. The King of Italy decided that it was unnecessary to hear oral evidence. His Majesty gave his award in June 1904. [See BRAZIL: 1904.] . . . Meanwhile, as we have already seen, the King of Italy had given his award in the Brazilian matter, and there was no further obstacle to the delimitation of that part of the boundary of British Guiana which divides it from Brazilian territory. This service was entrusted to Mr. Anderson, the surveyor. . . . By the end of 1906, British Guiana for the first time had its boundaries fixed, and though those boundaries almost certainly did not go so far as Dutch influence at one time extended, still they included most of the territory for which Storm van's Gravesande had always contended, and they justified in a marked degree the line drawn by Sir Robert Schomburgk as a result of his official surveys."—C. A. Harris and J. A. J. de Villiers, *Storm van's gravesande*, v. 1, series 2, no. 26, pp. 136-137, 140-141.

1905.—Labor disturbances.—Labor disturbances broke out in 1905, arising from a demand for higher pay on the part of the laborers in the capitol and other places. The disturbances entailed considerable violence on the part of the mob but prompt action was taken and order speedily restored.

1909.—Settlement at The Hague of boundary dispute of Brazil and Dutch Guiana. See BRAZIL: 1909.

ALSO IN: *Arbitration tribunal, Official history of the discussion between Great Britain and Venezuela*.—A. E. Aspinall, *West Indies and Guiana*.—G. D. Bayley, *Handbook of British Guiana*.—H. Capadose, *Sixteen years in the West Indies*.—A. Guzman-Blanco, *Boundaries of Guiana*.—F. Milloux, *Guyane française*.

GUIANA, Gulf of: 1885-1886.—Agreements

of England and Germany over respective territories. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

GUIBERT OF RAVENNA (c. 1030-1100), antipope under title of Clement III. See PAPACY: 1056-1122.

GUICCIARDINI, Francesco (1483-1540), Italian historian. See HISTORY: 22.

GUIDO, Duke of Spoleto (d. 894), Holy Roman emperor, 891-894.

GUIDO D'AREZZO (c. 995-c. 1050), Benedictine monk and father of modern music. Wrote five treatises on music concerning his invention of the reconstructed scale on the hexachord principle, solmisation, lines and spaces of the staff, and the clef; became abbot of the monastery of Santa Croce at Avellano.—See also MUSIC: Medieval: 900-1050.

GUIDO RENI (1575-1642), Italian painter. Born at Calvenzano near Bologna; went to Rome in 1602, where he painted his masterpiece, "Phoebus and the Hours preceded by Aurora." Later he established a famous school at Bologna.

GUIENNE, or Guyenne, corruption of the name of Aquitaine, which came into use, apparently, about the thirteenth century. See AQUITAINE: 884-1151.

1360.—Ceded to England. See FRANCE: 1337-1360; Maps of medieval period: 1354-1360.

Dukes of. See AQUITAINE: Ancient tribes; 781.

GUILBAUD, Tertullien, Haitian statesman. Representative at the Paris peace conference (1919). See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

GUILD MERCHANT. See GUILDS: Medieval; Merchant adventurers.

GUILD SOCIALISM, school of socialist thought which originated in England early in the twentieth century. "Guild Socialists aim at autonomy in industry, with consequent curtailment, but not abolition, of the power of the State. . . . The first pamphlet of the 'National Guilds League' sets forth their main principles. In industry each factory is to be free to control its own methods of production by means of elected managers. The different factories in a given industry are to be federated into a National Guild which will deal with marketing and the general interests of the industry as a whole. 'The State would own the means of production as trustee for the community; the Guilds would manage them, also as trustees for the community, and would pay to the State a single tax or rent. Any Guild that chose to set its own interests above those of the community would be violating its trust, and would have to bow to the judgment of a tribunal equally representing the whole body of producers and the whole body of consumers. This Joint Committee would be the ultimate sovereign body, the ultimate appeal court of industry. It would fix not only Guild taxation, but also standard prices, and both taxation and prices would be periodically readjusted by it.' Each Guild will be entirely free to apportion what it receives among its members as it chooses, its members being all those who work in the industry which it covers. 'The distribution of this collective Guild income among the members seems to be a matter for each Guild to decide for itself. Whether the Guilds would, sooner, or later, adopt the principle of equal payment for every member, is open to discussion.' Guild Socialism accepts from Syndicalism the view that liberty is not to be secured by making the State the employer: 'The State and the Municipality as employers have turned out not to differ essentially from the private capitalists.' Guild Socialists regard the State as consisting of the

community in their capacity as consumers, while the Guilds will represent them in their capacity as producers; thus Parliament and Guild Congress will be two co-equal powers representing consumers and producers respectively. Above both will be the joint Committee of Parliament and the Guild Congress for deciding matters involving the interests of consumers and producers alike. The view of the Guild Socialists is that State Socialism takes account of men only as consumers, while Syndicalism takes account of them only as producers. 'The problem,' say the Guild Socialists, 'is to reconcile the two points of view. That is what advocates of National Guilds set out to do. The Syndicalist has claimed everything for the industrial organizations of producers, the Collectivist everything for the territorial or political organizations of consumers. Both are open to the same criticism; you cannot reconcile two points of view merely by denying one of them.' But although Guild Socialism represents an attempt at readjustment between two equally legitimate points of view, its impulse and force are derived from what it has taken over from Syndicalism. Like Syndicalism, it desires not primarily to make work better paid, but to secure this result along with others by making it in itself more interesting and more democratic in organization."—B. Russell, *Roads to freedom*, pp. 81-84.—See also SOCIALISM: 1906; WHITLEY COUNCILS: Organization and method.

ALSO IN: S. G. Hobson, *Guild socialism re-stated*.—G. D. H. Cole, *Meaning of national guilds*.—A. J. Plenty, *Self-government in industry*.—S. C. Field, *Guild socialism*.

**GUILDER**, coin and money of account, used in the Netherlands. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: Coinage and banking in Middle Ages.

**GUILDS, or Gilds: Roman guilds.**—"The story of Rome carries the founding of these guilds back to the early days of the regal period. From the investigations of Waltzing, Liebenam, and others their history can be made out in considerable detail. Roman tradition was delightfully systematic in assigning the founding of one set of institutions to one king and of another group to another king. Romulus, for instance, is the war king, and concerns himself with military and political institutions. The second king, Numa, is a man of peace, and is occupied throughout his reign with the social and religious organization of his people. It was Numa who established guilds of carpenters, dyers, shoemakers, tanners, workers in copper and gold, flute-players, and potters. . . . There are no bankers or weavers, for instance, in the list. . . . As Roman civilization became more complex, industrial specialization developed, and the number of guilds grew, but during the Republic we cannot trace their growth very successfully for lack of information about them. . . . The trades-guilds had little share in politics; they were made up of the obscure and weak, and consequently are rarely mentioned in the writings of a Cicero or a Livy. The tendency of the Romans to form voluntary associations was . . . a national characteristic. This fact comes out very clearly if we compare the number of trades-unions in the Western world with those in Greece and the Orient. Our conclusions must be drawn of course from the extant inscriptions which refer to guilds, and time may have dealt more harshly with the stones in one place than in another, or the Roman government may have given its consent to the establishment of such organizations with more reluctance in one province than another; but, taking into account the fact

that we have guild inscriptions from four hundred and seventy-five towns and villages in the Empire, these elements of uncertainty in our conclusions are practically eliminated, and a fair comparison may be drawn between conditions in the East and the West. . . . These guilds . . . were trades-unions in the sense that they were organizations made up of men working in the same trade, but they differed from modern unions, and also from mediæval guilds, in the objects for which they were formed. They made no attempt to raise wages, to improve working conditions, to limit the number of apprentices, to develop skill and artistic taste in the craft. . . . It was the need which their members felt for companionship, sympathy, and help in the emergencies of life, and the desire to give more meaning to their lives, that drew them together. These motives explain the provisions made for social gatherings, and for the burial of members, which were the characteristic features of most of the organizations. It is the social side, for instance, which is indicated on a tombstone, found in a little town of central Italy. After giving the name of the deceased, it reads: 'He bequeathed to his guild, the rag-dealers, a thousand sesterces, from the income of which each year, on the festival of the Parentalia, not less than twelve men shall dine at his tomb.' Another in northern Italy reads: 'To Publius Etereius Quadratus, the son of Publius, of the *Tribus Quirina*, Etereia Aristolais, his mother, has set up a statue, at whose dedication she gave the customary banquet to the union of rag-dealers, and also a sum of money, from the income of which annually, from this time forth, on the birthday of Quadratus, April 9, where his remains have been laid, they should make a sacrifice, and should hold the customary banquet in the temple, and should bring roses in their season and cover and crown the statue; which thing they have undertaken to do.' The menu of one of these dinners given in Dacia has come down to us. It includes lamb and pork, bread, salad, onions, and two kinds of wine. The cost of the entertainment amounted to one hundred and sixty-nine *denarii*, or about twenty-seven dollars, a sum which would probably have a purchasing value to-day of from three to four times that amount. The 'temple' or chapel referred to in these inscriptions was usually semi-circular, and may have served as a model for the Christian oratories. The building usually stood in a little grove, and, with its accommodations for official meetings and dinners, served the same purpose as a modern club-house. Besides the special gatherings for which some deceased member or some rich patron provided, the guild met at fixed times during the year to dine or for other social purposes. The income of the society, which was made up of the initiation fees and monthly dues of the members, and of donations, was supplemented now and then by a system of fines. . . . Besides the need of comradeship, and the desire to provide for a respectable burial, . . . another motive . . . brought the weak and lowly together in these associations. They were oppressed by the sense of their own insignificance in society, and by the pitifully small part which they played in the affairs of the world. But if they could establish a society of their own with concerns peculiar to itself which they would administer, and if they could create positions of honor and importance in this organization, even the lowliest man in Rome would have a chance to satisfy that craving to exercise power over others which all of us feel, to hold titles and

distinctions, and to wear the insignia of office and rank. This motive worked itself out in the establishment of a complete hierarchy of offices. . . . The Roman state was reproduced in miniature in these societies, with their popular assemblies, and their officials, who bore the honorable titles of *quæstor*, *curator*, *prætor*, *ædile*, and so forth. . . . It is not entirely clear why the guilds never tried to bring pressure to bear on their employers to raise wages, or to improve their position by means of the strike, or by other methods with which we are familiar to-day. . . . In ancient times, as may be seen in the chapter on Diocletian's edict, machinery was almost unknown, and the artisans worked singly in their own homes or in the houses of their employers, so that joint action to improve their condition would hardly be expected. Another factor which should probably be taken into account is the influence of slavery. This institution did not play the important rôle under the Empire in depressing the free laborer which it is often supposed to have played, because it was steadily dying out; but an employer could always have recourse to slave labor to a limited extent, and the struggling freedmen who had just come up from slavery were not likely to urge very strongly their claims for consideration. . . . Every guild put itself under the protection of some deity and was closely associated with a cult. *Silvanus*, the god of the woods, was a natural favorite with the carpenters, *Father Bacchus* with the innkeepers, *Vesta* with the bakers, and *Diana* with those who hunted wild animals for the circus. . . . The religious side of Roman trade associations will not surprise us when we recall the strong religious bent of the Roman character, and when we remember that no body of Romans would have thought of forming any kind of an organization without securing the sanction and protection of the gods. The family, the clan, the state all had their protecting deities, to whom appropriate rights were paid on stated occasions. . . . In the last days of the Republic, however, they [the Guilds] began to enter politics, and were used very effectively in the elections by political leaders in both parties. In fact the fortunes of the city seemed likely to be controlled by political clubs, until severe legislation and the transfer of the elections in the early Empire from the popular assemblies to the senate put an end to the use of trade associations for political purposes. It was in the light of this development that the government henceforth required all newly formed trades-unions to secure official authorization. . . . The Roman government started with the assumption that the operation of these voluntary associations was a matter of public as well as of private concern, and could serve public interests. Therefore their members were to be exempted from some of the burdens which the ordinary citizen bore. It was this reasoning, for instance, which led *Trajan* to set the bakers free from certain charges, and which influenced *Hadrian* to grant the same favors to those associations of skippers which supplied Rome with food. In the light of our present-day discussion it is interesting also to find that *Marcus Aurelius* granted them the right to manumit slaves and receive legacies—that is, he made them juridical persons. But if these associations were to be fostered by law, in proportion as they promoted the public welfare, it also followed logically that the state could put a restraining hand upon them when their development failed to serve public interests in the highest degree. Following this logical sequence, the Emperor *Claudius*, in

his efforts to promote a more wholesome home life, or for some other reason not known to us, forbade the eating-houses or the delicatessen shops to sell cooked meats or warm water. *Antoninus Pius*, in his paternal care for the unions, prescribed an age test and a physical test for those who wished to become members. Later, under the law a man was allowed to join one guild only. Such a legal provision as this was a natural concomitant of the concession of privileges to the unions. If the members of these organizations were to receive special favors from the state, the state must see to it that the rolls were not padded. It must, in fact, have the right of final supervision of the list of members. So long as industry flourished, and so long as the population increased, or at least remained stationary, this oversight by the government brought no appreciable ill results. But when financial conditions grew steadily worse, when large tracts of land passed out of cultivation and the population rapidly dwindled, the numbers in the trades-unions began to decline. The public services, constantly growing heavier, which the state required of the guilds in return for their privileges made the loss of members still greater. This movement threatened the industrial interests of the Empire and must be checked at all hazards. Consequently, taking another logical step in the way of government regulation in the interests of the public, the state forbade men to withdraw from the unions, and made membership in a union hereditary. Henceforth the carpenter must always remain a carpenter, the weaver a weaver, and the sons and grandsons of the carpenter and the weaver must take up the occupation of their fathers, and a man is bound forever to his trade as the serf is to the soil."—*F. F. Abbott, Common people of ancient Rome*, pp. 215-217, 219-222, 226-228, 230-231, 233-234.—"It was from the artisans that the political clubs of the last century of the Republic were recruited. They were an element in the state, always important and often dangerous. It would be apart from our purpose to enter into a detailed treatment of the political influence of industrial groups. In 64 B.C. the artisans formed a class upon which *Catiline* could faithfully depend. In many instances expression was given to their sentiments in the shows, where a separate place was allotted them. During the last century of the Republic the industrial class profited largely by that liberty of association accorded to all whose organizations did not contravene public law. The Twelve Tables had authorized complete autonomy in internal government. The first corporations were semi-military,—to assist in the work of equipment and construction in campaigns. These colleges of workmen did not have a religious origin; nor was their primary purpose to preserve industrial processes, to develop technical skill or to impose conditions of apprenticeship. We may believe that where a father taught his son his trade apprenticeship was by no means formal, and that men of the same handicraft could scarcely be brought together without a comparison of methods, leading to the adoption of newer and better ways of doing things. The instinct for sociability, the greater dignity which springs from association would be sufficient motives for their existence. The corporations, naturally assuming a semi-religious character in the state where each occupation possessed a protecting deity, probably discharged such religious functions as the burial of dead members. This duty was being performed in the interesting incident recorded by *Appian* where the bearers of a corpse fell upon and killed a man,

who, though assisting in carrying the corpse, was not a member of their trade."—E. H. Oliver, *Roman economic conditions*, pp. 138-139.

**Medieval guilds.**—"The history of the Gild Merchant begins with the Norman Conquest. The latter widened the horizon of the English merchant even more than that of the English annalist. The close union between England and Normandy led to an increase in foreign commerce, which in turn must have greatly stimulated internal trade and industry. Moreover, the greatly enhanced power of the English crown tempered feudal turbulence, affording a measure of security to traders in England that was as yet unknown on the continent. . . . With this expansion of trade the mercantile element would become a more potent factor in town life, and would soon feel the need of joint action to guard its nascent prosperity against encroachments. Not until there was something of importance to protect, not until trade and industry began to predominate over agriculture within the borough, would a protective union like the Gild Merchant come into being. Its existence, in short, presupposes a greater mercantile and industrial development than that which prevailed in England in the tenth century. This circumstance and the absence of all mention of the Gild Merchant in the records of the Anglo-Saxon period render it probable that this fraternity first appeared in England soon after the Conqueror had established his sway and restored order in the land. Whether it was merely a reorganization of older guilds, a spontaneous adaptation of the gild idea to the newly-begotten trade interests, or a new institution directly transplanted from Normandy, we have no means of determining with certainty. The last-mentioned view is strongly favoured by the circumstance that, at the time of the Conquest, the Gild Merchant doubtless existed in Northern France and Flanders. From the Frenchmen who became burgesses of English towns, and from the Norman merchants who thronged the marts of England after the Conquest, the English would soon ascertain the advantages of formal trade organization. The earliest distinct references to the Gild Merchant occur in a charter granted by Robert Fitz-Hamon to the burgesses of Burford (1087-1107), and in a document drawn up while Anselm was Archbishop of Canterbury (1093-1109). . . . Whether we place the inception of the fraternity immediately before or after the Norman Conquest, whether we make it a continuation of older Anglo-Saxon guilds, or a derivative from Normandy, or a wholly new and spontaneous growth, it was doubtless at first merely a private society, unconnected with the town government, having for its object the protection of its members, the tradesmen of the borough, and the maintenance of the newly invigorated trade interests. During the twelfth century it gradually became a recognised part of the town constitution, thus entering upon its second stage of development. How this came to pass can be easily realised from the later history of English guilds in general. For in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries . . . a simple social-religious gild at times attained such power in a community that it came to be regarded as an important constituent element of the civic administration. Quite similar must have been the growth of the Gild Merchant, which from the outset was doubtless composed of the most influential burgesses, and which, as the exponent of the mercantile interests, must always have been greatly concerned in the increase of the privileges and prosperity of

the borough in general. It was very natural that the town authorities should use such a society for public purposes, entrusting to it the surveillance of the trade monopoly, in which its members were particularly interested,—allowing it to gradually become an important part of the civic administrative machinery. . . . The beginning of this third and final stage of development cannot be definitely fixed; for in some places it was of an earlier date than in others. The fourteenth century may in general be called the period of gradual transition. In the fifteenth century the transformation was completed. In this and the following centuries the term 'Gilda Mercatoria' became less and less frequent. In many places it soon wholly disappeared. Where it continued to subsist, the Gild no longer had an individuality of its own. Its alderman and other peculiar officers, its whole organization as a distinctive entity, had vanished. It had merged its identity in that of the general municipal organism. The head of the fraternity was now the head of the town, borough and Gild, burgesses and gildsmen were now identical. What had once been a distinct integral part of the civic body politic became vaguely blended with the whole of it. The old Gild Merchant was now rarely mentioned in connection with the municipal trade restrictions and regulations, the latter being commonly applied to burgesses, craftsmen, freemen, or 'foreigners.' The exegesis of this transformation . . . was due mainly to three causes: (1) the expansion of trade and the multiplication of the craft and mercantile fraternities, which absorbed the ancient functions of the Gild Merchant and rendered it superfluous; (2) the growth of the select governing body, which usurped most of the privileges of the old burghers at large, and hence tended to obliterate the distinction between them, or their less privileged successors, and the ancient gildsmen, leaving both only certain trade immunities; (3) the decay of the leet—the rallying point of the old burghers as distinguished from that of the gildsmen—the functions of which passed, in part, to the crafts, but mainly to the select body and to the justices of the peace. But even after the Gild Merchant and the borough had thus become identical, the old dual idea did not completely disappear, the Gild being often regarded as a particular phase or function of the town, namely, the municipality in its character of a trade monopoly. Hence the modern survivals of the Gild Merchant help to elucidate its actual functions in ancient times. In a few boroughs the select governing body of the town—the narrow civic corporation, in distinction from the burgesses or freemen at large—succeeded to the name and traditions of the Gild Merchant. In some of these cases the signification of the latter gradually dwindled down to a periodical civic feast of the privileged few. . . . In the eighteenth century we meet the word much less frequently than in the seventeenth; and toward the beginning of the present century it became very rare. The Municipal Corporations Commission, in 1835, found it still used in only a few boroughs. The remnants of the Gild Merchant and of the craft fraternities were rapidly vanishing before the new ideas of a more liberal age,—the age of *laissez faire*. The onerous, self-destructive restrictions of guilds were now being superseded by the stimulating measures of Chambers of Commerce. More than six centuries elapsed before the enactment of Magna Carta that all merchants 'may go through England, by land and water, to buy and sell, free from all unjust imposts,' became a

realised fact throughout the realm. The Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 provided that 'every person in any borough may keep any shop for the sale of all lawful wares and merchandizes by wholesale or retail, and use every lawful trade, occupation, mystery, and handicraft, for hire, gain, sale, or otherwise, within any borough.' In a single town of England the Gild Merchant still subsists, but only as the shadow of its former self—a spectre from the distant past. At Preston the Gild Merchant has been 'celebrated' regularly once every twenty years for more than three centuries, on which occasions the burghesses renew their freedom and indulge in all the festivities of a civic carnival. The last Gild Merchant was held in 1882. There was then much feasting and dancing, there were gay processions of townsmen, and much talk of the glories of the past. And yet how few even of the scholars and noblemen there assembled from various parts of Great Britain knew what an important rôle the Gild Merchant had played in the annals of English municipal history, what strange vicissitudes it had undergone, what a remarkable transformation the centuries had wrought in it."—C. Gross, *Gild merchant*, v. 1, ch. 1 and 9.—See also MERCHANT ADVENTURERS.—"The rise of the craft guilds is, roughly speaking, a century later [than the rise of the merchant guilds]; isolated examples occur early in the twelfth century, they become more numerous as the century advances, and in the thirteenth century they appear in all branches of manufacture and in every industrial centre. Craft guilds were associations of all the artisans engaged in a particular industry in a particular town, for certain common purposes. . . . Their appearance marks the second stage in the history of industry, the transition from the family system to the artisan (or gild) system. In the former there was no class of artisans properly so called; no class, that is to say, of men whose time was entirely or chiefly devoted to a particular manufacture; and this because all the needs of a family or other domestic group, whether of monastery or manor-house, were satisfied by the labours of the members of the group itself. The latter, on the contrary, is marked by the presence of a body of men each of whom was occupied more or less completely in one particular manufacture. The very growth from the one to the other system, therefore, is an example of 'division of labour,' or, to use a better phrase, of 'division of employments.' . . . When the place of the young manufactures of the twelfth century in the development of mediæval society is thus conceived, the discussion as to a possible Roman 'origin' of the guilds loses much of its interest. No doubt modern historians have exaggerated the breach in continuity between the Roman and the barbarian world; no doubt the artisans in the later Roman Empire had no organization somewhat like that of the later guilds. Moreover, it is possible that in one or two places in Gaul certain artisan corporations may have had a continuous existence from the fifth to the twelfth century. It is even possible that Roman regulations may have served as models for the organization of servile artisans on the lands of monasteries and great nobles,—from which, on the continent, some of the later craft guilds doubtless sprang. But when we see that the growth of an artisan class, as distinguished from isolated artisans here and there, was impossible till the twelfth century, because society had not yet reached the stage in which it was profitable or safe for a considerable number of men to confine themselves to any occupa-

tion except agriculture; and that the ideas which governed the craft guilds were not peculiar to themselves but common to the whole society of the time; then the elements of organization which may conceivably have been derived from or suggested by the Roman artisan corporations become of quite secondary importance. There is, as we have said, little doubt that some of the craft guilds of France and Germany were originally organizations of artisan serfs on the manors of great lay or ecclesiastical lords. This may also have been the case in some places in England, but no evidence has yet been adduced to show that it was so. . . . The relation of the craft guilds to the merchant gild is a still more difficult question. In many of the towns of Germany and the Netherlands a desperate struggle took place during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries between a burgher oligarchy, who monopolized the municipal government, and were still further strengthened in many cases by union in a merchant gild, and the artisans organized in their craft guilds; the craftsmen fighting first for the right of having guilds of their own, and then for a share in the government of the town [see also BELGIUM: Ancient and mediæval history]. These facts have been easily fitted into a symmetrical theory of industrial development; the merchant guilds, it is said, were first formed for protection against feudal lords, but became exclusive, and so rendered necessary the formation of craft guilds; and in the same way the craft guilds became exclusive afterwards, and the journeymen were compelled to form societies of their own for protection against the masters. . . . The very neatness of such a theory, the readiness with which it has been accepted by popular writers in spite of the paucity of English evidence, have perhaps led some historians to treat it with scant consideration. . . . At the end of the reign of Edward III. there were in London forty-eight companies or crafts, each with a separate organization and officers of its own, a number which had increased to at least sixty before the close of the century."—W. J. Ashley, *Introduction to English economic history and theory*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 2.—"The unions known by the names of mystery, faculty trade, fellowship, or (from the fact of possessing particular costumes) livery company, existed in large numbers throughout the realm, and were frequently divided into two or three categories. Thus in London the principal crafts were the twelve 'substantial companies' or 'livery companies' [Mercers, Grocers, Drapers, Fishmongers, Goldsmiths, Skinners, Merchant Tailors, Haberdashers, Salters, Ironmongers, Vintners, Cloth-workers]. . . . A perfect acquaintance with the details of the trade and the desire as well as the ability to produce good work were in all cases preliminary requisites [of membership]. In fact the main provisions of the craft, the very soul of its constitution, were the regulations intended to ensure the excellence of the products and the capacity of the workman. . . . The whole character of the craft guild is explained by these regulations."—E. R. A. Seligman, *Mediæval guilds of England* (*American Economic Review*, v. 2, no. 5, pt. 2, sect. 2).—See also COMMUNE, MEDIEVAL; HANSA TOWNS; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Growth of towns; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1000-1300; 1200-1600; LONDON: 1154-1309.

ALSO IN: L. Brentano, *On the history and development of guilds*.—C. Gross, *Gild merchant*.—T. Smith, *English guilds*.—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 11.—W. Herbert, *History of twelve great livery companies*.

Types of guilds in the Middle Ages.—"The

interest of modern readers in the craft guilds of the middle ages has created special associations between the general term 'gild' and this particular form of gild. A number of writers, including Professor W. J. Ashley, have given added currency to such a specialization of meaning by using the phrase 'gild system' to describe the form of industrial organization which is more precisely described as the craft or handicraft system. This laxity of usage has been peculiarly unfortunate because it adds to the obscurities and complexities of a subject that is beset with the difficulties that come from ambiguities of terminology and misleading connotations. . . . The disposition of the earlier Teutonic writers to trace all guilds to a common Teutonic origin was not unnatural, but one cannot help feeling that this unduly literal scholarship added gratuitous difficulties to the problems connected with these different types of association. Three distinct types of society might be described as guilds: associations for charitable and religious purposes; associations for commercial or social purposes; and associations designed to share with the municipal authority the supervision of fellow-craftsmen. In England and in Germany these associations were all called guilds, though there were usually elements in the name of the society that would be sufficient to indicate the general purpose of the association. Religious associations were usually placed under the patronage of some saint, or connected with the celebration of some religious festival. Guilds of Corpus Christi, of the Holy Trinity, of the Blessed Virgin, were to be found in many towns. Some of these religious titles appear in connection with associations that were not exclusively religious in character, for merchant and craft guilds were sometimes so closely identified with religious observances that the religious element appeared in the title. In such cases it would seem that there might be grounds for searching for specific evidence of the actual purposes of the gild. All writers have recognized that these three types are somewhat distinct, but many have insisted that the growth of these different forms of association is dominated by some common principle. This thesis was given wide currency by Professor Brentano's essay on the 'Origin and Development of Guilds,' and later writers in dealing with English problems have found it difficult to emancipate themselves from the influences of the misleading suggestions of the old Anglo-Saxon term. The French terminology is different, and French writers have maintained more explicit distinctions among these various forms of association. The religious association is designated by a special term both in Latin and in French (*fraternitas-confrérie*). The merchant gild for some reason as yet unexplained has left little trace in the history of French commerce. A derivative from the root 'gild' appears in French terminology in this connection. The craft gild is designated by the term 'métier,' the general term for craft. It is therefore necessary to distinguish in French between the organized and unorganized crafts, and thus we have the 'métier libre'—a mere group of unorganized craftsmen distinguished from the 'métier juré,' the chartered craft whose members swear to observe the statutes of the organization. The *confrérie*, or religious fraternity, plays about the same rôle in France as the religious 'gild' in England. There may have been significant differences in the development of the gild merchant in France, but we can at least affirm that such associations existed. The craft guilds in France and in England also exhibit differences of form. The most notable difference

in the history of guilds in the two countries is that in France these forms appear more clearly to be different kinds of associations. The members of these societies were drawn from a single class, and in many cases the same people belonged to two societies or guilds; the different forms thus exerted curious reciprocal influences upon each other, as they were all a part of the daily life of a fairly definite group. The close relations of the different forms of gild to each other cannot be effectively studied, however, unless the larger differences of form and purpose are carefully distinguished. [See also COMMUNE, MEDIEVAL.] . . . The fact that a single term was applied to a variety of organizations in the middle ages can hardly be taken as evidence of a common purpose, and it happens that there is fairly definite evidence that there was no clear fraternal element in the craft gild of the pure type. In the course of development in England the religious and industrial organizations of craftsmen frequently became one society rather than two parallel organizations of the same persons. To that extent a fraternal element crept into the craft organizations, but it would be an exaggeration to suppose that the craft gild was in general a kind of fraternity. Both on the Continent and in England the religious society and the administrative organization of the craft were distinct; they were different organizations of essentially the same group of men. Although the modern trade union is not comparable to the craft gild, the relation between workingmen's benefit societies and the trade union is substantially similar to the relation that existed between the religious fraternity and the craft gild [see also LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1720-1800]. These various kinds of guilds are not merely variations from a common type, but essentially different organizations, owing their origin to widely different circumstances and having notable different functions and purposes."—A. P. Usher, *Industrial history of England*, pp. 165-168.—See also MASONIC SOCIETIES: Legend and fact.

Operation of the guilds in the Middle Ages.—Rules for apprenticeship.—Regulation of production.—"In the time when the artisans, still slaves of the bishop, worked only for him and for his escort, they were divided into small bands; each, composed of men who did the same kind of work, was obedient to a domestic of the bishop. This band was called a trade corporation, and the chief was a minister. There was a corporation of blacksmiths, of saddlers, of tailors, etc. From that came the word 'métier' in the sense which we give to it to-day, a trade. The artisans gradually became free: in place of working for their suzerain, an' being maintained by him, they worked on their own account and sold their products in the market; but they remained organized in a corporation. Each trade formed a single corps. It had its common coffer, its banner, which was carried in processions and which was taken along when the town went to war; it had its patron saint (the carpenters had Saint Joseph, the shoemakers Saint Crispin), it had chiefs, people who were in the same trade (in France they were called wardens), it had its own regulations; following the custom of the Middle Ages, these rules were unwritten. In France it was not until the middle of the thirteenth century even that the rules of the trades corporations in Paris were drawn up in due form. These regulations fixed the conditions upon which any one was admitted into the trade. The child must begin by being apprenticed to a master of the



trade; the master teaches him, feeds and clothes him. The apprentice must work for the master and must obey him; the master having the right to beat him if it is necessary. At the end of several years the apprentice becomes a journeyman; he still works for his employer, but is paid and is only engaged for a short time; he may leave his employer and go to another. The journeymen were a race of vagabonds; many went from town to town offering their services; the usage of 'making a four of France' was preserved among us for a long time. Those who are rich enough to open a shop become masters (employers); they alone can vote in the assembly of the trades [see also EDUCATION: Medieval: 13th-14th centuries]. The regulations also prescribe how one must work; he is forbidden to

open a tailor shop without having been received into the corporation of tailors would be fined and his shop would be closed. The right to manufacture and sell objects of a trade belonged exclusively to the men of that corporation. The tailors prevented the old-clothes men from selling new garments, for they alone had the right to sell them; the business of the old-clothes man was to sell old clothes. The makers of bits and bridles had a suit against the saddlers, to forbid them manufacturing bridles. The trades of the Middle Ages had a horror of competition. The principal trades were those of the butchers, weavers, dyers, masons, tanners, armorers, carpenters. The number of trades depended on the importance of the town; many German towns had only eighteen or twenty; in Paris there were more than one hundred.



NUREMBURG CLOTHMAKERS' PARADE, 1722

Showing the limited number of apprentices at that time in proportion to the masters and journeymen  
(From a contemporary engraving. Courtesy of The Survey, Graphic)

work elsewhere than in his shop, so that the public may watch over him; he is forbidden to work by artificial light, in order not to do bad work; he is forbidden to employ other materials or to make objects by any other measure than the rules call for. The silversmiths must not set gold on silver; the makers of statues must employ only a certain kind of wood. If a piece of cloth was narrower or wider than the prescribed measure it was confiscated and the merchant was fined. The people of the 'guild' insisted on guarding their honor, and their honor consisted in not permitting any but honestly made merchandise to be sold; that is the reason why they watched each other so closely. In return they supported each other against foreigners and against the men of the other trades or guilds. No one in the town had the right to manufacture or sell save the masters in the business; the man who would

Many different callings could be united in a single corporation, or one calling could be divided among several corporations; for example, there were three corporations of chaplet manufacturers in Paris."—C. Seignobos, *History of mediæval and of modern civilization*, pp. 165-167.—See also APPRENTICES, STATUTE OF; INSURANCE: Fire: Early forms; Life: Early forms.

**Modern guilds.**—Modification and final abolition of the guilds in France, Germany and Austria.—Vitality of the system in China.—The restrictions which the old régime in France threw about the industries of the townspeople were fewer than those which hindered the progress of agriculture. In most of the towns industries were still under the control of guilds or corporations of masters, which aimed to regulate the methods of manufacture and to preserve to the members the advantages of a local monopoly. The honor as

well as the interest of the guild was involved in maintaining the reputation of the product. The masters naturally desired to lessen the numbers admitted to the guild, so that in some cases it was impossible for any except relatives of masters to become members, although they might have served their apprenticeship and their usual time as journeymen. This policy increased the value of the monopoly, but was likely to excite the indignation of the rest of the community. The government sometimes attempted to reduce the evil by offering royal letters of mastership, a practice which also brought in a little revenue. In 1775 a decree threw open all towns except Paris, Lyons, Rouen, and Lille to men who had completed their apprenticeship and the usual term as journeymen, waiving the rule that they should first be received as masters. The guilds were still powerful enough to prevent their monopoly from being destroyed in this way, and the decree served chiefly to mark the increasing liberality of the government. The spread of industry into the country undermined the monopoly of the guilds and was favored by the government, which after 1762 assured to the rural inhabitants the right to purchase tools, machines, and raw materials. The selfish conservatism of the guilds was not the only obstacle to the progress of industry. Under the influence of Colbert's ideas, a mass of regulative decrees determined the exact amount of raw material which each piece of stuff should contain, as well as the manner in which it should be put together. The aim of these regulations was the protection of the consumer against bad workmanship or fraud, but they threw difficulties in the way of inventors, for it was not always easy to persuade a government council of the usefulness or practicability of a new production. The regulations were enforced by the guilds and by royal inspectors, whose seals were affixed to the goods. Offenders were prosecuted, their goods pilloried or destroyed, and their business ruined. Roland, the ill-fated minister of the interior in the Revolution, declared that when he was an inspector in Rouen he had seen as many as one hundred pieces of goods destroyed in one morning, solely because they were of an irregular weave. From the middle of the century masters and officers became less severe in the enforcement of the regulations. This movement was especially due to the influence of the economist Gournay, who became intendant of commerce in 1751. The word manufacture has a literal application to the methods of work under the old régime, for most of the machinery was run by hand and was of a type which had been used for centuries. A few large shops employed several hundred persons, but there was little division of labor. Most of the shops were small, with only the master, an apprentice or two, and a few journeymen. The goods were often sold by the master, who was a petty tradesman as well as a 'manufacturer.' The ordinary workmen, who had little prospect of ever becoming masters, sought to improve their condition by uniting in secret organizations or brotherhoods. Towards the middle of the century so many strikes and boycotts occurred that the government issued a decree forbidding such organizations or any combinations of employees to bring pressure on the masters. The employees could not abandon the service of a master without a permit; and if another master received them without this permit, he, as well as they, was liable to a heavy fine. Turgot held the view taught by the economists that the monopolies enjoyed by the guilds were a dangerous restriction of the liberty of industry and a

serious hindrance to the development of trade. The consequences of the monopoly were higher prices for the purchaser and a narrower opportunity for the artisan. His plan was to preserve the guild organization only in a few cases,—notably those of the apothecaries and the printers—in order to secure government control of those trades. He ordered the property of the guilds to be sold, the debts paid and the balance distributed among the members. Henceforward it should only be necessary for a workman to record his name, profession, and domicile at the proper office and conform to the police regulations of his industry. The ordinances on the *corvée* and on the guilds, with four others of less importance, were laid before the parlement of Paris for registration in March, 1776. Upon the question of the *corvée*, the judges took the attitude adopted by the keeper of the seals, regarding the change as a violation of the rights of property. They also considered masterships as rights over production which it would be unjust to take away without indemnification. They were ready to concede certain changes, reducing the number of guilds and lowering the entrance fees, but Turgot would not listen to any compromise, and persuaded the King to command the registration in a solemn *lit de justice*.—H. E. Bourne, *Revolutionary period in Europe*, p. 66.—“Turgot's fall was followed by a reaction against the policy of reform. . . . The guilds were reëstablished, although some changes were made which decreased the traditional abuses. Trades so closely connected that it was difficult to mark off their fields were not united, and the fees for mastership were reduced. The new guilds, six of merchants and forty-four of arts and trades, were introduced into Paris immediately. The attempt at restoration was extended more gradually to other towns. Several provincial parlements took the attitude that as they had never registered Turgot's edicts the older guilds still existed within their jurisdiction.”—*Ibid.*, p. 68.—A year after the Assembly began its efforts to free agricultural labor it freed trade and industry by abolishing the guilds or corporations which had survived Turgot's attack or had been reëstablished after his overthrow. This important reform met no resistance either in the Assembly or outside. The cahiers of several towns where the guilds were powerful urged their retention, and, in a few cases, requested a reëstablishment of the system which existed prior to Turgot's ordinance. For the costly and cumbersome restrictions of the system the Assembly substituted simply the payment of a moderate tax called the *patente*. With the guilds disappeared also the minute regulation of the processes of manufacture.”—*Ibid.*, p. 121.—See also COMPAGNONNAGES.

“In Germany and Austria the guilds had long been losing ground when the territorial princes vigorously undertook their reorganization. Labor troubles such as were the object of the French legislation furnished the occasion. In the German states the situation was peculiar in that journeymen who got into conflict with their employers or with the administration had only to cross a near-by frontier in order to be welcomed with open arms. Each state was glad to swell its population of artisans at the expense of its rivals. In Germany, also, the journeymen had an organization of their own akin to the guilds. The state governments found no way to meet the difficulty except by resort to the outworn method of imperial legislation. With unusual energy the diet undertook the task and in 1731 seriously modified and weakened the powers of the organizations of journeymen, leaving them hardly more than their

functions as charitable and religious bodies. No journeyman could be employed without a pass from the head of the guild, endorsed by his previous employer, even though this employer belonged to another state. The guilds were put under the control of the states, with the result that in Germany industry, like religion, became an affair of the state. The main purpose of the legislation which followed was to deprive the guilds of their petty monopolies and make the conditions of admission easier.—*Ib. id.*, p. 16.

"The Chinese guilds, the backbones of Chinese business organization, are formed primarily to pool interests for self-protection. Their rules for members are rules of restraint; their effect internally tends to equalize opportunity and make the minority subservient to the complete, though often modulated, tyranny of the majority. In China these guilds wield a tremendous power. Often it is exercised so quietly that it goes unnoticed. . . . Two kinds of guilds, broadly speaking, flourish in China. The Kung So is the association of men in the same business or trade. The Hui Kwan is the association of men from the same province, based upon the need of combination of those who are away from home, competing for trade in an alien territory. . . . The 'cessation of business' is a weapon of reprisal for some alleged injustice not often used because it injures the user as well as his enemy, but it is a guild measure of no mean efficiency. No doubt it has been used most often in rebuke of official corruption or blackmail or offensive regulation and as a substitute for insurrection. Its purpose is to paralyze business. Suddenly, some morning, the members of the guild do not start work. If their number for resistance includes a substantial part of the coolie laborers who unload ships in a port, and of the ricksha men and of merchants who sell certain food products and of carpenters and others in the building trades, the result may be a much dreaded and not soon forgotten period of stagnation. There are no unlawful acts; the guild has decreed a 'cessation' and its members merely do nothing. The guild has no governmental authority or charter, so none can be taken away from it; the members are acting within their rights and are beyond the law. If any member were to be taken to task for not fulfilling his engagement to work he would say as all Chinese say, on every occasion for avoidance, 'I am sick' and hundreds of his friends would swear that such is the case. However, it is not the Hui Kwan but the Kung So or trade guild which plays the most important part in the internal business of China.

"There is no tracing the origin of the Kung So. I have been told by missionaries, who on the whole constitute the class with the greatest intimacy with Chinese life, that the Kung So had its origin in co-operative contributors to worship and propitiation in the temples, and the small volume of H. B. Morse gives some indication of the same thought. I have yet to find a Chinese who would give an opinion on the origin of the trade guild in China; it is lost somewhere back yonder in a long, long history. Today the trade guilds still remain organizations of simple form—standing apart from public authority, avoiding all contracts with and controversies at law; internally they are democratic despotisms dictating methods of business, externally exercising little power or political influence, but prepared to undertake resistance to oppression and reprisals for injustice done their members. Because the guilds in the minds of foreigners, even of some who have lived for years in China, are confused with secret societies and

political party 'underground rings' of which there are plenty, it is necessary to point out that among the Kung So there is little activity beyond that of combination for protection and for social intercourse among men in the same trade. The extent covered by these guilds is their most important characteristic. One hears that there are guilds of thieves and of river pirates, still common in China. The Beggars Guild is large and powerful. Probably no trade or occupation in China is without a guild. Most of the trade guilds, indeed all that I have visited with but one exception, maintain a strict code of rules and fines. Seldom does a guild try to force membership on any individual in the trade. The guild is a hen with wings extended and if an individual wants to shiver without protection the most the guild does is to cluck. For members, however, the authority of the guild is quite a different matter—often a stern and terrible thing for the recalcitrant. There are rules made governing weights and measures to be used, length of credits, interest rates, prices. There are rules concerning the long apprenticeship so well established in the artisan's occupation; in Canton, for instance, the Silk Weavers require four and five years training for the men who pull the pattern strings in the looms. Rules are made by employees' guilds establishing maximum and minimum wages; for instance, in the Servants Guild for a No. 1 cook or a No. 3 houseboy; and rules are made in trade guilds to which both employer and employee belong which are the result of arbitration within the guild after two opposing factions have quarreled, as for instance when the bookkeepers of the Pottery Guild have a difference with the Wholesale Merchants of the Guild. The Ningpo Bankers Guild which was founded about the time the father of Christopher Columbus was learning to walk has dealt in its regulations with banking hours, discounts, loans, security and exchange rates since a time to which its present officers' memories runneth not. Some guilds cling to old-fashioned notions and still prohibit sons and nephews from engaging in callings and trades different from those of their fathers and uncles. The power for enforcement of discipline is very strong. Sometimes the members make deposits for good faith against which the guild may draw for breach of its rules. But usually the punishment is a thumb screw system no less effective because old-fashioned and at times brutal and cruel. . . . China is more skilled in merciless boycott than any other country in the world. The guilds have taught her. The manager of one of the largest of American ventures in China said to me, 'I do not say that the time will soon come when Chinese feeling will produce enough cohesion for the purpose, but I do say that if that moment arrived the Chinese could drive every foreigner out of China in seventy-two hours. The Servants Guild of Shanghai seldom exercises its power openly but when it boycotts a foreign woman she will be living in a hotel in the end. When a foreign firm enters into a law suit with a Chinese firm, it is not beyond the range of possibility that as long as the suit is in progress the business of the foreign firm with the Chinese will vanish like a handful of dust in the wind. Ninety per cent. or more of the sales of Standard Oil in China at the time of the passage of the American Chinese Exclusion Act dropped away in the now forgotten Chinese boycott of American goods. A guild of coolies in Shanghai, licensed to do porters' and carriers' business on the streets, successfully defied the authorities and forced a municipal regulation to be rescinded. Anti-British and anti-Japanese shipping boycotts have on two occasions swept away the

Chinese cargoes of the merchant marines of these two countries like magic. 'The anti-Japanese steamship boycott was astonishing' said a Hong-kong official. 'The Empress boats were at the Dardanelles; the one American Pacific service was out of business temporarily. The Chinese were depending upon Japanese ships to take their goods away. But after Japan had presented her famous Demands of 1915 the Chinese just stopped shipping goods at all!' The gild is still the powerful factor in Chinese business. Modern industrial activities, however, have begun to throw shadows over this ancient institution. In Shanghai I talked with Mr. Chang Lot-chung, an old gentleman with a strong and genial countenance who speaks no English and appears to be a prosperous merchant belonging to the old school. But Mr. Chang Lot-chung is president of the Welfare Association and the Welfare Association is a new institution in China. The Welfare Association is not a gild. It is a combination of gilds. Its significance lies in the power of its idea. Who can say to what a movement to federate the gilds of one province with those of another may lead? Who can say what pressure the combined gilds of China might bring finally upon the wobbling internal administration of China or upon the foreign trade within her borders?"—*Asia, Aug., 1917*.—See also CHINA: Industrial development from earliest period.

**English Guild Socialism.** See SOCIALISM: 1906: Guild socialism.

**Cyril and Methodius Guild.**—Spread of Pan-Slavic doctrine. See UKRAINE: 1795-1860.

**GUILDS OF FLANDERS.**—"In the course of the tenth century Bruges had waxed great and wealthy through its trade with England, while the Ghent people constructed a port at the junction of their two rivers. The Flemings, nevertheless, were still noted for the boorishness of their demeanour, their addiction to intemperance, and their excessive turbulence. Their pagan ancestors had been accustomed to form associations for their mutual protection against accidents by fire or water, and similar misadventures. These unions were called 'Minne,' or Friendships—an idea reproduced in the 'Amicitiae,' to which allusion is so frequently made in the deeds of ancient corporations. . . . After a time the name of 'Minne' came to be supplanted by that of 'Ghilde,' meaning a feast at the common expense. Each ghilde was placed under the tutelage of a departed hero, or demigod, and was managed by officers elected by the members—social equality being the foundation of each fraternity. Subsequent to the introduction of Christianity the demigod was replaced by a saint, while the members were enjoined to practise works of piety. . . . The Ghildes were the base of the municipal administration, and gradually assumed the government of the town, but took another form and appellation. The word was thenceforward applied, in its restricted sense of Guild, as referring to trade corporations, while the previous organisation came to be described in French and Latin documents as Commune or Communia, and embraced all who were entitled to gather together in the cauter, or public place, when the bell rang out the summons from the town belfry. In Flanders the Communes grew out of popular institutions of ancient date, and, though, no doubt, their influence was sensibly increased by their confirmation at the hands of King or Count, they did not owe their origin to royal or seigniorial charters."—J. Hutton, *James and Philip Van Arteveldt*, pt. 1, ch. 1.

**GUILDS OF FLORENCE.** See FLORENCE: 1250-1293.

**GUILFORD COURT HOUSE, Battle of** (1781). See U. S. A.: 1780-1781.

**GUILLAUMAT, Marie Adolphe** (1863- ), French general. Commanded attack at Verdun, 1917; succeeded General Sarrail as Allied commander-in-chief at Salonika, December, 1917-1918; military governor of Paris, June, 1918; appointed to command 5th Army, October, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: f; f, 2; 1918; V. Balkan theater: c, 2.

**GUILLAUME, Charles Edouard**, French physicist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1920.

**GUILLE VS. SWAN**, case in aerial law. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Aerial law.

**GUILLEMONT**, town in France about six miles northwest of Peronne. It was a region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 3; d, 9; 1918: II. Western front: p, 1.

**GUILLOTINE**, instrument of decapitation in use at the present time in France, Belgium, and parts of Germany. It consists of two upright posts, grooved on the inside, along which groove a sharp and heavy slanting blade descends on the neck of the victim, who is bound to a board beneath it. It was the invention of a Dr. Guillotin during the French Revolution. "It was during these winter months [of the session of the French National Assembly, 1790] that Dr. Guillotin read his long discourse upon the reformation of the penal code; of which the 'Moniteur' has not preserved a single word. This discourse attracts our attention on two accounts:—First, it proposed a decree that there should be but one kind of punishment for capital crimes; secondly, that the arm of the executioner should be replaced by the action of a machine, which Dr. Guillotin had invented. 'With the aid of my machine,' said the glib doctor, 'I will make your head spring off in the twinkling of an eye, and you will suffer nothing.' Bursts of laughter met this declaration; nevertheless, the Assembly listened with attention, and adopted the proposal."—G. H. Lewes, *Life of Robespierre*, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: G. Everitt, *Guillotine the Great and her successors*.—J. W. Croker, *History of the guillotine*.

**GUIMBAYAS TRIBES.** See COLOMBIA: Inhabitants.

**GUINEA, New.** See NEW GUINEA.

**GUINEA, Portuguese.** See PORTUGUESE GUINEA.

**GUINEGATE, Battle of** (1478), a bloody but indecisive battle, fought between the French, on one side, and Flemish and Burgundian troops on the other, in the war produced by the attempt of Louis XI to rob Mary of Burgundy of her heritage. It was followed by a long truce, and a final treaty.—E. Smedley, *History of France*, pt. 1, ch. 17.

**Battle of** (1513). See FRANCE: 1513-1515.

**GUINES, Treaty of** (1546). See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

**GUINCELLI, Guido** (c. 1240-c. 1276), early Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 12th-14th centuries.

**GUIPUZCOA**, province in Spain. See BASQUE PROVINCES.

**GUISCARD, Robert, Duke of Apulia and Calabria** (c. 1015-1085), Norman warrior, famous for exploits in Italy and Sicily. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1081-1085; ITALY (Southern): 1000-1090; 1081-1104.

**GUISCARD**, town in France, southwest of St. Quentin. In 1918 of the World War it was in the

region of fighting. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 17; c, 20; d.

**GUISE**, Francis de Lorraine, 2nd Duke of (1519-1563), French general and statesman. Defended Metz against Charles V, 1552-1553; captured Calais, 1555; instigated the Huguenot massacre at Vassy in 1562, which started civil wars; was mortally wounded at Orleans in 1563. See **FRANCE**: 1560-1563.

**GUISE**, Henry I de Lorraine, 3rd Duke of (1550-1588), French statesman and head of the Catholic League in France. Took active part in the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day; desired to depose King Henry III in 1588; assassinated. See **FRANCE**: 1572 (August): Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day; 1576-1585; 1584-1589.

**Guise**, Henry II de Lorraine, 5th Duke of (1614-1664), French general and adventurer. Assisted Naples insurrection in 1647-1648. See **ITALY**: 1646-1654.

**GUISE**, Battle of (1914). See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: i.

**GUISE**, House of. See **FRANCE**: 1547-1559; 1559-1561; 1560-1563.

**GUINNES**. See **FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD**.  
**GUISTINIANI FAMILY**, Rome. See **ROME**: Modern city: 1600-1656.

**GUITEAU**, Charles Jules (c. 1840-1882), assassin of President Garfield. See **U. S. A.**: 1881.

**GUIZOT**, François Pierre Guillaume (1787-1874), French historian and statesman. Minister of public instruction, 1832-1837; on his return from England, where he was sent as minister, he became minister of foreign affairs, and finally at the retirement of Soult he succeeded as prime minister. At the overthrow of Louis Philippe in 1848 he fled to London; returned to France, 1849; but the *coup d'état* of December 2, 1851, ended his political career. He devoted the rest of his life to historical and literary labors.—See also **FRANCE**: 1830-1840; 1841-1848; **DOCTRINAIRES**; **HISTORY**: 27; 29.

**GUJERAT**, geographical division of western India. See **BOMBAY**: Presidency.

**Battle of** (1849). See **INDIA**: 1845-1849.

**Language**. See **PHILOLOGY**: 16.

**GULFLIGHT**, American oil tank steamship. Torpedoed without warning by German submarine off Scilly islands, May 1, 1915. The German government expressed regrets and offered reparation for damage incurred by American citizens and for the lives of the Americans on board. See **U. S. A.**: 1915 (March-May); (June).

**GULICK**, Luther Halsey (1865-1918), American specialist on physical education. See **CAMP FIRE GIRLS**; **RECREATION**: 1906-1914.

**GULLSTRAND**, Allvar (1862- ), Swedish optician and physicist. See **NOBEL PRIZES**: Medicine: 1911.

**GUMBINNEN**, Battles of (1914, 1915). See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 1; 1915: III. Eastern front: h.

**GUNBOAT FLEET**. See **U. S. A.**: 1804-1805: Jefferson's plans of national defense.

**GUNCOTTON**: Discovery and development of fire. See **CHEMISTRY**: Practical application: Explosives: Guncotton.

**GUNDOBAD**, or Gundibald (d. 516), king of Burgundy. See **BURGUNDY**: 500.

**GUNPOWDER**: Origin and development. See **CHEMISTRY**: Practical application: Explosives: Gunpowder; Black gunpowder; **ORDNANCE**: 14th-18th centuries.

**GUNPOWDER PLOT**. See **ENGLAND**: 1605.

**GUNS**. See **ORDNANCE**: 19th century; **RIFLES AND REVOLVERS**.

**GUNTHER**, Johan Christian (1695-1723), German poet. See **GERMAN LITERATURE**: 1600-1750.

**GUPTA ERA**, India. See **INDIA**: B. C. 231- A. D. 480.

**GURIA**, province in the Caucasus. See **CAUCASUS**: 1801-1877; **GEORGIA**, REPUBLIC OF: 1800-1918.

**GURKHAS**, Goorkas, or Ghorkas, Ilindu race, Nepal, India, claiming descent from the rajas of Chittore and Rajputana. Since their conquest by the British in 1814, they have been noted for their loyalty, and some 20,000 serve in the Gurkha regiments in the India army.—See also **INDIA**: People; 1805-1816; **RAJPUTS**.

**GURLEY**, Robert, American divine and first governor of Liberia. See **LIBERIA**: 1824-1847.

**GURNEY**, Goldsworthy (1793-1875), English engineer. See **AUTOMOBILES**: 1826-1895.

**GURNEY**, Joseph John (1788-1847), English Quaker. See **FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF**: 1827-1920.

**GURU**, chief-teacher, priest, and spiritual guide of the Sikh religion, of whom there have been ten, the last, Govind Singh, dying in 1708. See **SIKHS**.

**GUSTAVE ZEDE**, name of an early submarine. See **SUBMARINES**: 1888-1893.

**GUSTAVUS I** (Gustavus Vasa) (1496-1560), king of Sweden, 1523-1560. See **SWEDEN**: 1523-1604; **SCANDINAVIAN STATES**: 1397-1527.

**Gustavus II** (Gustavus Adolphus) (1594-1632), king of Sweden, 1611-1632. Raised Sweden to a commanding position; victorious over Denmark, 1613, over Russia 1617; prevented the designs of Sigismund of Poland, 1621-1629; great defender of the cause of Protestantism in Germany, 1630-1632. See **SWEDEN**: 1611-1629. See **GERMANY**: 1627-1629; 1630-1631; 1631; 1631 (January); 1631-1632; **AUSTRIA**: 1618-1648; **BRANDENBURG**: 1630-1634; **POLAND**: 1590-1648.

**Gustavus III** (1746-1792), king of Sweden, 1771-1792. See **SWEDEN**: 1720-1792.

**Gustavus IV** (Gustavus Adolphus) (1778-1837), king of Sweden, 1792-1809. See **SWEDEN**: 1720-1792; 1807-1810.

**Gustavus V** (Gustavus Adolphus) (1858- ), king of Sweden since 1907. See **SWEDEN**: 1914-1917.

**GUTBORM**, or Guthrum, king of Norway, 1204-1205.

**GUTENBERG**, Johann (c. 1398-1468), inventor of printing with movable type. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS**: Before 14th century; 1430-1456; **BIBLE, ENGLISH**: 14th-16th centuries.

**GUTHRIE**, George Wilkins (1848- ), American publicist and diplomat. See **PITTSBURGH**: 1906; 1909.

**GUTHRIE**, city in Logan county, Oklahoma. See **OKLAHOMA**: 1889-1890.

**GUTIERREZ DE LARA**, Bernardo (1778-1814), Mexican patriot. See **TEXAS**: 1790-1821.

**GUTSTADT**, Battle of (1807). See **GERMANY**: 1807 (February-June).

**GUTTONES**, ancient German tribe inhabiting the shores of the Baltic sea. See **PRUSSIAN LANGUAGE**: Old.

**GUUCHIES TRIBES**. See **PAMPAS TRIBES**.

**GUY I OF ATHENS**. See **ATHENS**: 1205-1308.

**Guy II of Athens**. See **ATHENS**: 1205-1308.

**GUY**, John (d. 1628), governor of Newfoundland. See **NEWFOUNDLAND**: 1610-1655.

**GUY**, Louis (1768-1840), Canadian colonel. See **U. S. A.**: 1770 (August-September).

**GUY FAWKES' DAY**, November 5, the anniversary of the day on which the conspirators of the "Gunpowder Plot" intended to blow up king and parliament, in England. See **ENGLAND**: 1605.

**GUY OF LUSIGNAN** (1140-1194), king of Jerusalem. See **JERUSALEM**: 1144-1187; 1187-1229.

**GUYAU**, Jean Marie (1854-1888), French philosopher. See **ETHICS**: 18th-19th centuries.

**GUYENNE**. See **GUIENNE**.

**GUYENNE**, Battle of (1453). See **FRANCE**: 1431-1453.

**GUYNEMER**, George (1894-1917), French aviator. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: XIII. War in the air.

**GUYON**, Jeanne Marie Bouvier de la Motte (1648-1717), French writer on mysticism. See **MYSTICISM**: Quietism.

**GUZMAN BLANCO**, Antonio (1829-1899), Venezuelan general and statesman. See **VENEZUELA**: 1829-1886; 1869-1892.

**GWALIOR**, large native state in central India, under the control of its own maharajah, but one of the feudatory states of the British empire. Population in 1922 about 3,000,000.

**GWENT**, early name for southeast Wales. See **BRITAIN**: 6th century: **WINCHESTER**.

**GWIN**, William McKendry (1805-1885), United States Senator, 1850-1861. See **CALIFORNIA**: 1840; **OREGON**: 1850-1861.

**GWIN**. See **WINCHESTER**.

**GWINNET**, Button (c. 1732-1777), American patriot. Signer of the Declaration of Independence. See **U. S. A.**: 1776 (July): Text of the Declaration of Independence.

**GWLEDIG**, Welsh title, signifying ruler or prince, which was taken by the native leader in Britain after the Romans left. He was the successor of the Roman duke of Britain.—**J. Rhys**, *Celtic Britain*, ch. 3.—See also **ARTIURIAN LEGEND**.

**GWYNEDD**, early name for Venedotia. See **BRITAIN**: 6th century.

**GYLIPPUS**, Spartan general sent to the assistance of Syracuse, besieged by the Athenians, c. 414 B.C. Active in Peloponnesian War. See **GREECE**: B.C. 413; **SYRACUSE**: B.C. 415-413.

**GYMNASIA**, German, name given to establishments of secondary education in Germany. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 19th century: Germany; Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Germany: Under the empire.

**GYMNASIA**, Greek.—"Amongst public buildings [of the ancient Greeks] we mentioned first the gymnasia, which, originating in the requirements of single persons, soon became centrepoints of Greek life. Corporeal exercise was of great importance amongst the Greeks, and the games and competitions in the various kinds of bodily skill . . . formed a chief feature of their religious feasts. This circumstance reacted on both sculpture and architecture, in supplying the former with models of ideal beauty, and in setting the task to the latter of providing suitable places for these games to be celebrated. For purposes of this kind (as far as public exhibition was not concerned) the palaestrai and gymnasia served. In earlier times these two must be distinguished. In the palaestra . . . young men practised wrestling and boxing. As these arts were gradually developed, larger establishments with separate compartments became necessary. Originally such places were, like the schools of the grammarians, kept by private persons; sometimes they consisted only of open spaces, if possible near a brook and surrounded by trees. Soon, however, regular buildings—gymnasia—became necessary. At first they consisted of an uncovered court surrounded by colonnades, adjoining which lay covered spaces, the former being used for running and jumping, the latter for wrestling. In the same degree as these

exercises became more developed, and as grown-up men began to take an interest in these youthful sports, and spent a great part of their day at the gymnasia, these grew in size and splendour. They soon became a necessary of life, and no town could be without them, larger cities often containing several."—**E. Guhl** and **W. Koner**, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, sect. 25.—Of gymnasia "there were many at Athens; though three only, those of the Academy, Lyceum, and Cynosarges, have acquired celebrity. The site of the first of these gymnasia being low and marshy was in ancient times infested with malaria, but having been drained by Cimon and planted with trees it became a favourite promenade and place of exercise. Here, in walks shaded by the sacred olive, might be seen young men with crowns of rushes in flower upon their heads, enjoying the sweet odour of the smilax and the white poplar, while the platanos and the elm mingled their murmurs in the breeze of spring. The meadows of the Academy, according to Aristophanes the grammarian, were planted with the Apragmosune, a sort of flower so called as though it smelt of all kind of fragrance and safety, like our heart's-ease or flower of the Trinity. This place is supposed to have derived its name from Ecadamos, a public-spirited man who bequeathed his property for the purpose of keeping it in order. . . . The name of the Lyceum, sometimes derived from Lycus, son of Pandion, probably owed its origin to the temenos of Lycian Apollo there situated. It lay near the banks of the Ilissos, and was adorned with stately edifices, fountains and groves. . . . In this place anciently the Polemarch held his court and the forces of the republic were exercised before they went forth to war. Appended to the name of the Cynosarges, or third gymnasium surrounded with groves, was a legend which related that when Diomos was sacrificing to Hestia, a white dog snatched away a part of the victim from the altar, and running straightway out of the city deposited it on the spot where this gymnasium was afterwards erected."—**J. A. St. John**, *Hellenes*, bk. 2, ch. 5.—"The name of that most illustrious of the Athenian gymnasia, the Academy, has been preserved through the dark ages, and exactly in the situation indicated by ancient testimony. We are informed that the Academy was six or eight stades distant from a gate in the wall of the asty named Dipylum, and that the road from thence to the Academy led through that part of the outer Cerameicus, in which it was a custom to bury the Athenian citizens who had fallen in battle on important occasions. Dipylum was the gate . . . whence began the Sacred Way from Athens to Eleusis. . . . It appears also that the Academy lay between the Sacred Way and the Colonus Hippius, a height near the Cephissus, sacred to Neptune, and the scene of the *Œdipus Coloneus* of Sophocles; for the Academy was not far from Colonus, and the latter was ten stades distant from the city. That part of the plain which is near the olive-groves, on the northeastern side of Athens, and is now called Akadhimia, is entirely in conformity with these data. It is on the lowest level, where some water-courses from the ridges of Lycabettus are consumed in gardens and olive plantations."—**W. M. Leake**, *Topography of Athens*, sect. 2.—See also **EDUCATION**: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; Contrast between Athenian and Spartan education.

**GYMNASIARCH**, title of an Athenian official in ancient times. See **LITURGIES**.

**GYMNÔTE**, name of a French submarine. See **SUBMARINES**: 1888-1893.

**GYPSIES.**—"Having in various and distant countries lived in habits of intimacy with these people, I have come to the following conclusions respecting them: that wherever they are found, their manners and customs are virtually the same, though somewhat modified by circumstances, and that the language they speak amongst themselves, and of which they are particularly anxious to keep others in ignorance, is in all countries one and the same, but has been subjected more or less to modification; and lastly, that their countenances exhibit a decided family resemblance, but are darker or fairer according to the temperature of the climate, but invariably darker, at least in Europe, than the natives of the countries in which they dwell, for example, England and Russia, Germany and Spain. The names by which they are known differ with the country, though, with one or two exceptions, not materially; for example, they are styled in Russia, Zigan; in Turkey and Persia, Zingarri; and in Germany, Zigeuner; all which words apparently spring from the same etymon, which there is no improbability in supposing to be 'Zincali,' a term by which these people, especially those of Spain, sometimes designate themselves, and the meaning of which is believed to be, 'The black men of Zend or Ind.' In England and Spain they are commonly known as Gypsies and Gitanos, from a general belief that they were originally Egyptians, to which the two words are tantamount; and in France as Bohemians, from the circumstance that Bohemia was the first country in civilized Europe where they made their appearance; though there is reason for supposing that they had been wandering in the remote regions of Slavonia for a considerable time previous, as their language abounds with words of Slavonic origin, which could not have been adopted in a hasty passage through a wild and half populated country. But they generally style themselves and the language which they speak, Rommany [see also PHILOLOGY: 26]. This word . . . is of Sanscrit origin, and signifies, 'The Husbands,' or that which pertaineth unto them. From whatever motive this appellation may have originated, it is perhaps more applicable than any other to a sect or caste like them, who have no love and no affection beyond their own race; who are capable of making great sacrifices for each other, and who gladly prey upon all the rest of the human species, whom they detest, and by whom they are hated and despised. It will perhaps not be out of place to observe here, that there is no reason for supposing that the word Roma or Rommany is derived from the Arabic word which signifies Greece or Grecians, as some people not much acquainted with the language of the race in question have imagined. . . . Scholars have asserted that the language which they speak proves them to be of Indian stock, and undoubtedly a great number of their words are Sanscrit. . . . There is scarcely a part of the habitable world where they are not to be found; their tents are alike pitched on the heaths of Brazil and the ridges of the Himalayan hills, and their language is heard at Moscow and Madrid, in the streets of London and Stamboul."—G. Borrow, *Zincali*, v. 1, pp. 2-5.—"One day, 450 years ago, or thereabouts, there knocked at the gates of the city of Lüneburg, on the Elbe, as strange a rabble rout as had ever been seen by German burgher. There were 300 of them, men and women, accompanied by an extraordinary number of children. They were dusky of skin, with jet-black hair and eyes; they wore strange garments; they were unwashed and dirty even beyond the liberal limits tolerated by the cold-water-fearing citizens of Lüneburg;

they had with them horses, donkeys, and carts; they were led by two men whom they described as Duke and Count. . . . All the Lüneburgers turned out to gaze open-mouthed at these pilgrims, while the Duke and the Count told the authorities their tale, which was wild and romantic. . . . Many years before, they explained, while the tears of penitence stood in the eyes of all but the youngest children, they had been a Christian community, living in orthodoxy, and therefore happiness, in a far-off country known as Egypt. . . . They were then a happy Christian flock. To their valley came the Saracens, an execrable race, worshipping Mahound Yielding, in an evil hour, to the threats and persecutions of their conquerors, they—here they turned their faces and wept aloud—they abjured Christ. But thereafter they had no rest or peace, and a remorse so deep fell upon their souls that they were fain to arise, leave their homes, and journey to Rome in hope of getting reconciliation with the Church. They were graciously received by the Pope, who promised to admit them back into the fold after seven years of penitential wandering. They had letters of credit from King Sigismund—would the Lüneburgers kindly look at them?—granting safe conduct and recommending them to the protection of all honest people. The Lüneburg folk were touched at the recital of so much suffering in a cause so good; they granted the request of the strangers. They allowed them to encamp. . . . The next day the strangers visited the town. In the evening a good many things were missed, especially those unconsidered trifles which a housewife may leave about her doorway. Poultry became suddenly scarce; eggs doubled in price; it was rumoured that purses had been lost while their owners gazed at the strangers; cherished cups of silver were not to be found. . . . While the Lüneburgers took counsel in their leisurely way, how to meet a case so uncommon, the pilgrims suddenly decamped, leaving nothing behind them but the ashes of their fires and the picked bones of the purloined poultry. . . . This was the first historical appearance of Gipsies. It was a curious place to appear in. The mouth of the Elbe is a long way from Egypt, even if you travel by sea, which does not appear to have been the case; and a journey on land not only would have been infinitely more fatiguing, but would, one would think, have led to some notice on the road before reaching Lüneburg. There, however, the Gipsies certainly are first heard of, and henceforth history has plenty to say about their doings. From Lüneburg they went to Hamburg, Lübeck, Rostock, Griefswald, travelling in an easterly direction. They are mentioned as having appeared in Saxony, where they were driven away . . . for their thievish propensities. They travelled through Switzerland, headed by their great Duke Michael, and pretending to have been expelled from Egypt by the Turks. Their story in these early years, though it varied in particulars, remained the same in essentials. In Provence they called themselves Saracens; in Swabia they were Egyptians doomed to everlasting wanderings for having refused hospitality to the Virgin and Joseph; at Bâle, where they exhibited letters of safe conduct from the Pope, they were also Egyptians. Always the Land of the Nile; always the same pretence, or it may be reminiscence, of sojourn in Egypt; always, to soothe the suspicions of priests, faithful and submissive sons of the Church. From the very first their real character was apparent. They lie, cheat and steal at Lüneburg; they lie and steal everywhere; they tell fortunes and cut purses, they buy

and sell horses, they poison pigs, they rob and plunder, they wander and they will not work. They first came to Paris in the year 1427, when more people went to see them, we are told, than ever crowded to the Fair of Laudet. . . . They remained at St. Denis for a month, when they received peremptory orders to quit for the usual reason. . . . In the 16th century trouble began for the Roman folk. By this time their character was perfectly well known. They were called Bohemians, Heathen, Gitanos, Pharaohites, Robbers, Tartars, and Zigeuner. They had abandoned the old lying story of the penitential wanderings; they were outcasts; their hand was against every man's hand; their customs were the same then as they are described now by Leland or Borrow."—*Gipsies and their friends* (*Temple Bar*, v. 47), pp. 65-67.—"Since the publication of Pott's book upon the gypsies [*Die Zigeuner in Europa und Asien*—about 30 years ago—we have come to regard the origin of this singular people with considerable unanimity of opinion. Almost nobody doubts now that they are Indians; and the assumption that all the gypsies scattered throughout Europe are descended from one parent stock meets with little contradiction. Both of these beliefs are the outcome of the investigation of their language. . . . Pott, in the introduction to his book, and quoting from the 'Shah-Name' of Firdousi, informs us that, during the 5th century of our era, the Persian monarch, Behram Gour, received from an Indian king 12,000 musicians of both sexes, who were known as Luris. Now, as this is the name by which the gypsies of Persia are known even at the present day, and as, moreover, the author of the Persian work 'Modjmal at-tawarikh' emphatically says that the Luris or Lulis of modern Persia are the descendants of these same 12,000 musicians, there is no bazard in the assumption that we have here the first recorded gypsy migration. Confirmation of this is afforded by the Arabian historian, Hamza of Ispahan, who wrote half a century before Firdousi, and who was well versed in the history of the Sassanides. It is related by this author that Behram Gour caused 12,000 musicians, called Zott, to be sent from India for the benefit of his subjects. An 'Zott' is the name by which the gypsies were known to the Arabs, and which they even bear in Damascus at the present day. In the Arabic dictionary 'al-Kamus' this entry occurs. 'Zott, arabicized from Jatt, a people of Indian origin. The word might be pronounced Zatt with equal correctness.' . . . For the fatherland of these Zott, or Jatt, we have not long to seek. Istakhri and Ibn-Haukal, the celebrated 10th-century geographers, recount as follows:—'Between al-Mansura and Mokran the waters of the Indus have formed marshes, the borders of which are inhabited by certain Indian tribes called Zott; those of them who dwell near the river live in huts, like the huts of the Berbers, and subsist chiefly on fish and water-fowl; while those occupying the level country further inland live like the Kurds, supporting themselves on milk, cheese, and maize.' In these same regions there are yet two more tribes placed by these geog-

raphers, namely, the Bodha and the Meid. The former are properly, according to Ibn-Haukal, a subdivision of the Zott. . . . In course of time the Meds (to adopt the spelling favoured by Sir Henry Elliott) overcame the Zotts, whom they treated with such severity that they had to leave the country. The Zotts then established themselves on the river Peben, where they soon became skillful sailors"; while those living farther to the north, known as Kikan, became famed as breeders of horses and herders of buffalos. When the Arabs, in their career of conquest, came in contact with the Zotts, the latter joined them, and large colonies of them were removed, for some reason, to western Asia, and settled with their herds on the lower Euphrates and Tigris, and in Syria. The Zotts on the Tigris became strong and troublesome in time, and in 834 the khalif Motacem, after subjugating them by force, removed them from the country, to the number of 27,000, sending them to Ainzarba, on the northern frontier of Syria. In 855, Ainzarba was captured by the Byzantines, who carried off the Zotts, with all their buffalo herds. "Here, then, we have the first band of gypsies brought into the Greek Empire. . . . As regards the destinies of the Zotts after they had been brought to Asia Minor from Ainzarba, in the year 855, I have been unable—in the course of a hurried search—to discover anything. But, now that we know the year in which they entered Byzantine territory, others may be more successful. Whether the name Zott, or rather its Indian form Jatt (or Jaut), has also been brought with them into Europe, I am, of course, as little able to say."—M. J. de Goeje, *Contribution to the history of the gypsies* (D. MacRitchie, ed., *Accounts of the gypsies of India*).—"Students of the gypsies, and especially those who have interested themselves in the history of the race, will have read with regret the announcement of the death, at Paris, on March 1st, of the veteran 'tsiganologue,' M. Paul Bataillard. For the last half century he had devoted his leisure time to the study of the early notices of the presence of gypsies in Europe. . . . It was his opinion that there have been gypsies in Eastern Europe since prehistoric times, and that it is to them Europe owes its knowledge of metallurgy. Heterodox although this opinion may be, it has recently been observed by Mr. F. H. Groome that 'Bataillard's theory is gaining favour with foreign archæologists, among whom MM. Mortillet, Chantre, and Burnouf had arrived independently at similar conclusions.'"—*Athenæum*, Mar. 31, 1894.

ALSO IN: C. G. Leland, *English gypsies*, ch. 8-10.

—W. Simson, *History of the gypsies*.

GYRO-COMPASS, Submarine. See SUBMARINES: 1918.

GYROSCOPE. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Instruments; 20th century: Instruments; TORPEDO: Development.

GYRWAS.—"Fen-folk," the name taken by a body of Engle freebooters who occupied the islands in the Fen district of England for a long time before they were able to possess the Roman-British towns and country on its border.—J. R. Green, *Making of England*, ch. 2.—See ENGLAND: 547-633.



H

**HAAKON I**, the Good (c. 920-c. 961), king of Norway, c. 934-961.

**Haakon, Jarl**, ruler of Norway, 977-995.

**Haakon II**, Herdebred (1147-1162), king of Norway, 1161-1162.

**Haakon III**, king of Norway, 1202-1204.

**Haakon IV**, Haakonsson (1204-1263), king of Norway, 1217-1263. See ICELAND: 1262; NORMANS; 10th-13th centuries.

**Haakon V**, king of Norway, 1299-1319.

**Haakon VI**, king of Norway, 1343-1380; king of Sweden, 1362-1363.

**Haakon VII** (1872- ), king of Norway since 1905. Was formerly Prince Charles of Denmark. See NORWAY: 1902-1905.

**HAAN**, William George (1863- ), American general, noted for advocacy of education in the army. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 44.

**HAARLEM**, city in north Holland, and capital of the province, located about ten miles west of Amsterdam. See NETHERLANDS: Map.

1573.—Siege and capture by Alva. See NETHERLANDS: 1572-1573.

1813.—Revolt against the French. See NETHERLANDS: 1813.

**HAASE**, Hugo (1863-1919), leader of the German Independent Socialist party. Succeeded Bebel as the president of the Social Democratic party; member of the Reichstag, 1897-1919, except in 1907. In 1915 he declared himself against further war credits, broke with his party, and formed the Independent Socialist party. He became a member of the first coalition cabinet in November, 1918, but resigned a month later. He was assassinated in 1919 as he was entering the Reichstag. See GERMANY: 1918 (November); 1918-1919 (December-January).

**HABANA**. See HAVANA.

**HABĀSA**, name for Abyssinia. See ARABIA: The Sabāans.

**HABEAS CORPUS**.—"The right to personal liberty as understood in England," says Dicey, "means in substance a person's right not to be subjected to imprisonment, arrest, or other physical coercion in any manner that does not admit of legal justification." Since the seventeenth century, the right to the writ of Habeas Corpus has been justly regarded as the most effective among the guarantees of personal liberty. In brief the legal process is this: a court of competent jurisdiction, upon application, issues a writ to an officer or to any person holding another in custody, commanding him to bring the prisoner before the court at once and show the reasons for his detention. If in the judgment of the court the charges do not justify such detention, the prisoner is discharged. But if they are considered adequate, and the offense is bailable, he is released upon furnishing suitable bail; otherwise he is remanded to prison. To the English people is due the credit for having created this most effective remedy for infringement upon personal liberty, although it has now been adopted with various modifications in nearly all civilized countries. The tendency of legal writers has been to obscure the origin and development of the writ of Habeas Corpus behind a mass of vague generalities, extolling the liberty of the English subject. In the absence of a careful and detailed history of the writ, it is the purpose of this article to outline the principal changes through which it has passed to become the chief safeguard of personal liberty. The right to the writ of

Habeas Corpus is ascribed by many to the famous statute bearing that name passed by Parliament in 1679 [see ENGLAND: 1679 (May)]. But this act merely corrected certain important defects and abolished many abuses of a practice long known at Common Law. On the other hand, many legal writers have endeavored to find in articles 39, 39 and 40 of Magna Charta, a recognition of the principles involved in the writ of Habeas Corpus. Although the last two clauses declare that rights of justice and personal liberty will not be violated, they cannot as they stand be made to imply the writ of Habeas Corpus. . . . It was not until near the close of the Tudor period that the people began to demand more effective guarantees against the exercise of the arbitrary powers of the crown over personal liberty. . . . Thus as early as 1592, at least, Habeas Corpus was established as an independent writ to test the validity of imprisonment. But as yet it afforded no relief when the commitment was made in consequence of a warrant from the crown or the Privy Council. . . . The Commons were not content to leave the matter in this state. In the course of a long and heated discussion, they passed a unanimous resolution on April 3, 1628, denying the right of the king, the privy council, or anyone, to imprison or detain a freeman without a legal warrant setting forth the reasons for detention and affirming the right of every man confined to prison, even under the express command of the king or the council to demand and obtain a writ of Habeas Corpus. This resolution was made the basis of an important part of the Petition of Right, passed by Parliament of May 27th. After quoting 39 Magna Charta and a portion of 25 Edw. II, C. 3, the Petition continues: 'Divers of your subjects have of late been imprisoned without any cause shown, and when for their deliverance they were brought before your justices by your majesty's writs of Habeas Corpus and there to undergo and receive as the court should order, and their keepers commanded to certify the causes of their detainer, no cause was certified, but they were detained by your majesty's special command, signed by the lords of your privy council, and yet were returned back to their several prisons without being charged with anything to which they might answer according to the law. They, therefore, humbly pray your Most Excellent Majesty . . . that no freeman in any such manner as is before mentioned, be imprisoned or detained.' After a vigorous protest, the king signed the petition on June 7, 1628, thereby giving it the force of law. . . . One of the charges preferred against Clarendon in the articles of impeachment of 1667 was, 'That he hath advised and procured divers of his majesty's subjects to be imprisoned against the law . . . thereby to prevent them from the benefit of the law.' Whether this charge were true or false, it is certain that cases arose between 1660-1679 in which the prisoner suffered great hardship because of unsettled points in the practice of Habeas Corpus, and it appears that the administration took advantage of these defects for political purposes. The Shaftesbury and the Jenks cases were certainly of this character. . . . On June 27, 1677, Shaftesbury was brought before the court of King's Bench by an Alias Writ of Habeas Corpus. The return stated merely that the prisoner was held in custody by order of the Lords for 'high contempt committed against the House.' In spite of a vig-

orous protest by Shaftesbury's counsel, the court held that since the commitment had been ordered by the king's highest court, the court of King's Bench had no jurisdiction in the matter. He was remanded and not released until late in the following February upon order of the Lords themselves. The case was clearly one of political oppression. It is significant that Shaftesbury was later the author of the Habeas Corpus Act as passed in 1679, and it has been said, without definite proof, that he drafted the Act while in prison at this time. . . . In February, 1674, 'An act for the speedy relief of persons detained for criminal matters,' was passed by the Commons, but apparently no action was taken by the Lords. A similar fate awaited another bill in June, 1675. In March and April, 1677, the Lords themselves had originated and passed through the second reading, 'An act for the better security of liberty of the subject,' but it was dropped. Finally, in the spring of 1679, after a long series of compromises and joint conferences, the Habeas Corpus Act was passed by both houses and signed by the king on May 27th. On the day that the king signed the bill he dissolved Parliament. It has been suggested that pending the new election, Charles II had approved the measure to gain popular support. According to the provisions of 31 Charles II, C. 2, any person detained for crime, 'unless for treason and felony plainly expressed in the warrant of commitment,' or anyone in his behalf, has the right to demand a writ of Habeas Corpus of the courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, Chancery or Exchequer, or of any of the judges of the same, if the above courts are not in session. The existing law provided the remedy when the appeal was made to the court. But in case the appeal was made to the judges personally the Habeas Corpus Act required that on view of a copy of the warrant of commitment, or the oath of two witnesses that such a copy had been denied, he issued at once a writ of Habeas Corpus to the one holding the prisoner in charge, commanding him within a period not less than three nor more than twenty days, depending upon the distance, to bring before the judge the body of the prisoner and show reasons for his detention. Within two days after the prisoner was presented, the judge was obliged to bail or remand him in accordance with the provisions of the law for the particular offense. If the judge to whom the proper demand was made refused to act in accord with the intent of the statute, he was made liable to a forfeit of 500 pounds to the aggrieved person. If the gaoler refused a copy of the warrant of commitment within six hours after the demand had been made, or transferred the prisoner into the custody of another except in obedience to a legal process, or failed to make a proper return to the writ of Habeas Corpus within the time specified, he was liable to a forfeiture of 100 pounds to the aggrieved person. Once released on a writ of Habeas Corpus, the defendant was privileged against further arrest for the same offense. Although those 'committed for high treason, plainly and specially expressed in the warrant of commitment,' were denied the writ of Habeas Corpus, conviction must be had no later than the end of the second session of the court after arrest; but in the failure of such conviction the prisoner must be discharged."—C. C. Crawford (P. L. Kaye, *Readings in civil government*, pp. 105-110).—See also COMMON LAW: 1680.

Ancient Rome. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 509. President Lincoln's suspension of the writ (1861). See **U. S. A.**: 1861-1863.

**HABER**, Fritz (1868- ), German chemist. See **NOBEL PRIZES**: Chemistry: 1918.

**HABIBULLAH KHAN** (1872-1919), amir of Afghanistan, 1901-1919. See **AFGHANISTAN**: 1901-1906; 1919.

**HABSBERG**. See **HAPSBERG**.

**HACKINSACK INDIANS**. See **ALGONQUIANS**.

**HACO**, name of several kings of Norway. See **HAAKON**.

**HADFIELD**, Sir Robert A. (1859- ), English metallurgist. Inventor of manganese steel and other metallurgical improvements; awarded the John Fritz medal, 1921.

**HADJI**. See **HAJJ**.

**HADLEY**, Arthur Twining (1856- ), American educator. Was tutor at Yale, 1879-1883; university lecturer on railroad transportation, 1883-1886; commissioner of labor statistics for Connecticut, 1885-1887; professor of political science, Yale, 1886-1898, and president of Yale, 1899-1921. See **ACADEMIC FREEDOM**: Opinion of President Hadley.

**HADLEY**, John (1682-1744), English mathematician and physicist. Improved the telescope. See **INVENTIONS**: 18th century: Instruments.

**HADRIAN**, name of six popes. See **ADRIAN**.

**HADRIAN** (Publius Aelius Hadrianus) (70-138), Roman emperor, 117-138. He was successively military tribune, quaestor, tribune of the plebs, praetor, and consul, 95-119; served in both Dacian campaigns of Trajan; was legatus in the Parthian campaign, 113-117. Said to have been adopted by Trajan, upon whose death, in 117, he became emperor; built the great rampart from Tyne to Solway, 122; visited Asia Minor, 129, ordered Jerusalem rebuilt, 130; restored the tomb of Pompey at Pelusium, 130; returned to Syria, 133, and to Rome, 135. Hadrian was a most capable emperor and devoted his talents to the interests of the state.—See also **ROME**: Empire: A. D. 96-138; **ATHENS**: B. C. 197-A. D. 138; 125-134; **BRITAIN**: 117-145; **CASTLE ST. ANGELO**; **JEW**s: 130-134; **ROMAN WALLS IN BRITAIN**.

**HADRIANOPE**. See **ADRIANOPE**.

**HADRIAN'S MAUSOLEUM**. See **CASTLE ST. ANGELO**.

**HADRIAN'S WALL**. See **ROMAN WALLS IN BRITAIN**.

**HADRUMETUM**, or **Adrumentum**, one of the coast towns of ancient Carthage. See **CARTHAGE**: Dominions.

**HAECKEL**, Ernest Heinrich (1834-1919), German scientist. First German biologist to give whole-hearted adherence to the doctrine of organic evolution; chosen professor of comparative anatomy and director of the Zoological Institute, Jena, 1862; held chair of zoölogy, in the same university, 1865-1908. See **EVOLUTION**: Historical development of the idea.

**HÆDUI**. See **ÆDUI**.

**HAELEN**, town in Belgium. Scene of fighting during World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: c, 1.

**HÆMUS**, Mount, ancient name of the Balkan chain of mountains.

**HÆRRED**. See **HUNDRED**.

**HAESLER**, Count Gottlieb von (1835-1919), German field marshal. Served in the Danish War, 1864; Seven Weeks' War with Austria, 1866; Franco-German War, 1870; World War, 1914-1916.

**HAFFKINE'S PROPHYLACTIC FOR PLAGUE**. See **PLAGUE**: Bubonic.

**HAFIZ** (c. 1388), one of the greatest of Persian lyric poets. His chief work is a collection of short poems called the "Divan."—See also **PERSIAN LITERATURE**.

**HAGENAU**, or *Haguenau*, town in Germany, sixteen miles north of Strasburg.

1648.—Ceded to France. See GERMANY: 1648; Peace of Westphalia.

Treaty of (1330). See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

**HAGGAI**, Jewish prophet of postexilic period. See JEWS: Religion. 1 the prophets.

**HAGMATAN**, or *Ecbatana*. See ECBATANA.

**HAGUE**, The, seat of government of the Netherlands, and residence of the sovereign. It is situated in the Province of South Holland, three miles from the North sea. (See NETHERLANDS: Map.) It possessed no municipal rights until the time of Louis Bonaparte. "Unlike other Dutch cities, the Hague owed its importance, not to commerce or manufactures, but to having early been made the seat of government of the United Provinces, and to the constant presence of the officers of state and the foreign ministers accredited to the republic. For four centuries the abode of the counts of Holland, it derives its name from the 'Haeg' or hedge encircling the magnificent park which formed their ancient hunting ground."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the state of New York*, v. 1, p. 61.—Among its notable buildings are the Groot Kerk, built during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries; the Mauritshuis, which contains a picture gallery rich in Rembrandts; the Municipal Museum, and the Royal library (see LIBRARIES: Modern: Netherlands). The city has often been the seat of treaty negotiations. The negotiations of the Triple Alliance of England, Sweden, and the Netherlands against France, 1668, and of the Triple Alliance of England, France and Holland for the maintenance of the Treaty of Utrecht, 1717, took place there. In 1899 and 1907 it was the scene of the Hague Peace Conferences. It is now the seat of the Permanent Court of International Justice. See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

**HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899.**—First International conference.—Invitation of Count Muraviev.—Suggested program.—On August 24, 1898, without previous heralding or intimation, Count Muraviev, the Russian minister for foreign affairs, placed copies of the following momentous proposal from the tsar in the hands of all the foreign representatives attending his weekly reception at St. Petersburg: "The maintenance of universal peace and a possible reduction of the excessive armaments which weigh upon all nations represent, in the present condition of affairs all over the world, the ideal towards which the efforts of all Governments should be directed. This view fully corresponds with the humane and magnanimous intentions of His Majesty the Emperor, my august Master. Being convinced that this high aim agrees with the most essential interests and legitimate aspirations of all the Powers, the Imperial Government considers the present moment a very favourable one for seeking, through international discussion, the most effective means of assuring to all peoples the blessings of real and lasting peace, and above all of limiting the progressive development of existing armaments. During the last twenty years aspirations towards general pacification have particularly asserted themselves in the consciences of civilized nations. The preservation of peace has been made the aim of international policy; for the sake of peace the Great Powers have formed powerful alliances, and for the purpose of establishing a better guarantee of peace they have developed their military forces in an unprecedented degree, and continue to develop them without hesitating at any sacrifice. All these efforts, however, have not yet led to the

beneficent results of the desired pacification. The ever increasing financial burdens strike at the root of public prosperity. The physical and intellectual forces of the people, labour and capital, are diverted for the greater part from their natural application and wasted unproductively. Hundreds of millions are spent in acquiring terrible engines of destruction which are regarded to-day as the latest inventions of science, but are destined tomorrow to be rendered obsolete by some new discovery. National culture, economical progress, and the production of wealth are either paralysed or developed in a wrong direction. Therefore, the more the armaments of each Power increase, the less they answer to the objects aimed at by the Governments. Economic disturbances are caused in great measure by this system of excessive armaments, and the constant danger involved in this accumulation of war material renders the armed peace of to-day a crushing burden more and more difficult for the nations to bear. It consequently seems evident that if this situation be prolonged, it will inevitably lead to that very disaster which it is desired to avoid, and the horrors of which make every humane mind shudder by anticipation. It is the supreme duty, therefore, at the present moment of all States to put some limit to these unceasing armaments, and to find means of averting the calamities which threaten the whole world. Deeply impressed by this feeling, His Majesty the Emperor has been pleased to command me to propose to all Governments who have Representatives at the Imperial Court the meeting of a Conference to discuss this grave problem. Such a Conference, with God's help, would be a happy augury for the opening century. It would concentrate in one powerful effort the strivings of all States which sincerely wish to bring about the triumph of the grand idea of universal peace over the elements of trouble and discord. It would, at the same time, cement their agreement by a united affirmation of the principles of law and equity on which rest the security of States and the welfare of peoples."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by command: Russia, no. 1, 1899)*. Having allowed his proposition to stand before the world for consideration during a period of four months, and having received from almost every governing authority a formal expression of willingness to join in the conference recommended, the sovereign of Russia pursued his grand design, on January 11, 1899, by the following communication to the foreign representatives at his court: "When, in the month of August last, my august master instructed me to propose to the Governments which have Representatives in St. Petersburg the meeting of a Conference with the object of seeking the most efficacious means for assuring to all peoples the blessings of real and lasting peace, and, above all, in order to put a stop to the progressive development of the present armaments, there appeared to be no obstacle in the way of the realization, at no distant date, of this humanitarian scheme. The cordial reception accorded by nearly all the Powers to the step taken by the Imperial Government could not fail to strengthen this expectation. While highly appreciating the sympathetic terms in which the adhesions of most of the Powers were expressed, the Imperial Cabinet has been also able to collect, with lively satisfaction, evidence of the warmest approval which has reached it, and continues to be received, from all classes of society in various parts of the globe. Notwithstanding the strong current of opinion which set in in favour of the ideas of general pacification, the political horizon has recently un-

dergone a sensible change. Several Powers have undertaken fresh armaments, striving to increase further their military forces, and in the presence of this uncertain situation, it might be asked whether the Powers considered the present moment opportune for the international discussion of the ideas set forth in the Circular of the 12th (24th) August. In the hope, however, that the elements of trouble agitating political centres will soon give place to a calmer disposition of a nature to favour the success of the proposed Conference, the Imperial Government is of opinion that it would be possible to proceed forthwith to a preliminary exchange of ideas between the Powers, with the object:—(a.) Of seeking without delay means for putting a limit to the progressive increase of military and naval armaments, a question the solution of which becomes evidently more and more urgent in view of the fresh extension given to these armaments; and (b.) Of preparing the way for a discussion of the questions relating to the possibility of preventing armed conflicts by the pacific means at the disposal of international diplomacy. In the event of the Powers considering the present moment favourable for the meeting of a Conference on these bases, it would certainly be useful for the Cabinets to come to an understanding on the subject of the programme of their labours. The subjects to be submitted for international discussion at the Conference could, in general terms, be summarized as follows:

1. An understanding not to increase for a fixed period the present effective of the armed military and naval forces, and at the same time not to increase the Budgets pertaining thereto; and a preliminary examination of the means by which a reduction might even be effected in future in the forces and Budgets above-mentioned.
2. To prohibit the use in the armies and fleets of any new kind of fire-arms whatever and of new explosives, or any powders more powerful than those now in use either for rifles or cannon.
3. To restrict the use in military warfare of the formidable explosives already existing, and to prohibit the throwing of projectiles or explosives of any kind from balloons or by any similar means.
4. To prohibit the use in naval warfare of submarine torpedo-boats or plungers, or other similar engines of destruction; to give an undertaking not to construct vessels with rams in the future.
5. To apply to naval warfare the stipulations of the Geneva Convention of 1864, on the basis of the Additional Articles of 1868 [see also GENEVA CONVENTIONS].
6. To neutralize ships and boats employed in saving those overboard during or after an engagement.
7. To revise the Declaration concerning the laws and customs of war elaborated in 1874 by the Conference of Brussels, which has remained unratified to the present day.
8. To accept in principle the employment of good offices, of mediation and facultative arbitration in cases lending themselves thereto, with the object of preventing armed conflicts between nations; to come to an understanding with respect to the mode of applying these good offices, and to establish a uniform practice in using them. It is well understood that all questions concerning the political relations of States and the order of things established by Treaties, as generally all questions which do not directly fall within the programme adopted by the Cabinets, must be absolutely excluded from the deliberations of the Conference. In requesting you, Sir, to be good enough to apply to your Government for instructions on the subject of my present communication, I beg you at the same time to inform it that, in the interest of the great cause

which my august master has so much at heart, His Imperial Majesty considers it advisable that the Conference should not sit in the capital of one of the Great Powers, where so many political interests are centred which might, perhaps, impede the progress of a work in which all the countries of the universe are equally interested.

General assent being given to the suggestions here offered, the next step toward realization of the grand project was taken, by an arrangement with the government of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in accordance with which an invitation was addressed from The Hague, in April, to many governments, both the greater and the less of the political world, in the following terms: "For political reasons the Imperial Russian Government considered that it would not be desirable that the meeting of the Conference should take place in the capital of one of the Great Powers, and after securing the assent of the Governments interested, it addressed the Cabinet of The Hague with a view of obtaining its consent to the choice of that capital as the seat of the Conference in question. The Minister for Foreign Affairs at once took the orders of Her Majesty the Queen in regard to this request, and I am happy to be able to inform you that Her Majesty, my august Sovereign, has been pleased to authorize him to reply that it will be particularly agreeable to her to see the proposed Conference meet at The Hague. Consequently, my Government, in accord with the Imperial Russian Government, charges me to invite [the Governments named] to be good enough to be represented at the above-mentioned Conference, in order to discuss the questions indicated in the second Russian Circular of the 30th December, 1898 (11th January, 1899), as well as all other questions connected with the ideas set forth in the Circular of the 12th (24th) August, 1898, excluding, however, from the deliberations everything which refers to the political relations of States or the order of things established by Treaties. My Government trusts, that [the Government named] will associate itself with the great humanitarian work to be entered upon under the auspices of His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias, and that it will be disposed to accept this invitation, and to take the necessary steps for the presence of its Representatives at The Hague on the 18th May next for the opening of the Conference, at which each Power, whatever may be the number of its Delegates, will only have one vote."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by command: Miscellaneous, no. 1, 1899, p. 3-4, 8)*.

**Conference.**—In response to this definite invitation, the governments of Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Bulgaria, China, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Serbia, Siam, Spain, Sweden and Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States of America, appointed representatives who met at The Hague, on May 18, 1899, and organized the conference by electing M. de Staal, Russian ambassador, to preside. The United States was represented by the Hon. Andrew D. White, ambassador to Berlin, the Hon. Seth Low, president of Columbia University, the Hon. Stanford Newel, envoy extraordinary, etc., to The Hague, Capt. Alfred T. Mahan, U.S.N., Capt. William Crozier, U.S.A., and the Hon. Frederick W. Halls, of New York. The representatives of Great Britain were Sir Julian Pauncefote, ambassador to the United States, Sir Henry Howard, envoy extraordinary, etc., to The Hague, Vice-Admiral Sir John A. Fisher, Major-General Sir J. C. Ardagh, and

Lieutenant-Colonel C. à Court. "The Conference at The Hague was a Parliament of Man representing, however imperfectly, the whole human race. The only independent ones not represented at the Huis ten Bosch were the South American republics, the Emperor of Morocco, the King of Abyssinia, and the Grand Lama of Tibet. That the South American republics were not represented is not the fault of the Russian Emperor. Mexico received and accepted an invitation. Brazil received, but rejected, the invitation to be present, and so did one other South American republic. The original Russian idea was to assemble representatives from every independent government in the world; nor did they even confine themselves to the secular governments. They were very anxious that the Pope should also be directly represented in this supreme assembly. Even with the Pope and South America left out the Congress represented more of the world and its inhabitants than any similar assembly that [had] ever been gathered together for the work of international legislation."—W. T. Stead, *Conference at The Hague (Forum, Sept., 1899)*.

**Constitution.**—To systematize and facilitate the discussions of the conference, three commissions or committees were appointed, between which the several subjects suggested in the Russian circular of January 11 (as given above), and agreed to by the several governments, were distributed. The 1st, 2d, 3d and 4th propositions of the program were referred to the first commission, the 5th, 6th and 7th to the second, the 8th (concerning mediation and arbitration) to the third. This was done on May 23, after which the general conference was held only at intervals, to receive and consider reports from the several commissions, of agreements reached or disagreements ascertained. This went on until July 29, when the several conventions, declarations, and recommendations agreed upon for submission to the governments represented were summarized in the following "Final Act," signed by all: "In a series of meetings, between the 18th May and the 20th July, 1899, in which the constant desire of the Delegates above mentioned has been to realize, in the fullest manner possible, the generous views of the august Initiator of the Conference and the intentions of their Governments, the Conference has agreed, for submission for signature by the Plenipotentiaries, on the text of the Conventions and Declarations enumerated below and annexed to the present Act:—

"I. Convention for the pacific settlement of international conflicts.

"II. Convention regarding the laws and customs of war by land.

"III. Convention for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention of the 22nd August, 1864.

"IV. Three Declarations:—1. To prohibit the launching of projectiles and explosives from balloons or by other similar new methods. 2. To prohibit the use of projectiles, the only object of which is the diffusion of asphyxiating or deleterious gases. 3. To prohibit the use of bullets which expand or flatten easily in the human body, such as bullets with a hard envelope, of which the envelope does not entirely cover the core, or is pierced with incisions.

"These Conventions and Declarations shall form so many separate Acts. These Acts shall be dated this day, and may be signed up to the 31st December, 1899, by the Plenipotentiaries of the Powers represented at the International Peace Conference

at The Hague. Guided by the same sentiments, the Conference has adopted unanimously the following Resolution:—"The Conference is of opinion that the restriction of military budgets, which are at present a heavy burden on the world, is extremely desirable for the increase of the material and moral welfare of mankind." It has, besides, formulated the following wishes:—1. The Conference, taking into consideration the preliminary steps taken by the Swiss Federal Government for the revision of the Geneva Convention, expresses the wish that steps may be shortly taken for the assembly of a Special Conference having for its object the revision of that Convention. This wish was voted unanimously. 2. The Conference expresses the wish that the questions of the rights and duties of neutral may be inserted in the programme of a Conference in the near future. 3. The Conference expresses the wish that the questions with regard to rifles and naval guns, as considered by it, may be studied by the Governments with the object of coming to an agreement respecting the employment of new types and calibres. 4. The Conference expresses the wish that the Governments, taking into consideration the proposals made at the Conference, may examine the possibility of an agreement as to the limitation of armed forces by land and sea, and of war budgets. 5. The Conference expresses the wish that the proposal, which contemplates the declaration of the inviolability of private property in naval warfare, may be referred to a subsequent Conference for consideration. 6. The Conference expresses the wish that the proposal to settle the question of the bombardment of ports, towns, and villages by a naval force may be referred to a subsequent Conference for consideration.

"The last five wishes were voted unanimously, saving some abstentions. In faith of which, the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Act, and have affixed their seals thereto. Done at The Hague, 20th July, 1899, in one copy only, which shall be deposited in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, and of which copies, duly certified, shall be delivered to all the Powers represented at the Conference."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications (Papers by command: Miscellaneous, no. 1, 1899, pp. 3-4, 8, 288-289)*.—The accompanying conventions and declarations were in no case unanimously signed, several delegations, in each case, claiming time for the governments they represented to consider certain questions involved. The most important of the proposed conventions, namely, that "For the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes," was signed at The Hague by the delegates from Belgium, Denmark, Spain, the United States of America, Mexico, France, Greece, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Siam, Sweden and Norway, and Bulgaria; but not by Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy, Japan, Great Britain, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Serbia, Turkey, or China. Ultimately, however, the great treaty of arbitration was signed by every one of the powers represented. The full text of each of the conventions is given below.

Convention for the pacific settlement of international disputes.

TITLE I.—ON THE MAINTENANCE OF THE GENERAL PEACE.

Article 1. With a view to obviating, as far as possible, recourse to force in the relations between States, the Signatory Powers agree to use

their best efforts to insure the pacific settlement of international differences.

#### TITLE II.—ON GOOD OFFICES AND MEDIATION.

Article II. In case of serious disagreement or conflict, before an appeal to arms, the Signatory Powers agree to have recourse, as far as circumstances allow, to the good offices or mediation of one or more friendly Powers.

Article III. Independently of this recourse, the Signatory Powers recommend that one or more Powers, strangers to the dispute, should, on their own initiative, and as far as circumstances may allow, offer their good offices or mediation to the States at variance. Powers, strangers to the dispute, have the right to offer good offices or mediation, even during the course of hostilities. The exercise of this right can never be regarded by one or the other of the parties in conflict as an unfriendly act.

Article IV. The part of the mediator consists in reconciling the opposing claims and appeasing the feelings of resentment which may have arisen between the States at variance.

Article V. The functions of the mediator are at an end when once it is declared, either by one of the parties to the dispute, or by the mediator himself, that the means of reconciliation proposed by him are not accepted.

Article VI. Good offices and mediation, either at the request of the parties at variance, or on the initiative of Powers strangers to the dispute, have exclusively the character of advice and never have binding force.

Article VII. The acceptance of mediation can not, unless there be an agreement to the contrary, have the effect of interrupting, delaying, or hindering mobilization or other measures of preparation for war. If mediation occurs after the commencement of hostilities it causes no interruption to the military operations in progress, unless there be an agreement to the contrary.

Article VIII. The Signatory Powers are agreed in recommending the application, when circumstances allow, for special mediation in the following form:—In case of a serious difference endangering the peace, the States at variance choose respectively a Power, to whom they intrust the mission of entering into direct communication with the Power chosen on the other side with the object of preventing the rupture of pacific relations. For the period of this mandate, the term of which, unless otherwise stipulated, cannot exceed thirty days the States in conflict cease from all direct communication on the subject of the dispute, which is regarded as referred exclusively to the mediating Powers, who must use their best efforts to settle it. In case of a definite rupture of pacific relations, these Powers are charged with the joint task of taking advantage of any opportunity to restore peace.

#### TITLE III.—ON INTERNATIONAL COMMISSIONS OF INQUIRY.

Article IX. In differences of an international nature involving neither honour nor vital interests, and arising from a difference of opinion on points of fact, the Signatory Powers recommend that the parties, who have not been able to come to an agreement by means of diplomacy, should as far as circumstances allow, institute an International Commission of Inquiry, to facilitate a solution of these differences by elucidating the facts by means of an impartial and conscientious investigation.

Article X. The International Commissions of Inquiry are constituted by special agreement between the parties in conflict. The Convention for an inquiry defines the facts to be examined and the extent of the Commissioner's powers. It settles the procedure. On the inquiry both sides must be heard. The form and the periods to be observed, if not stated in the inquiry Convention, are decided by the Commission itself.

Article XI. The International Commissions of Inquiry are formed, unless otherwise stipulated, in the manner fixed by Article XXXII of the present Convention.

Article XII. The powers in dispute engage to supply the International Commission of Inquiry, as fully as they may think possible, with all means and facilities necessary to enable it to be completely acquainted with and to accurately understand the facts in question.

Article XIII. The International Commission of Inquiry communicates its Report to the conflicting Powers, signed by all the members of the Commission.

Article XIV. The Report of the International Commission of Inquiry is limited to a statement of facts, and has in no way the character of an Arbitral Award. It leaves the conflicting Powers entire freedom as to the effect to be given to this statement.

#### TITLE IV.—ON INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

##### CHAPTER I.—ON THE SYSTEM OF ARBITRATION.

Article XV. International arbitration has for its object the settlement of differences between States by judges of their own choice, and on the basis of respect for law.

Article XVI. In questions of a legal nature, and especially in the interpretation or application of International Conventions, arbitration is recognized by the Signatory Powers as the most effective, and at the same time the most equitable, means of settling disputes which diplomacy has failed to settle.

Article XVII. The Arbitration Convention is concluded for questions already existing or for questions which may arise eventually. It may embrace any dispute or only disputes of a certain category.

Article XVIII. The Arbitration Convention implies the engagement to submit loyally to the Award.

Article XIX. Independently of general or private Treaties expressly stipulating recourse to arbitration as obligatory on the Signatory Powers, these Powers reserve to themselves the right of concluding, either before the ratification of the present Act or later, new Agreements, general or private, with a view to extending obligatory arbitration to all cases which they may consider it possible to submit to it.

##### CHAPTER II.—ON THE PERMANENT COURT OF ARBITRATION.

Article XX. With the object of facilitating an immediate recourse to arbitration for international differences, which it has not been possible to settle by diplomacy, the Signatory Powers undertake to organize a permanent Court of Arbitration, accessible at all times and operating, unless otherwise stipulated by the parties, in accordance with the Rules of Procedure inserted in the present Convention.

Article XXI. The Permanent Court shall be competent for all arbitration cases, unless the parties agree to institute a special Tribunal.

Article xxii. An International Bureau, established at The Hague, serves as record office for the Court. This Bureau is the channel for communications relative to the meetings of the Court. It has the custody of the archives and conducts all the administrative business. The Signatory Powers undertake to communicate to the International Bureau at The Hague a duly certified copy of any conditions of arbitration arrived at between them, and of any award concerning them delivered by special Tribunals. They undertake also to communicate to the Bureau the Laws, Regulations, and documents eventually showing the execution of the awards given by the Court.

Article xxiii. Within the three months following its ratification of the present Act, each Signatory Power shall select four persons at the most, of known competency in questions of international law, of the highest moral reputation, and disposed to accept the duties of Arbitrators. The persons thus selected shall be inscribed, as members of the Court, in a list which shall be notified by the Bureau to all the Signatory Powers. Any alteration in the list of Arbitrators is brought by the Bureau to the knowledge of the Signatory Powers. Two or more Powers may agree on the selection in common of one or more Members. The same person can be selected by different Powers. The Members of the Court are appointed for a term of six years. Their appointments can be renewed. In case of the death or retirement of a member of the Court, his place shall be filled in accordance with the method of his appointment.

Article xxiv. When the Signatory Powers desire to have recourse to the Permanent Court for the settlement of a difference that has arisen between them, the Arbitrators called upon to form the competent Tribunal to decide this difference, must be chosen from the general list of members of the Court. Failing the direct agreement of the parties on the composition of the Arbitration Tribunal, the following course shall be pursued:—Each party appoints two Arbitrators, and these together choose an Umpire. If the votes are equal, the choice of the Umpire is intrusted to a third Power, selected by the parties by common accord. If an agreement is not arrived at on this subject, each party selects a different Power, and the choice of the Umpire is made in concert by the Powers thus selected. The Tribunal being thus composed, the parties notify to the Bureau their determination to have recourse to the Court and the names of the Arbitrators. The Tribunal of Arbitration assembles on the date fixed by the parties. The Members of the Court, in the discharge of their duties and out of their own country, enjoy diplomatic privileges and immunities.

Article xxv. The Tribunal of Arbitration has its ordinary seat at The Hague. Except in cases of necessity, the place of session can only be altered by the Tribunal with the assent of the parties.

Article xxvi. The International Bureau at The Hague is authorized to place its premises and its staff at the disposal of the Signatory Powers for the operations of any special Board of Arbitration. The jurisdiction of the Permanent Court, may, within the conditions laid down in the Regulations, be extended to disputes between non-Signatory Powers, or between Signatory Powers and non-Signatory Powers, if the parties are agreed on recourse to this Tribunal.

Article xxvii. The Signatory Powers consider it their duty, if a serious dispute threatens to

break out between two or more of them, to remind these latter that the Permanent Court is open to them. Consequently, they declare that the fact of reminding the conflicting parties of the provisions of the present Convention, and the advice given to them, in the highest interests of peace, to have recourse to the Permanent Court, can only be regarded as friendly actions.

Article xxviii. A Permanent Administrative Council, composed of the Diplomatic Representatives of the Signatory Powers accredited to The Hague and of the Netherland Minister for Foreign Affairs, who will act as President, shall be instituted in this town as soon as possible after the ratification of the present Act by at least nine Powers. This Council will be charged with the establishment and organization of the International Bureau, which will be under its direction and control. It will notify to the Powers the constitution of the Court and will provide for its installation. It will settle its Rules of Procedure and all other necessary Regulations. It will decide all questions of administration which may arise with regard to the operations of the Court. It will have entire control over the appointment, suspension or dismissal of the officials and employes of the Bureau. It will fix the payments and salaries, and control the general expenditure. At meetings duly summoned the presence of five members is sufficient to render valid the discussions of the Council. The decisions are taken by a majority of votes. The Council communicates to the Signatory Powers without delay the Regulations adopted by it. It furnishes them with an annual Report on the labours of the Court, the working of the administration, and the expenses.—See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1898-1899; MONROE DOCTRINE: 1899.

Article xxix. The expenses of the Bureau shall be borne by the Signatory Powers in the proportion fixed for the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

### CHAPTER III. ON ARBITRAL PROCEDURE.

Article xxx. With a view to encourage the development of arbitration, the Signatory Powers have agreed on the following Rules which shall be applicable to arbitral procedure, unless other Rules have been agreed on by the parties.

Article xxxi. The Powers who have recourse to arbitration sign a special Act ("Compromis"), in which the subject of the difference is clearly defined, as well as the extent of the Arbitrators' powers. This Act implies the undertaking of the parties to submit loyally to the award.

Article xxxii. The duties of Arbitrator may be conferred on one Arbitrator alone or on several Arbitrators selected by the parties as they please, or chosen by them from the members of the Permanent Court of Arbitration established by the present Act. Failing the constitution of the Tribunal by direct agreement between the parties, the following course shall be pursued: Each party appoints two Arbitrators, and these latter together choose an Umpire. In case of equal voting, the choice of the Umpire is intrusted to a third Power, selected by the parties by common accord. If no agreement is arrived at on this subject, each party selects a different Power, and the choice of the Umpire is made in concert by the Powers thus selected.

Article xxxiii. When a Sovereign or the Chief of a State is chosen as Arbitrator, the arbitral procedure is settled by him.

Article xxxiv. The Umpire is by right President of the Tribunal. When the Tribunal does not include an Umpire, it appoints its own President.

Article xxxv. In case of the death, retirement, or disability from any cause of one of the Arbitrators, his place shall be filled in accordance with the method of his appointment.

Article xxxvi. The Tribunal's place of session is selected by the parties. Failing this selection the Tribunal sits at The Hague. The place thus fixed cannot, except in case of necessity, be changed by the Tribunal without the assent of the parties.

Article xxxvii. The parties have the right to appoint delegates or special agents to attend the Tribunal, for the purpose of serving as intermediaries between them and the Tribunal. They are further authorized to retain, for the defense of their rights and interests before the Tribunal, counsel or advocates appointed by them for this purpose.

Article xxxviii. The Tribunal decides on the choice of languages to be used by itself, and to be authorized for use before it.

Article xxxix. As a general rule the arbitral procedure comprises two distinct phases; preliminary examination and discussion. Preliminary examination consists in the communication by the respective agents to the members of the Tribunal and to the opposite party of all printed or written Acts and of all documents containing the arguments invoked in the case. This communication shall be made in the form and within the periods fixed by the Tribunal in accordance with Article xlix. Discussion consists in the oral development before the Tribunal of the arguments of the parties.

Article xl. Every document produced by one party must be communicated to the other party.

Article xli. The discussions are under the direction of the President. They are only public if it be so decided by the Tribunal, with the assent of the parties. They are recorded in the "procès-verbaux" drawn up by the Secretaries appointed by the President. These "procès-verbaux" alone have an authentic character.

Article xlii. When the preliminary examination is concluded, the Tribunal has the right to refuse discussion of all fresh Acts or documents which one party may desire to submit to it without the consent of the other party.

Article xliii. The Tribunal is free to take into consideration fresh Acts or documents to which its attention may be drawn by the agents or counsel of the parties. In this case, the Tribunal has the right to require the production of these Acts or documents, but is obliged to make them known to the opposite party.

Article xliv. The Tribunal can, besides, require from the agents of the parties the production of all Acts, and can demand all necessary explanations. In case of refusal, the Tribunal takes note of it.

Article xlv. The agents and counsel of the parties are authorized to present orally to the Tribunal all the arguments they may think expedient in defense of their case.

Article xlvi. They have the right to raise objections and points. The decisions of the Tribunal on those points are final, and cannot form the subject of any subsequent discussion.

Article xlvii. The members of the Tribunal have the right to put questions to the agents and counsel of the parties, and to demand explanations from them on doubtful points. Neither the questions put nor the remarks made by members of the Tribunal during the discussions can

be regarded as an expression of opinion by the Tribunal in general, or by its members in particular.

Article xlviii. The Tribunal is authorized to declare its competence in interpreting the "Compromis" as well as the other Treaties which may be invoked in the case, and in applying the principles of international law.

Article xlix. The Tribunal has the right to issue Rules of Procedure for the conduct of the case, to decide the forms and periods within which each party must conclude its arguments, and to arrange all the formalities required for dealing with the evidence.

Article l. When the agents and counsel of the parties have submitted all explanations and evidence in support of their case, the President pronounces the discussion closed.

Article li. The deliberations of the Tribunal take place in private. Every decision is taken by a majority of members of the Tribunal. The refusal of a member to vote must be recorded in the "procès-verbal."

Article lii. The award, given by a majority of votes, is accompanied by a statement of reasons. It is drawn up in writing and signed by each member of the Tribunal. Those members who are in the minority may record their dissent when signing.

Article liii. The award is read out at a public meeting of the Tribunal, the agents and counsel of the parties being present, or duly summoned to attend.

Article liv. The award, duly pronounced and notified to the agents of the parties at variance, puts an end to the dispute definitely and without appeal.

Article lv. The parties can reserve in the "Compromis" the right to demand the revision of the award. In this case, and unless there be an agreement to the contrary, the demand must be addressed to the Tribunal which pronounced the award. It can only be made on the ground of the discovery of some new fact calculated to exercise a decisive influence on the award, and which, at the time the discussion was closed, was unknown to the Tribunal and to the party demanding the revision. Proceedings for revision can only be instituted by a decision of the Tribunal expressly recording the existence of the new fact, recognizing in it the character described in the foregoing paragraph, and declaring the demand admissible on this ground. The "Compromis" fixes the period within which the demand for revision must be made.

Article lvi. The award is only binding on the parties who concluded the "Compromis." When there is a question of interpreting a Convention to which Powers other than those concerned in the dispute are parties, the latter notify to the former the "Compromis" they have concluded. Each of these Powers has the right to intervene in the case. If one or more of them avail themselves of this right, the interpretation contained in the award is equally binding on them.

Article lvii. Each party pays its own expenses and an equal share of those of the Tribunal.

#### GENERAL PROVISIONS.

Article lviii. The present Convention shall be ratified as speedily as possible. The ratification shall be deposited at The Hague. A "procès-verbal" shall be drawn up recording the receipt of each ratification, and a copy duly certified shall be sent, through the diplomatic channel, to all the Powers who were represented at the International Peace Conference at The Hague.



Article LIX. The non-Signatory Powers who were represented at the International Peace Conference can adhere to the present Convention. For this purpose they must make known their adhesion to the Contracting Powers by a written notification addressed to the Netherland Government, and communicated by it to all the other Contracting Powers.

Article LX. The conditions on which the Powers who were not represented at the International Peace Conference can adhere to the present Convention shall form the subject of a subsequent Agreement among the Contracting Powers.

Article LXI. In the event of one of the High Contracting Parties denouncing the present Convention, this denunciation would not take effect until a year after its notification made in writing to the Netherland Government, and by it communicated at once to all the other Contracting Powers. This denunciation shall only affect the notifying Power. In faith of which the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed their seals to it. Done at The Hague, the 29th July, 1899, in a single copy, which shall remain in the archives of the Netherland Government, and copies of it, duly certified, be sent through the diplomatic channel to the Contracting Powers.—*United States, 56th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document 159.*

Convention with respect to the laws and customs of war on land.

Article I. The High Contracting Parties shall issue instructions to their armed land forces, which shall be in conformity with the "Regulations respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land" annexed to the present Convention.

Article II. The provisions contained in the Regulations mentioned in Article I. are only binding on the Contracting Powers, in case of war between two or more of them. These provisions shall cease to be binding from the time when, in a war between Contracting Powers, a non-Contracting Power joins one of the belligerents.

Article III. The present Convention shall be ratified as speedily as possible. The ratifications shall be deposited at The Hague. A "procès-verbal" shall be drawn up recording the receipt of each ratification, and a copy, duly certified, shall be sent through the diplomatic channel, to all the Contracting Powers.

Article IV. Non-Signatory Powers are allowed to adhere to the present Convention. For this purpose they must make their adhesion known to the Contracting Powers by means of a written notification addressed to the Netherland Government, and by it communicated to all the other Contracting Powers.

Article V. In the event of one of the High Contracting Parties denouncing the present Convention, such denunciation would not take effect until a year after the written notification made to the Netherland Government, and by it at once communicated to all the other Contracting Powers. This denunciation shall affect only the notifying Power.

In faith of which the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed their seals thereto.

#### REGULATIONS.

##### SECTION I.—ON BELLIGERENTS.

#### CHAPTER I.—ON THE QUALIFICATIONS OF BELLIGERENTS.

Article I. The laws, rights and duties of war apply not only to armies, but also to militia and

volunteer corps, fulfilling the following conditions:—1. To be commanded by a person responsible for his subordinates; 2. To have a fixed distinctive emblem recognizable at a distance; 3. To carry arms openly; and, 4. To conduct their operations in accordance with the laws and customs of war. In countries where militia or volunteer corps constitute the army, or form part of it, they are included under the denomination "army."

Article II. The population of a territory which has not been occupied who, on the enemy's approach, spontaneously take up arms to resist the invading troops without having time to organize themselves in accordance with Article I, shall be regarded a belligerent, if they respect the laws and customs of war.

Article III. The armed forces of the belligerent parties may consist of combatants and non-combatants. In case of capture by the enemy both have a right to be treated as prisoners of war

#### CHAPTER II.—ON PRISONERS OF WAR.

Article IV. Prisoners of war are in the power of the hostile Government, but not in that of the individuals or corps who captured them. They must be humanely treated. All their personal belongings, except arms, horses, and military papers remain their property.

Article V. Prisoners of war may be interned in a town, fortress, camp, or any other locality, and bound not to go beyond certain fixed limits; but they can only be confined as an indispensable measure of safety.

Article VI. The State may utilize the labour of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude. Their tasks shall not be excessive, and shall have nothing to do with the military operations. Prisoners may be authorized to work for the Public Service, for private persons, or on their own account. Work done for the State shall be paid for according to the tariffs in force for soldiers of the national army employed on similar tasks. When the work is for other branches of the Public Service or for private persons, the conditions shall be settled in agreement with the military authorities. The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them at the time of their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance.

Article VII. The Government into whose hands prisoners of war have fallen is bound to maintain them. Failing a special agreement between the belligerents, prisoners of war shall be treated as regards food, quarters, and clothing, on the same footing as the troops of the Government which has captured them.

Article VIII. Prisoners of war shall be subject to the laws, regulations, and orders in force in the army of the State into whose hands they have fallen. Any act of insubordination warrants the adoption, as regards them, of such measures of severity as may be necessary. Escaped prisoners, recaptured before they have succeeded in rejoining their army, or before quitting the territory occupied by the army that captured them, are liable to disciplinary punishment. Prisoners who, after succeeding in escaping, are again taken prisoners, are not liable to any punishment for the previous flight.

Article IX. Every prisoner of war, if questioned, is bound to declare his true name and rank, and if he disregards this rule, he is liable to a curtailment of the advantages accorded to the prisoners of war of his class.

Article x. Prisoners of war may be set at liberty on parole if the laws of their country authorize it, and, in such a case, they are bound, on their personal honour, scrupulously to fulfil, both as regards their own Government and the Government by whom they were made prisoners, the engagements they have contracted. In such cases, their own Government shall not require of nor accept from them any service incompatible with the parole given.

Article xi. A prisoner of war cannot be forced to accept his liberty on parole; similarly the hostile Government is not obliged to assent to the prisoner's request to be set at liberty on parole.

Article xii. Any prisoner of war, who is liberated on parole and recaptured, bearing arms against the Government to whom he had pledged his honour, or against the allies of that Government, forfeits his right to be treated as a prisoner of war, and can be brought before the Courts.

Article xiii. Individuals who follow an army without directly belonging to it, such as newspaper correspondents and reporters, sutlers, contractors, who fall into the enemy's hands, and whom the latter think fit to detain, have a right to be treated as prisoners of war, provided they can produce a certificate from the military authorities of the army they were accompanying.

Article xiv. A Bureau for information relative to prisoners of war is instituted, on the commencement of hostilities, in each of the belligerent States and, when necessary, in the neutral countries on whose territory belligerents have been received. This Bureau is intended to answer all inquiries about prisoners of war, and is furnished by the various services concerned with all the necessary information to enable it to keep an individual return for each prisoner of war. It is kept informed of internments and changes, as well as of admissions into hospital and deaths. It is also the duty of the Information Bureau to receive and collect all objects of personal use, valuables, letters, etc., found on the battlefields or left by prisoners who have died in hospital or ambulance, and to transmit them to those interested.

Article xv. Relief Societies for prisoners of war, which are regularly constituted in accordance with the law of the country with the object of serving as the intermediary for charity, shall receive from the belligerents for themselves and their duly accredited agents every facility, within the bounds of military requirements and Administrative Regulations, for the effective accomplishment of their humane task. Delegates of these Societies may be admitted to the places of internment for the distribution of relief, as also to the halting places of repatriated prisoners, if furnished with a personal permit by the military authorities, and on giving an engagement in writing to comply with all their Regulations for order and police.

Article xvi. The Information Bureau shall have the privilege of free postage. Letters, money orders, and valuables, as well as postal parcels destined for the prisoners of war or despatched by them, shall be free of all postal duties, both in the countries of origin and destination, as well as in those they pass through. Gifts and relief in kind for prisoners of war shall be admitted free of all duties of entry and others, as well as of payments for carriage by the Government railways.

Article xvii. Officers taken prisoners may receive, if necessary, the full pay allowed them in this position by their country's regulations, the amount to be repaid by their Government.

Article xviii. Prisoners of war shall enjoy every latitude in the exercise of their religion, including

attendance at their own church services, provided only they comply with the regulations for order and police issued by the military authorities.

Article xix. The wills of prisoners of war are received or drawn up on the same conditions as for soldiers of the national army. The same rules shall be observed regarding death certificates, as well as for the burial of prisoners of war, due regard being paid to their grade and rank.

Article xx. After the conclusion of peace, the repatriation of prisoners of war shall take place as speedily as possible.

### CHAPTER III.—ON THE SICK AND WOUNDED.

Article xxi. The obligations of belligerents with regard to the sick and wounded are governed by the Geneva Convention of the 22d August, 1864, subject to any modifications which may be introduced into it.

### SECTION II.—ON HOSTILITIES.

#### CHAPTER I.—ON MEANS OF INJURING THE ENEMY, SIEGES, AND BOMBARDMENTS.

Article xxii. The right of belligerents to adopt means of injuring the enemy is not unlimited.

Article xxiii. Besides the prohibitions provided by special Conventions, it is especially prohibited:—(a.) To employ poison or poisoned arms; (b.) To kill or wound treacherously individuals belonging to the hostile nation or army; (c.) To kill or wound an enemy who, having laid down arms, or having no longer means of defence, has surrendered at discretion; (d.) To declare that no quarter will be given; (e.) To employ arms, projectiles, or material of a nature to cause superfluous injury; (f.) To make improper use of a flag of truce, the national flag, or military ensigns and the enemy's uniform, as well as the distinctive badges of the Geneva Convention; (g.) To destroy or seize the enemy's property, unless such destruction or seizure be imperatively demanded by the necessities of war.

Article xxiv. Ruses of war and the employment of methods necessary to obtain information about the enemy and the country, are considered allowable.

Article xxv. The attack or bombardment of towns, villages, habitations or buildings which are not defended, is prohibited.

Article xxvi. The Commander of an attacking force, before commencing a bombardment, except in the case of an assault, should do all he can to warn the authorities.

Article xxvii. In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps should be taken to spare as far as possible edifices devoted to religion, art, science, and charity, hospitals, and places where the sick and wounded are collected, provided they are not used at the same time for military purposes. The besieged should indicate these buildings or places by some particular and visible signs, which should previously be notified to the assailants.

Article xxviii. The pillage of a town or place, even when taken by assault, is prohibited.

### CHAPTER II.—ON SPIES.

Article xxix. An individual can only be considered a spy if, acting clandestinely, or on false pretences, he obtains, or seeks to obtain information in the zone of operations of a belligerent, with the intention of communicating it to the hostile party. Thus, soldiers not in disguise who

have penetrated into the zone of operations of a hostile army to obtain information, are not considered spies. Similarly, the following are not considered spies: soldiers or civilians, carrying out their mission openly, charged with the delivery of despatches destined either for their own army or for that of the enemy. To this class belong likewise individuals sent in balloons to deliver despatches, and generally to maintain communication between the various parts of an army or a territory.

Article xxx. A spy taken in the act cannot be punished without previous trial.

Article xxxi. A spy who, after rejoining the army to which he belongs, is subsequently captured by the enemy, is treated as a prisoner of war, and incurs no responsibility for his previous acts of espionage.

#### CHAPTER III.—ON FLAGS OF TRUCE.

Article xxxii. An individual is considered as bearing a flag of truce who is authorized by one of the belligerents to enter into communication with the other, and who carries a white flag. He has a right to inviolability, as well as the trumpeter, bugler, or drummer, the flag-bearer, and the interpreter who may accompany him.

Article xxxiii. The Chief to whom a flag of truce is sent is not obliged to receive it in all circumstances. He can take all steps necessary to prevent the envoy taking advantage of his mission to obtain information. In case of abuse, he has the right to detain the envoy temporarily.

Article xxxiv. The envoy loses his rights of inviolability if it is proved beyond doubt that he has taken advantage of his privileged position to provoke or commit an act of treachery.

#### CHAPTER IV.—ON CAPITULATIONS.

Article xxxv. Capitulations agreed on between the Contracting Parties must be in accordance with the rules of military honour. When once settled, they must be scrupulously observed by both the parties.

#### CHAPTER V.—ON ARMISTICES.

Article xxxvi. An armistice suspends military operations by mutual agreement between the belligerent parties. If its duration is not fixed, the belligerent parties can resume operations at any time, provided always the enemy is warned within the time agreed upon, in accordance with the terms of the armistice.

Article xxxvii. An armistice may be general or local. The first suspend all military operations of the belligerent States; the second, only those between certain fractions of the belligerent armies and in a fixed radius.

Article xxxviii. An armistice must be notified officially, and in good time, to the competent authorities and the troops. Hostilities are suspended immediately after the notification, or at a fixed date.

Article xxxix. It is for the Contracting Parties to settle, in the terms of the armistice, what communications may be held, on the theatre of war, with the population and with each other.

Article xl. Any serious violation of the armistice by one of the parties gives the other party the right to denounce it, and even, in case of urgency, to recommence hostilities at once.

Article xli. A violation of the terms of the armistice by private individuals acting on their own initiative, only confers the right of demanding the punishment of the offenders, and, if necessary, indemnity for the losses sustained.

#### SECTION III.—ON MILITARY AUTHORITY OVER HOSTILE TERRITORY.

Article xlii. Territory is considered occupied when it is actually placed under the authority of the hostile army. The occupation applies only to the territory where such authority is established, and in a position to assert itself.

Article xliii. The authority of the legitimate power having actually passed into the hands of the occupant, the latter shall take all steps in his power to re-establish and insure, as far as possible, public order and safety, while respecting, unless absolutely prevented, the laws in force in the country.

Article xliiv. Any compulsion of the population of occupied territory to take part in military operations against its own country is prohibited.

Article xli v. Any pressure on the population of occupied territory to take the oath to the hostile Power is prohibited.

Article xli vi. Family honours and rights, individual lives and private property, as well as religious convictions and liberty, must be respected. Private property cannot be confiscated.

Article xli vii. Pillage is formally prohibited.

Article xli viii. If, in the territory occupied, the occupant collects the taxes, dues, and tolls imposed for the benefit of the State, he shall do it, as far as possible, in accordance with the rules in existence and the assessment in force, and will in consequence be bound to defray the expenses of the administration of the occupied territory on the same scale as that by which the legitimate Government was bound.

Article xli ix. If, besides the taxes mentioned in the preceding Article, the occupant levies other money taxes in the occupied territory, this can only be for military necessities or the administration of such territory.

Article l. No general penalty, pecuniary or otherwise, can be inflicted on the population on account of the acts of individuals for which it cannot be regarded as collectively responsible.

Article li. No tax shall be collected except under a written order and on the responsibility of a Commander-in-chief. This collection shall only take place, as far as possible, in accordance with the rules in existence and the assessment of taxes in force. For every payment a receipt shall be given to the taxpayer.

Article lii. Neither requisitions in kind nor services can be demanded from communes or inhabitants except for the necessities of the army of occupation. They must be in proportion to the resources of the country, and of such a nature as not to involve the population in the obligation of taking part in military operations against their country. These requisitions and services shall only be demanded on the authority of the Commander in the locality occupied. The contributions in kind shall, as far as possible, be paid for in ready money; if not, their receipt shall be acknowledged.

Article liii. An army of occupation can only take possession of the cash, funds, and property liable to requisition belonging strictly to the State, depôts of arms, means of transport, stores and supplies, and, generally, all movable property of the State which may be used for military operations. Railway plant, land telegraphs, telephones, steamers, and other ships, apart from cases governed by maritime law, as well as depôts of arms and, generally, all kinds of war material, even though belonging to Companies or to private persons, are likewise material which may serve

for military operations, but they must be restored at the conclusion of peace, and indemnities paid for them.

Article LIV. The plant of railways coming from neutral States, whether the property of those States, or of Companies, or of private persons, shall be sent back to them as soon as possible.

Article LV. The occupying State shall only be regarded as administrator and usufructuary of the public buildings, real property, forests, and agricultural works belonging to the hostile State, and situated in the occupied country. It must protect the capital of these properties, and administer it according to the rules of usufruct.

Article LVI. The property of the communes, that of religious, charitable, and educational institutions, and those of arts and science, even when State property, shall be treated as private property. All seizure of, and destruction, or intentional damage done to such institutions, to historical monuments, works of art or science, is prohibited, and should be made the subject of proceedings.

#### SECTION IV.—ON THE INTERNMENT OF BELLIGERENTS AND THE CARE OF THE WOUNDED IN NEUTRAL COUNTRIES.

Article LVII. A neutral State which receives in its territory troops belonging to the belligerent armies shall intern them, as far as possible, at a distance from the theatre of war. It can keep them in camps, and even confine them in fortresses or localities assigned for this purpose. It shall decide whether officers may be left at liberty on giving their parole that they will not leave the neutral territory without authorization.

Article LVIII. Failing a special Convention, the neutral State shall supply the interned with the food, clothing, and relief required by humanity. At the conclusion of peace, the expenses caused by the internment shall be made good.

Article LIX. A neutral State may authorize the passage through its territory of wounded or sick belonging to the belligerent armies, on condition that the trains bringing them shall carry neither combatants nor war material. In such a case, the neutral State is bound to adopt such measures of safety and control as may be necessary for the purpose. Wounded and sick brought under these conditions into neutral territory by one of the belligerents, and belonging to the hostile party, must be guarded by the neutral State, so as to insure their not taking part again in the military operations. The same duty shall devolve on the neutral State with regard to wounded or sick of the other army who may be committed to its care.

Article LX. The Geneva Convention applies to sick and wounded interned in neutral territory.

Added to the Convention relative to Laws and Customs of War were three declarations, separately signed, as follows: 1. "The contracting powers agree to prohibit, for a term of five years, the launching of projectiles and explosives from balloons, or by other new methods of a similar nature." 2. "The contracting parties agree to abstain from the use of bullets which expand or flatten easily in the human body, such as bullets with a hard envelope which does not entirely cover the core, or is pierced with incisions." [See also DUM-DUM BULLETS.] 3. "The contracting parties agree to abstain from the use of projectiles the object of which is the diffusion of asphyxiating or deleterious gases" [see also POISON GAS: First

use in war]. The first of these declarations was signed by the delegates from the United States, but not by those from Great Britain. The second and third were signed by neither British nor American representatives. Great Britain later gave her adherence to these last two, however.

As for the third declaration, it was opposed by Captain Maha., who spoke for the Americans, because "he considered the use of asphyxiating shell far less inhuman and cruel than the employment of submarine boats, and as the employment of submarine boats had not been interdicted by the Conference (though specially mentioned with that object in the Mouravieff Circular), he felt constrained to maintain his vote in favour of the use of asphyxiating shell on the original ground that the United States Government was averse to placing any restriction on the inventive genius of its citizens in inventing and providing new weapons of war."

#### Convention for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention of August 22, 1864.

Article I. Military hospital-ships, that is to say, ships constructed or assigned by States specially and solely for the purpose of assisting the wounded, sick, or shipwrecked, and the names of which shall have been communicated to the belligerent Powers at the commencement or during the course of hostilities, and in any case before they are employed, shall be respected and cannot be captured while hostilities last. These ships, moreover, are not on the same footing as men-of-war as regards their stay in a neutral port.

Article II. Hospital-ships, equipped wholly or in part at the cost of private individuals or officially recognized relief Societies, shall likewise be respected and exempt from capture, provided the belligerent Power to whom they belong has given them an official commission and has notified their names to the hostile Power at the commencement of or during hostilities, and in any case before they are employed. These ships should be furnished with a certificate from the competent authorities, declaring that they had been under their control while fitting out and on final departure.

Article III. Hospital-ships, equipped wholly or in part at the cost of private individuals or officially recognized Societies of neutral countries, shall be respected and exempt from capture, if the neutral Power to whom they belong has given them an official commission and notified their names to the belligerent Powers at the commencement of or during hostilities, and in any case before they are employed.

Article IV. The ships mentioned in Articles I, II, and III shall afford relief and assistance to the wounded, sick, and shipwrecked of the belligerents independently of their nationality. The Governments engage not to use these ships for any military purpose. These ships must not in any way hamper the movements of the combatants. During and after an engagement they will act at their own risk and peril. The belligerents will have the right to control and visit them; they can refuse to help them, order them off, make them take a certain course, and put a Commissioner on board; they can even detain them, if important circumstances require it. As far as possible the belligerents shall inscribe in the sailing papers of the hospital-ships the orders they give them.

Article V. The military hospital-ships shall be distinguished by being painted white outside with

a horizontal band of green about a metre and a half in breadth. The ships mentioned in Articles II and III shall be distinguished by being painted white outside with a horizontal band of red about a metre and a half in breadth. The boats of the ships above mentioned as also small craft which may be used for hospital work, shall be distinguished by similar painting. All hospital-ships shall make themselves known by hoisting, together with their national flag, the white flag with a red cross provided by the Geneva Convention.

Article VI. Neutral merchantmen, yachts, or vessels, having, or taking on board, sick, wounded, or shipwrecked of the belligerents cannot be captured for so doing, but they are liable to capture for any violation of neutrality they may have committed.

Article VII. The religious, medical, or hospital staff of any captured ship is inviolable, and its members cannot be made prisoners of war. On leaving the ship they take with them the objects and surgical instruments which are their own private property. This staff shall continue to discharge its duties while necessary, and can afterwards leave when the Commander-in-chief considers it possible. The belligerents must guarantee to the staff that has fallen into their hands the enjoyment of their salaries intact.

Article VIII. Sailors and soldiers who are taken on board when sick or wounded, to whatever nation they belong, shall be protected and looked after by the captors.

Article IX. The shipwrecked, wounded, or sick of one of the belligerents who fall into the hands of the other, are prisoners of war. The captor must decide, according to circumstances, if it is best to keep them or send them to a port of his own country to a neutral port, or even to a hostile port. In the last case, prisoners thus repatriated cannot serve as long as the war lasts.

Article X. The shipwrecked, wounded, or sick, who are landed at a neutral port with the consent of the local authorities, must, failing a contrary arrangement between the neutral State and the belligerents, be guarded by the neutral State, so that they cannot again take part in the military operations. The expenses of entertainment and internment shall be borne by the State to which the shipwrecked, wounded, or sick belong.

Article XI. The rules contained in the above Articles are binding only on the Contracting Powers, in case of war between two or more of them. The said rules shall cease to be binding from the time when, in a war between the Contracting Powers, one of the belligerents is joined by a non-Contracting Power.

Article XII. The present Convention shall be ratified as soon as possible. The ratifications shall be deposited at The Hague. On the receipt of each ratification a "procès-verbal" shall be drawn up, a copy of which, duly certified, shall be sent through the diplomatic channel to all the Contracting Powers.

Article XIII. The non-Signatory Powers who accepted the Geneva Convention of the 22d August, 1864, are allowed to adhere to the present Convention. For this purpose they must make their adhesion known to the Contracting Powers by means of a written notification addressed to the Netherland Government, and by it communicated to all the other Contracting Powers.

Article XIV. In the event of one of the High Contracting Parties denouncing the present Convention, such denunciation shall not take effect until a year after the notification made in writing

to the Netherland Government, and forthwith communicated by it to all the other Contracting Powers. This denunciation shall only affect the notifying Power.

In faith of which the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed their seals thereto.

[Signed by the representatives of Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Mexico, France, Greece, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Siam, Sweden and Norway, and Bulgaria.]

1907.—Second International Peace Conference: Conventions, declarations, and recommendations.—Text of the convention for a pacific settlement of international disputes, and of the "Final Act."—Pursuant to a request of the Interparliamentary Union, held at St. Louis in 1904, that a further peace conference be held, and that the President of the United States invite all nations to send representatives to such a conference, the late Secretary of State, at the direction of the President, instructed, on October 21, 1904, the representatives of the United States accredited to each of the signatories to the acts of The Hague Conference of 1899 to present overtures for a second conference to the ministers for foreign affairs of the respective countries. The replies received to this circular instruction of October 21, 1904, indicated that the proposition for the calling of a second conference met with general favor. At a later period it was intimated by Russia that the initiative of the First Conference was, owing to the restoration of peace in the Orient, disposed to undertake the calling of a new conference to continue as well as to supplement the works of the first. The offer of the Czar to take steps requisite to convene a second international peace conference was gladly welcomed by the President, and the Final Act of the Conference only recites in its preamble the invitation of the President.

"The Russian Government thus assumed the calling of the Conference, and on April 12, 1906, submitted the following programme, which was acceptable to the Powers generally and which served as the basis of the work of the Conference:

"1. Improvements to be made in the provisions of the convention relative to the peaceful settlement of international disputes as regards the Court of Arbitration and the International Commissions of Inquiry. [See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL; MODERN; 1907; Second peace conference; HAGUE TRIBUNAL.] 2. Additions to be made to the provisions of the convention of 1899 relative to the laws and customs of war on land—among others, those concerning the opening of hostilities, the rights of neutrals on land, etc. Declaration of 1899. One of these having expired, question of its being revived. 3. Framing of a convention relative to the laws and customs of maritime warfare, concerning—The special operations of maritime warfare, such as the bombardment of ports, cities, and villages by a naval force; the laying of torpedoes, etc. The transformation of merchant vessels into war ships. The private property of belligerent at sea. The length of time to be granted to merchant ships for their departure from ports of neutrals or of the enemy after the opening of hostilities. The rights and duties of neutrals at sea, among others the questions of contraband, the rules applicable to belligerent vessels in neutral ports; destruction, in cases of *vis major*, of neutral merchant vessels captured as prizes. In the said convention to be drafted there would be introduced the provisions relative

to war on land that would be also applicable to maritime warfare. 4. Additions to be made to the convention of 1899 for the adaptation to maritime warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention of 1864.

"The United States, however, reserved the right to bring to discussion two matters of great importance not included in the programme, namely, the reduction or limitation of armaments and restrictions or limitations upon the use of force for the collection of ordinary public debts arising out of contracts. It was finally decided that the Conference should meet at The Hague on the 15th day of June, 1907, and thus the Conference, proposed by the President of the United States, and convoked by Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands upon the invitation of the Emperor of All the Russias, assumed definite shape and form. . . . In the circulars of October 21 and December 16, 1904, it was suggested as desirable to consider and adopt a procedure by which States nonsignatory to the original acts of The Hague Conference may become adhering parties. This suggestion was taken note of by the Russian Government and invitations were issued to forty-seven countries, in response to which the representatives of forty-four nations assembled at The Hague and took part in the Conference. No opposition was made to the admission of the nonsignatory States."

The delegation of the United States to the conference was composed of the following members: Commissioners plenipotentiary with the rank of ambassador extraordinary: Joseph H. Choate, of New York, Horace Porter, of New York, Uriah M. Rose, of Arkansas; Commissioner plenipotentiary: David Jayne Hill, of New York, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States to the Netherlands; Commissioners plenipotentiary with rank of minister plenipotentiary: Brig. Gen. George B. Davis, Judge-Advocate-General, U. S. Army, Rear-Admiral Charles S. Sperry, U. S. Navy, William I. Buchanan, of New York; Technical delegate and expert in international law: James Brown Scott, of California; Technical delegate and expert attaché to the commission: Charles Henry Butler, of New York; Secretary to the commission: Chandler Hale, of Maine; Assistant secretaries to the commission: A. Bailly-Blanchard, of Louisiana, William M. Malloy, of Illinois.

"The Dutch Government set aside for the use of the Conference, the Binnenhof, the seat of the States-General, and on the 15th day of June, 1907, at 3 o'clock in the afternoon, the Conference was opened by his excellency the Dutch minister for foreign affairs in the presence of delegates representing forty-four nations. . . . At the conclusion of the address of welcome his excellency suggested as president of the Conference His Excellency M. Nelidow, first delegate of Russia, and, with the unanimous consent of the assembly, M. Nelidow accepted the presidency and delivered an address." In accordance with the suggestion of the president, an order of procedure, in twelve articles, was adopted, and the conference was divided into four commissions, between which the subjects specified in the programme of the conference were apportioned. "The actual work of the Conference was, therefore, done in commission and committee. The results, so far as the several commissions desired, were reported to the Conference sitting in plenary session for approval, and after approval, submitted to the small subediting committee for final revision which, however, affected form, not substance. The results thus reached were included in the Final Act and signed by the plenipotentiaries on the 18th day

of October, 1907, upon which date the Conference adjourned."—*Report of the delegates of the United States (60th Congress, 1st Session, Senate Document 444)*.

The results of the conference are embodied in fourteen conventions duly formulated and signed, and a "Final Act" in which certain principles are declared as being "unanimously admitted." Of the conventions entered into, that most important one which provides means for a pacific solution of international conflicts is but a revision of the convention for the same purpose which the powers represented at the First Peace Conference, of 1899, gave adhesion to. To a large extent the articles of the convention are unchanged, and the changes made are mostly in the nature of an amplification of provisions and prescriptions of procedure for carrying out the agreements set forth in the compact of 1899. This occurs especially in part III, relating to "International Commissions of Inquiry," the specifications for which, merely outlined in six articles of the convention of 1899, were detailed with precision in twenty-eight articles of the convention of 1907. A similar amplification was given to the chapters on "The System of Arbitration" and "Arbitral Procedure." By a verbal change of some significance, the parties to the convention are designated "Contracting Powers," instead of "Signatory Powers," as before. Other important features of the revision are noted in an article which the Hon. David Jayne Hill, one of the American commission at the conference, communicated to *The American Review of Reviews* of December, 1907. Dr. Hill wrote: "With regard to good offices and mediation, a slight step forward was taken by the acceptance of the American proposition that the initiative of powers foreign to the controversy in offering them is not only 'useful' but 'desirable.' Greater precision has been given to the operation of commissions of inquiry, whose great utility has already been tested, but it was decided that the functions of such commissions should be confined to a determination of facts and should not extend to fixing responsibility. As regards arbitration, while it was asserted that 'in questions of a legal character, and especially in the interpretation or application of international conventions, arbitration is recognized by the contracting powers as the most efficacious and at the same time the most equitable means of settling differences that have not been adjusted by diplomacy,' and, 'in consequence it would be desirable that, in contentions of this character, the powers should resort to arbitration,' it was not found possible to render this resort an obligation. . . . It must, in justice, be added that some of the powers voting against an obligatory arbitration convention probably did so chiefly for the purpose of avoiding the isolation of others, and that some of the powers most earnest in opposing the project not only have negotiated special treaties of obligatory arbitration, but declare their intention of negotiating many more. The state of the question, then, is this: All accept the principle of obligatory arbitration in certain classes of cases, 32 powers are prepared to make definite engagements with all the rest, 9 prefer to make them only with states on whose responsibility they can rely, and 3 decline at present to commit themselves." On the part of the United States, when this important convention was submitted subsequently to the Senate, it was ratified conditionally, by the following resolution, adopted April 2, 1908. "*Resolved (two-thirds of the Senators present concurring therein), That the Senate advise and consent to the ratification of a convention signed by the delegates of*

the United States to the Second International Peace Conference, held at The Hague from June sixteenth to October eighteenth, nineteen hundred and seven, for the pacific settlement of international disputes, subject to the declaration made by the delegates of the United States before signing said convention, namely: 'Nothing contained in this convention shall be so construed as to require the United States of America to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in the political questions of policy or internal administration of any foreign state; nor shall anything contained in the said convention be construed to imply a relinquishment by the United States of its traditional attitude toward purely American questions.' *Resolved further, as a part of this act of ratification*, That the United States approves this convention with the understanding that recourse to the permanent court for the settlement of differences can be had only by agreement thereto through general or special treaties of arbitration heretofore or hereafter concluded between the parties in dispute: and the United States now exercises the option contained in article fifty-three of said convention, to exclude the formulation of the 'compromis' by the permanent court, and hereby excludes from the competence of the permanent court the power to frame the 'compromis' required by general or special treaties of arbitration concluded or hereafter to be concluded by the United States, and further expressly declares that the 'compromis' required by any treaty of arbitration to which the United States may be a party shall be settled only by agreement between the contracting parties, unless such treaty shall expressly provide otherwise."

Of the other conventions agreed to and signed at the conference it will be sufficient to give here in part a summary statement of their objects and provisions which was prepared by the Hon. James Brown Scott, one of the technical delegates to the conference from the United States, originally for publication in *The American Journal of International Law* for January, 1908. They are described by Mr. Scott as follows: "The second is the convention restricting the use of force for the recovery of contract debts. This was introduced by the American delegation, loyally and devotedly seconded by Doctor Drago, who has battled for the doctrine to which he has given his name. Without the support of Doctor Drago, it is doubtful if Latin America—for whose benefit it was introduced—would have voted for this very important doctrine. The proposition is very short; it consists of but three articles, but we must not measure things by their size. In full it is as follows: 'In order to avoid between nations armed conflicts of a purely pecuniary origin arising from contractual debts claimed from the government of one country by the government of another country to be due to its nationals, the contracting powers agree not to have recourse to armed force for the collection of such contractual debts. However, this stipulation shall not be applicable when the debtor state refuses or leaves unanswered an offer to arbitrate, or, in case of acceptance, makes it impossible to formulate the terms of submission, or after arbitration, fails to comply with the award rendered. It is further agreed that arbitration here contemplated shall be in conformity, as to procedure, with Title IV, Chapter III of the convention for the pacific settlement of international disputes adopted at The Hague, and that it shall determine, in so far as there shall be no agreement between the parties, the justice, and the amount

of the debt, the time and mode of payment, thereof.' . . . The third convention relates to the opening of hostilities and provides, in Article I, that the contracting powers recognize that hostilities between them should not commence without notice, which shall be either in the form of a formal declaration of war or of an ultimatum in the nature of a declaration of conditional war. This is to protect belligerents from surprise and bad faith. Article II is meant to safeguard the rights of neutrals. The state of war should be notified without delay to neutral powers, and shall only affect them after the receipt of a notification, which may be sent even by telegram. . . . The fourth convention concerns the laws and customs of land warfare, [and is] a revision of the convention of 1899. It is highly technical and codifies in a humanitarian spirit the warfare of the present [see also DUM-DUM BULLET; POISON GAS; First use in war]. The fifth convention attempts to regulate the rights and duties of neutral powers and of neutral persons in case of land warfare. Short, but important, its guiding spirit is expressed in the opening paragraph of the preamble, namely, to render more certain the rights and duties of neutral powers in case of warfare upon land and to regulate the situation of belligerent refugees in neutral territory. . . . The sixth is the convention concerning enemy merchant ships found in enemy ports or upon the high seas at the outbreak of hostilities. Custom forbids the capture of enemy vessels within the port of the enemy on the outbreak of hostilities and allows them a limited time to discharge or load their cargo and depart for their port of destination. The attempt was made to establish this custom or privilege as a right. The proposition, however, met with serious opposition and, instead of the right, the convention states that it is desirable that enemy ships be permitted freely to leave the port. The convention, therefore, was restrictive rather than declaratory of existing international practice. The same might be said of another provision of the convention concerning the treatment of enemy merchant ships upon the high seas. It may be said that the expression of a desire is tantamount to a positive declaration, but, strictly construed, the convention is not progressive. It lessens rights acquired by custom and usage, although it does, indeed, render the privilege granted universal. The American delegation, therefore, refrained from signing the convention. The seventh convention deals with the transformation of merchant ships into ships of war, and it must be said that the positive results of this convention are of little or no practical value. The burning question was whether merchant ships might be transformed into men-of-war upon the high seas. As the transformation of merchant vessels into war vessels upon the high seas caused an international commotion during the recent Russo-Japanese war, Great Britain and the United States insisted that the transfer should only be allowed within the territorial jurisdiction of the transforming power. Some of the continental states, on the contrary, refused to renounce the exercise of the alleged right. The great maritime states were thus divided, and as the question was too simple and too plain to admit of compromise, it was agreed to drop it entirely for the present. In order, however, that something might remain of the careful and elaborate discussions of the subject, a series of regulations was drawn up regarding the transformation of merchant ships into vessels of war, declaratory of international custom. . . . Indirectly, the rightfulness or wrongfulness of privateering was concerned, and inasmuch

as the United States would not consent to abolish privateering unless the immunity of private property be safeguarded, the American delegation abstained from signing the convention. The eighth convention relates to the placing of submarine automatic mines of contact, a subject of present and special interest to belligerents; while the interest of the neutral is very general. . . . Mines break from their moorings and endanger neutral life and property. The conference, therefore, desires to regulate the use of mines in such a way as not to deprive the belligerents of a recognized and legitimate means of warfare, but to restrict, as far as possible, the damage to the immediate belligerents. . . . The ninth convention forbade the bombardment by naval forces of undefended harbors, villages, towns, or buildings. The presence, however, of military stores would permit bombardment of such ports for the sole purpose of destroying the stores, provided they were not destroyed or delivered up upon request. Notice, however, should be given of the intention to bombard. In like manner, the convention permitted the bombardment of such undefended places if provisions were not supplied upon requisition to the naval force. Bombardment, however, was not allowed for the collection of mere money contributions. . . . The tenth convention adapted to maritime warfare the principles of the Geneva Convention of 1906. . . . The eleventh convention relates to certain restrictions in the exercise of the right of capture in maritime war. It is a modest document, but is all that was saved from the wreck of the immunity of private property. The American delegation urged the abolition of the right of capture of unoffending enemy private property upon the high seas, but great maritime powers such as Great Britain, France, Russia, and Japan were unwilling to relinquish this means of bringing the enemy to terms. . . . The twelfth convention sought to establish an international court of prize, and there only remains the ratification of this convention by the contracting powers in order to call into being this great and beneficent institution. For years enlightened opinion has protested against the right of belligerents to pass final judgment upon the lawfulness of the capture of neutral property, and it is a pleasure to be able to state that the interests of the neutrals in the neutral prize are henceforward to be placed in the hands of neutral judges with a representation of the belligerents, in order that the rights of all concerned may be carefully weighed and considered. . . . The thirteenth convention concerns and seeks to regulate the rights and duties of neutral powers in case of maritime war. This is an elaborate codification of the rights and duties of neutrals in which the conference essayed to generalize and define on the one hand the rights of neutrals and the correlative duties of the belligerents, and in the second place to set forth in detail the duties of neutrals, thus safeguarding the rights of belligerents in certain phases of maritime warfare. . . . The result, however, was unsatisfactory to some of the larger maritime powers, which prefer their present regulations on the subject of neutrality or which were unwilling to accept the modifications proposed. The United States was not satisfied with certain provisions of the convention, and reserved the right to study the project in detail before expressing a final opinion. It therefore abstained from voting and signing. The fourteenth convention is a reenactment of the declaration of 1899 forbidding the launching of projectiles and explosives from balloons. The original declaration

was agreed to for a period of five years, and as this period had expired the powers were without a regulation on the subject. The reenactment provided that the present declaration shall extend, not merely for a period of five years, but to the end of the Third Conference of Peace."—Reprinted in *Senate document no. 433, 60th Congress, 1st Session*.

Appended to these conventions are the resolutions or declarations of accepted principles embodied in the "Final Act," as mere expression of opinion, they entail no definite obligation. How much significance they had for the states whose representatives formulated them, is therefore open to question. Disarmament, the fundamental question, obtained no agreement, but was again referred to the individual states for consideration. The text is as follows: "The Conference, actuated by the spirit of mutual agreement and concession characterizing its deliberations, has agreed upon the following Declaration, which, while reserving to each of the Powers represented full liberty of action as regards voting, enables them to affirm the principles which they regard as unanimously admitted:—It is unanimous—1. In admitting the principle of compulsory arbitration. 2. In declaring that certain disputes, in particular those relating to the interpretation and application of the provisions of International Agreements, may be submitted to compulsory arbitration without any restriction. Finally, it is unanimous in proclaiming that, although it has not yet been found feasible to conclude a Convention in this sense, nevertheless the divergences of opinion which have come to light have not exceeded the bounds of judicial controversy, and that, by working together here during the past four months, the collected Powers not only have learnt to understand one another and to draw closer together, but have succeeded in the course of this long collaboration in evolving a very lofty conception of the common welfare of humanity.

"The Conference has further unanimously adopted the following Resolution:—The Second Peace Conference confirms the Resolution adopted by the Conference of 1899 in regard to the limitation of military expenditure; and inasmuch as military expenditure has considerably increased in almost every country since that time, the Conference declares that it is eminently desirable that the Governments should resume the serious examination of this question.

"It has besides expressed the following opinions:—1. The Conference calls the attention of the Signatory Powers to the advisability of adopting the annexed draft Convention for the creation of a Judicial Arbitration Court, and of bringing it into force as soon as an agreement has been reached respecting the selection of the Judges and the constitution of the Court. 2. The Conference expresses the opinion that, in case of war, the responsible authorities, civil as well as military, should make it their special duty to ensure and safeguard the maintenance of specific relations, more especially of the commercial and industrial relations between the inhabitants of the belligerent States and neutral countries. 3. The Conference expresses the opinion that the Powers should regulate, by special Treaties, the position, as regards military charges, of foreigners residing within their territories. 4. The Conference expresses the opinion that the preparation of regulations relative to the laws and customs of naval war should figure in the programme of the next Conference, and that in any case the Powers may apply, as far as possible, to war by sea the principles of the Con-



vention relative to the Laws and Customs of War on land. Finally, the Conference recommends to the Powers the assembly of a Third Peace Conference, which might be held within a period corresponding to that which has elapsed since the preceding Conference, at a date to be fixed by common agreement between the Powers, and it calls their attention to the necessity of preparing the programme of this Third Conference a sufficient time in advance to ensure its deliberations being conducted with the necessary authority and expedition. In order to attain this object the Conference considers that it would be very desirable that, some two years before the probable date of the meeting, a preparatory Committee should be charged by the Governments with the task of collecting the various proposals to be submitted to the Conference, of ascertaining what subjects are ripe for embodiment in an International Regulation, and of preparing a programme which the Governments should decide upon in sufficient time to enable it to be carefully examined by the countries interested. This Committee should further be intrusted with the task of proposing a system of organization and procedure for the Conference itself. In faith whereof the Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Act and have affixed their seals thereto."

**Ratification of the conventions of 1899 and 1907.**—The three conventions of 1899 received general ratification, and are considered binding. Those of 1907 met with less cordial acceptance. None of them have been accepted without reservation by all the signatories. The first two, by their nature, have not been very seriously affected by this lack of unanimity; the remainder, however, which deal with the laws and customs of war, all contain clauses to the effect that "the provisions of the present convention do not apply except between contracting powers, and then only if all belligerents are parties to the convention." Thus the fact that each one of these conventions was left unratified, or was ratified only with important reservations, by one or more of the belligerents in the World War, released all belligerents from legal obligation to respect them. In the case of VIII, IX, XIII and XIV an actual preponderance of the great powers failed to ratify. It should, however, be noted that so far as these conventions were declarative of existing usage the powers were already in honor bound to observe them; also it was the evident intention of the conference that those provisions of the conventions of 1899 which were revised in 1907 should remain in force until superseded by the new regulations. Thus it is only those sections which embody innovations in the law of nations that might properly be claimed to be nonexistent in August, 1914. The effect upon the laws of war of the usages of the belligerents in the years 1914-1918 is yet to be determined. It is generally agreed that the Hague conventions are inappropriate to existing conditions and must be thoroughly revised before they can be universally ratified.

**1909.**—Settlement of Casa Blanca affair.—North Atlantic fisheries dispute. See FRANCE: 1906-1909; Presidency of Armand Fallières; FISHERIES: 1909-1910.

**1909.**—Prize court established.—Desire for conference. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1909; 1909 (October).

**1914.**—Desire of Tsar for arbitration preceding World War.—Germany's refusal. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 69.

See also INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909; NEU-

TRALITY: Present law; PEACE MOVEMENT: Attitude of governments.

ALSO IN: J. B. Scott, ed., *Hague conventions and declarations of 1899 and 1907.*—A. B. Hall, *Outline of international law.*—F. W. Holls, *Peace conference at The Hague.*—F. C. Hicks, *Equality of states and Hague conferences.*—A. P. Higgins, *Hague peace conferences.*—F. H. Lynch, *Peace problems.*—S. L. Gulick, *Fight for peace.*—J. H. Choate, *Two Hague conferences.*—W. I. Hull, *Two Hague conferences and their contribution to international law.*—T. J. Lawrence, *International problems and Hague conferences.*—W. Schücking, *International union of the Hague conferences.*—R. E. Negus, *Hague rules, 1921 (Law Quarterly Review, July, 1922).*

#### HAGUE (ALLIED) CONFERENCE, 1922.

—Owing to the failure of the Genoa Conference (q.v.) in May, 1922, to settle the economic and financial problems of Europe plus the position of Russia in the comity of nations, it was decided to call another conference at The Hague. The sessions opened in the Carnegie Peace Palace on June 15 and ended on July 19. Delegates representing twenty-nine nations attended; the United States Government was unofficially represented by Louis A. Sussdorff, chargé d'Affaires of the American delegation at The Hague. The object of the conference was to effect a settlement under which the Russian Government would recognize Russia's pre-war debts and consent to satisfactory arrangements concerning the restitution of foreign-owned property which had been nationalized in Russia. At Genoa the Russians had refused to restore this property on the grounds that such an act would violate their communistic principles and infringe Russian sovereignty. On the first day, Jonkheer van Karnebeek, Dutch Foreign Minister, was elected provisional president of the conference. None of the leading statesmen of the Genoa gathering was present; the participating governments had sent financial and economic experts to attempt what diplomats had failed to accomplish. As Edward Hilton Young, one of the British delegates, declared in his speech, it was "a meeting of experts, not statesmen. We are to deal with facts, and not with principles. We should merely prepare to discuss facts with the Russians." The Russians were not due to appear till June 26; meanwhile the delegates met behind closed doors guarded by Dutch soldiers. On the 16th the chief business was the formation of three committees to deal with the question of Russia's debts, her credits and private property, respectively. It was decided that these committees should consist of eleven members, each capable of being increased to thirteen. One seat on each of the commissions was allotted to Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, Japan and Holland—Holland being included as an act of courtesy for permitting the conference to be held at her capital. It was further proposed to ask the Russians to form three similar committees—the non-Russian and Russian committees to hold separate sessions and only to meet in common session when required. Practically all the non-Russian states represented at the conference agreed to this procedure except France, whose representatives declared themselves unable to give a formal consent without prior consultation with their government. Dr. Patyn (Holland) was appointed president of the non-Russian commission. The Russian delegation arrived at The Hague on June 26, headed by Maksim Litvinov, M. Krestinsky, Minister to Berlin and commissioner of finance, M. Sokolnikov, assistant commissioner of finance; Leonid Krassin, commissioner of trade,

did not arrive until July 6. Litvinov quickly made his programme public, telling newspaper correspondents that credits would be insisted upon, and that on this basis alone would Russia consent to forego her counter-claim of 50,000,000,000 gold rubles for war damage. The question of credits, he added, must first be settled before the Russians would be prepared to consider the other points. "This attitude was persisted in by Litvinov at the first joint session, held on June 27. He refused to split up his delegation into subcommittees, as the allied commission desired; thus the Russian delegation met as a whole with each allied subcommittee in alternation. The first meeting was with the Subcommittee on Credits. Litvinov began with an energetic demand that Russia be granted credits. Baron Avezzano (Italy) formally asked him to specify what money was needed, and how it would be expended. M. Litvinov insisted that he must first receive assurance that credits would be granted. What Russia wanted was credits for Russian purchases abroad, with each country guaranteeing payment to its shippers. Hilton Young, the British expert, pointed out that capital would go only where it had confidence, and any credits which the Russian Government might get would depend on the work of the other two commissions; in other words, on what the Soviet did about debts and private property. This view was supported by France, whose representatives declared the Russians must state (1) the purpose for which the credits were required; (2) the sum desired, and (3) the guarantees offered. Baron Avezzano then asked Mr. Litvinov to present proposals for Russia's reconstruction under the heads of transport, agriculture, industry and commerce, setting forth what was regarded as most urgent. Litvinov's further attempts to commit the conference to a promise of credits were again countered by Hilton Young, who expressed the issue of lack of confidence in plain and uncompromising words. Litvinov gave up the struggle temporarily, and asked time to prepare the information asked."—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1922, pp. 870-871.—Facing the Subcommittee on Debts, June 28, Litvinov insisted that assurance of a long moratorium to Russia must precede her recognition of debts. Sokolnikov fixed the moratorium to extend from twenty to fifty years. The allied demand for a detailed statement on Russian finances was finally acceded to, the information to be forwarded from Moscow. Before the Subcommittee on Private Property on June 29 the Russians were asked to state what they would do about the foreign-owned and now nationalized property in Russia. To Litvinov's declaration that whatever concessions were made by Russia they would be merely expedients without renunciation of political principles, the British chairman of the Committee, Sir Philip Lloyd-Graeme, retorted that such a declaration was not calculated to inspire confidence. Litvinov was requested to submit definite proposals regarding foreign property on (1) industrial and commercial enterprises, such as engineering work, textile factories, public utility work, mines, timber, banks, etc.; (2) immovable property, such as lands, houses, buildings, forests, trade and private debts. The Russian credit demands were presented on June 30 to the committee dealing with that subject. Credits were asked for in foreign currencies and loans amounting to 3,224,000,000 gold rubles (\$1,612,000,000): transport, 1,050,000,000 gold rubles; agriculture, 924,000,000 gold rubles; industries, 750,000,000 gold rubles; miscellaneous commercial credits, 300,000,000 gold rubles, and bank credits, 200,000,000 gold rubles. These,

it was declared, were Russia's minimum needs, which could be spread over three years, though more than one-third would be required during the first year. "The sum asked for was to be granted as a direct credit to the Moscow Government, and had nothing to do with the other credits requested, which were to facilitate private trade with Russia under Government guarantee. One of the items given was for \$100,000,000 cash to enable Russia to establish at least a partial gold standard for an issue of new currency. The total sum demanded—\$1,612,000,000—may be compared with the \$1,000,000,000 demanded by the Russians at Genoa, a demand which broke up that conference. Both the French and Belgian delegates characterized this new demand as fantastic. Litvinov and Sokolnikov retorted that if the Russians did not get the money they needed, there would be small probability that the allied nations would collect on what they claimed was due to them. This remark aroused resentment, and Hilton Young then adjourned the session, declaring that further discussions must be confined to facts."—*Ibid.*, pp. 872-873.—On July 4, the same day, Sokolnikov presented the Russian budget information, which proved to be a bewildering mass of figures running into trillions of rubles—one gold ruble being reckoned at 1,200,000 paper rubles. Krassin arrived on the 6th and on the following day the French delegate M. Alphand informed the Russians that the allied experts had studied the Russian budget figures and had found that instead of 80 per cent. being met by tax revenue, as the Russians had declared, in reality only four-and-a-half per cent. was being so covered, and that all the remainder was covered by paper money. In a session of the Private Property committee the delegates attempted to commit Litvinov to something definite on the restitution problem; after desultory sparring the latter roundly demanded the allies to state their credit terms. He was told that no credits could be obtained until Russia yielded on the property question. Litvinov became defiant and declared that the list of concessions (containing only five per cent. of the foreign-owned property) represented all that Russia would agree to, and would not agree to that unless the demanded credits were forthcoming. A similar reply was given by Krassin on the debts proposition. On the 14th the two Commissions were reported to have given up hope of reaching any agreement and that further discussion was useless. The door was still left open for any new Russian proposals, while the non-Russian representatives continued their meetings. At a plenary session of the latter on July 18 it was decided to grant a request made by the Russians for a joint meeting, on the distinct understanding that it would be only for the purpose of submitting new proposals. In a letter to the president of the Conference, declining to attend that meeting, Litvinov strongly criticized the invitation of the European representatives to the meeting as imposing conditions absolutely unacceptable. "Your invitation to attend a meeting," he wrote, "of the subcommission on private property is all the more inadmissible upon our making a definite statement of our position, while it imposes no obligation whatsoever upon the other party to the negotiation. These two commissions came to The Hague on a footing of equality of right, and I can never consent to an arrangement under which one commission pretends to impose on the other preliminary conditions for their meetings." On the following day, however, new proposals were forthcoming, in which the Russians suggested an arrangement by which Rus-

sia would undertake to negotiate directly with foreigners for the payment of compensation for confiscated property and with the bondholders for the settlement of the Russian debt. "For a good round month, the Soviet delegates were given a thorough earth-earthy education in the first principles of business and of western economics. Vainly did the Russians writh and struggle and make speeches and present absurd counter-questionnaires. The solid front of the Westerners held firm, even in the face of a threatened break, and in the end, Maxim Litvinov, head of the Soviet delegation, was constrained to propose, without question of credits, that Russia should recognize freely and frankly the pre-war debt and the right of foreign property-owners to restitution or compensation. Having obtained this unexpected and gratifying result, the Western powers, by common accord, took cognizance thereof in a friendly resolution, and abruptly closed the conference, in an atmosphere of calm and of hope, with everyone reasonably satisfied."—P. S. Mowrer, *What The Hague did for Russia* (*Our World*, Sept., 1922, p. 96).—See also FRANCE: 1922 (April-July).

**HAGUE TRIBUNAL:** Permanent court of arbitration.—**Supplementary bodies.**—Court of summary jurisdiction, and commissions of inquiry.—"The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 regarding the peaceful settlement of international disputes . . . did not withhold from the parties at issue the right to select their own arbitrators as in the past, but they placed before them a definite method of procedure with an organisation in working order, ready to take cognizance, under rules laid down beforehand, of complaints submitted to it. This is the Permanent Court of Arbitration situated at The Hague. The task assigned to the New Court is laid down in Article 20 of the Convention of 1899, reproduced by Article 41 of the 1907 Convention. It runs as follows: With a view to facilitating the immediate reference to arbitration of international disputes, which have failed of settlement through diplomatic channels, the signatory Powers bind themselves to form a Permanent Court of Arbitration accessible at all times and working—*save when the parties at issue shall agree otherwise*—according to the rules of procedure laid down in the present Convention. Despite its name, the Permanent Court of Arbitration is not a tribunal established once for all in permanent session and waiting for litigants to appear before it. It is neither a Court of *Justice* nor a *permanent* Court. It consists merely of a panel or list of persons bound by oath, who are proposed for the consideration of the parties concerned. The litigants can select from among this list the members of the Arbitration Tribunal to examine their dispute. . . . The parties at issue declare, in a preliminary agreement, their willingness to accept the interposition of the court in the dispute; they then form the Court, that is to say, they nominate the Arbitrators. . . . The Convention of 1899 did not prohibit the parties at issue from selecting their two arbitrators from among their own nationals. As is clear, the result of this might be to make the award the work of the Chief Arbitrator alone, his colleagues being influenced by feelings of patriotism. This danger was removed, however, by the 1907 Convention, which provided that only one of the arbitrators might be chosen by each side from among its own nationals. On the formation of the Tribunal, the parties notify the Secretariat of their intention to approach the Court, forwarding the text of their preliminary agreement and the names of the arbitrators selected. The Secretariat at once sends to

each arbitrator a copy of the preliminary agreement, together with the names of his colleagues. All is then ready for the Court to begin its work. The rules of procedure are merely optional, and not binding on the parties at issue. As a general rule, failing agreement to the contrary, a written statement of the case, composed of memoranda, replies, and counter replies, is drawn up. The parties at issue are represented before the Court by agents, assisted sometimes by counsel. . . . The Tribunal decides on the question of language and as to whether the public is to be admitted to the sittings. At the end of the sittings, the Tribunal considers its award in private, but the finding must be read in open Court and the reasons for the finding given. In 1899, judges who dissented were authorised to state the fact, but not to give the grounds for their opinion. In 1907 this rule was amended. The derogation from the authority of the finding which resulted from this practice was considered to be most unfortunate, and at the present time neither expressions of dissent nor even reservations are permitted. When once the finding has been announced, it is judicially binding on the States which are parties to the dispute. They are bound to carry it out loyally and in good faith. Nevertheless, the absence of sanctions has prevented an award by arbitration from having the executive force which belongs to ordinary judicial decrees. Executive force can only spring from a fount of public authority which receives its powers from the supreme ruler of the country where it is established. International judges have had no such powers. Besides, it is not clear that the arbitrators' award has the authority of 'chose jugée' in the national Courts of the States that were parties to the dispute, nor that these latter Courts are bound to recognise the award. Hitherto the awards of such a Court had been subject to no *appeal*. *Revision* of the finding is permitted in certain cases, however, if the parties at issue, in their preliminary agreement, had reserved to themselves the right of eventual appeal against the decision to be given. Yet even so, a revision is not possible unless a new fact of a nature decisively to affect the finding has been discovered, and one which was unknown both to the Court and to the appellant party at the time the sittings were closed. . . . The procedure detailed above is certainly complicated. Certain disputes may require a more speedy, less costly method of solution, while others may call for specially qualified persons, other than those whose judicial skill or high moral reputation has placed them on the permanent panel of the Arbitration Court. To provide for such cases the Hague Convention of 1907 amended the scheme of 1899 to provide a summary method of procedure by arbitration for cases of minor importance or of a technical character. This amendment was really the creation of an International Court of Summary Jurisdiction. The simplified procedure excludes all verbal argument and limits the number of arbitrators to three, who may be chosen by the parties from outside the panel of the Permanent Court. In principle all arbitration referred to in the Hague Conventions is purely optional. Every effort to invest the Court with powers of a compulsory nature, both in 1899 and 1907, was of no avail. Russia proposed to insert a clause in the 1899 Convention which would generally bind the contracting Powers to submit to arbitration certain types of purely legal questions or matters of minor importance affecting neither their honour nor their vital interests. The opposition of Germany, however, brought this proposal to nought. Similar projects

in 1907 met with a like fate, though one secured 32 votes to 9. . . . In thus sketching the outlines of the work accomplished by the Hague Conferences, reference must be made to the Commission of Inquiry, instituted by the Convention of 1899 and remodelled by that of 1907. These Commissions may be set up to establish by conscientious and impartial scrutiny any questions of fact which have given or may give rise to disputes. The opinions they pronounce bear only on the facts of the case, and their use is authorised only in international litigation which affects neither the honour nor the vital interests of States. The advantages of these Commissions of Inquiry are obvious. For instance, there may be a frontier incident. A misdemeanour has been committed in the immediate neighbourhood of the frontier between two countries, it is not definitely known if it occurred on this side or the other. There are two stories which appear equally possible. The inquiry which the Commission institutes clears up the facts. Once such light has been thrown on the case the parties may easily agree upon the conclusions to be drawn. Like the Court of Arbitration, the Commission is constituted by a special agreement between the litigant parties specifying the facts with which the inquiry must deal, the manner of its constitution, the scope of its powers, the place of its sitting, and its procedure. The result of the investigation is embodied in a report drawn up in private, approved by a majority of votes and then read in public session in the presence of the agents or counsel of the parties concerned. At first sight there is a strong analogy between the working of the Court of Arbitration and the Inquiry Commission, but this is more apparent than real. The Court of Arbitration sits in judgment, gives a verdict and puts an end to the controversy; while the Commission confines itself to a statement and proof of facts, acting after the manner of a police magistrate, and is not, as a general rule, competent to appraise in any way the results of the inquiry it has conducted, nor the questions of law which arise therefrom. It is for the parties at issue, once obscure or contested facts have been made clear, to draw the necessary inferences. They are free to arrive at a direct and friendly settlement, or else, if a point of law remains contentious, to set up an arbitration court to judge it. The tragic incident at Hull in 1904, which nearly caused a conflict between Great Britain and Russia during the Russo-Japanese War, has enabled the International Inquiry Commission to demonstrate its preventive value."—L. Bourgeois, *Hague permanent court of arbitration (League of Nations, pp. 64-71)*.—Although not officially dissolved, this court is practically superseded by the Permanent Court of International Justice.—See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1898-1899; 1907; HAGUE CONFERENCES; INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

Carnegie gift of a court house and library. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

Cases decided by the court. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern.

**HAHNEMANN**, Samuel Christian Friedrich (1755-1843), German physician and founder of homeopathy. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Hahnemann, etc.

**HAI RIVER**, tributary of the Tigris. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1; a, 1, i.

**HAICHENG**, town in Manchuria, in the Liaoting peninsula. It was occupied by the Japanese, 1905, during the Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

**HAIDA INDIANS**. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific Coast area; Linguistic characteristics; SKITTAGETAN FAMILY.

**HAIDAR**, Rustem, Hejaz representative at Paris peace conference (1919).

**HAIDAR-PASHA**, city on the Bosphorus, across from Constantinople and considered a part of it. In 1920 it was recognized as a place of international interest. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part XI: Ports, waterways and railways.

**HAIDERABAD**. See HYDERABAD.

**HAIDUKS**, or Heyducs.—"Serbian Christians who, in the earlier period of the Turkish domination, fled into the forest and became outlaws and robbers, were called Heyducs."—L. Ranke, *History of Servia, ch. 3*.

**HAIFA**, port of Palestine.

1916.—Ceded to Great Britain by Sykes-Picot agreement. See SYRIA: 1908-1921.

1918.—Captured by British during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 13; c, 19.

1920.—Recognized as place of international interest. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part XI: Ports, waterways and railways.

**HAIG**, Douglas, 1st Earl (1861- ), British field-marshal. Served in the Sudan, 1898; in the South African War, 1899-1902; commanded British 1st Army in France, 1914-1915; commander-in-chief of the British Expeditionary Force in France, 1915-1919; appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in Great Britain, 1919; elevated to the peerage in same year. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; s, 2; s, 5; w, 8; w, 9; w, 17; w, 19; w, 20; 1915: II. Western front: b; c, 10; c, 11; 1916: I. Military situation: b; II. Western front: a; c, 1; c, 2; d, 1; e; 1917: II. Western front: c; d; 1918: II. Western front: b; c; g; h, 11; j; k; l; r; s, 1; u; w; x, 3; XI. End of the war: a, 1.

**HAINAULT**, or Hainaut, region of the Netherlands (see NETHERLANDS: Map), occupied in ancient times by the Nervii. Became a county under hereditary lords in the ninth century; was joined to the territories of the counts of Flanders in the eleventh century; united with Holland under the same family of counts in the fourteenth century. (See BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval period; NETHERLANDS: 922-1345; 1406-1417); surrendered by Jacqueline to her cousin, Philip the Bold of Burgundy, 1428; became subsequently a possession of the House of Hapsburg; and successively a part of the Spanish Netherlands under Philip II, 1579, the Austrian Netherlands, Holland, and is at present a province of Belgium, bordering on France and the chief seat of the mining and metal manufacturing industries of that country. The estimated population in 1920 was 1,231,720. They are chiefly Walloons.

**HAINISH**, Michael (1858- ), president of Austria. Elected member of the Austrian Parliament, 1909; chosen president by the National Assembly, December 9, 1920. See AUSTRIA: 1920 (November-December).

**HAINSNES**, town in France, southeast of Bethune. It was reached by the British in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: i, 3.

**HAITI**, Santo Domingo, or Hispaniola, second largest island in the West Indies. "The island of Santo Domingo, better known by its old Carib name of Haiti (rough land), or by the name Hispaniola bestowed on it by Columbus in 1492, is separated from Cuba by the Windward passage, and from Porto Rico by Mona passage. The out-

line of the coast is remarkable, and the island is nearly as large as Ireland, the length being about 400 miles and the greatest breadth 160."—H. K. Mill, *International geography*, p. 801.—"It is the most mountainous island of the West Indies, and contains the highest peaks, for Monte Tena, of its central Cordillera, is about 10,200 feet in altitude. Its longitudinal axis is the Cordillera of the Cibao, in which most of its rivers have their origin, but parallel with it, near the north-coast, runs the Sierra of Monte Cristi, and detached ranges occupy various portions of the island. Between them lie salubrious and fertile valleys, in which may be grown every variety of vegetation to be found in the temperate and the torrid zones."—F. O. Ober, *Guide to the West Indies and Panama*, p. 213.

**Political divisions of the Island of Haiti.**—"The island is divided between two political entities, the western one, comprising one-third of its surface, . . . being the Republic of Haiti [see HAITI, REPUBLIC OF], while the eastern one is popularly known as Santo Domingo or San Domingo, though it is officially termed The Dominican Republic. [See SANTO DOMINGO.]"—O. Schoenrich, *Santo Domingo*, pp. 97-98.—"The disuse of Española as the exclusive general term for the whole island is to be regretted. In the absence of such a general term both San Domingo and Haiti are now commonly used in this sense; but as these words are also the official designations of the eastern and western states respectively, much confusion often arises from their twofold meaning. It is as if the term Britain, or Great Britain, were to become obsolete, and both England and Scotland were to be used in a general sense for the whole island, while retaining their special meanings as the proper names of the southern and northern divisions."—E. RECLUS, *Universal geography*, v. 17, p. 397.—See also LATIN AMERICA; WEST INDIES.

**HAITI, Republic of: Area and location.**—The republic of Haiti comprises about one third of the island of Haiti, approximately 10,200 sq. mi., and occupies the western portion of the island. As a result of an irregular coast and two great promontories Haiti has a very large extent of coastline. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic ocean, on the south by the Caribbean sea, on the east by the Mona passage, which separates it from Porto Rico, and on the west by the Windward passage, which separates it from Cuba and Jamaica.—Based on S. B. St. John, *Haiti, or the black republic*, p. 2.

**Resources.—Population.—Education.**—Haiti is mainly an agricultural country, and coffee its chief product, although cocoa, cotton, and tobacco are raised in fairly large quantities. The mineral resources are considerable but as yet quite undeveloped. The population in 1912 was about 2,500,000, the great majority being negroes; there are numerous mulatto Haitians who are descendants of the French settlers, and some 5,000 foreigners. Haiti has a system of free public schools and in 1910 education was made compulsory.

**Aborigines.**—"At the time of its discovery the Island of Santo Domingo [or Haiti] was thickly inhabited. The native Indians were Arawaks belonging to the same race as those who occupied the other larger West India Islands. Unlike the fierce Caribs who inhabited some of the smaller Antilles, the Arawaks were of a gentle and meek disposition."—O. Schoenrich, *Santo Domingo*, pp. 1-2.—See also CARIBS.

1492-1505.—Discovery and occupation by Columbus and Ojeda. See AMERICA: 1492; 1493-1496; 1498-1505; 1502.

1499-1542.—Enslavement of natives.—System of Repartimientos and Encomiendas.—Introduction of negro slavery.—Humane and reforming labors of Las Casas. See SLAVERY: 1442-1501; 1493-1542.

1632-1803.—Partly possessed by France and partly by Spain.—Revolt of the slaves and rise of Toussaint L'Ouverture to power.—Extinction of slavery.—Treachery of the French.—Independence of the island acquired.—"About 1632 the French took possession of the western shore, and increased so rapidly that the Spaniards found it impossible to drive them out; and the footing they had gained was recognized by the Treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, when the western portion of Haiti was confirmed to France. The latter nation was fully conscious of the importance of the new acquirement, and under French rule it became of great value, supplying almost all Europe with cotton and sugar. But the larger eastern portion of the island, which still belonged to Spain, had no



TOUSSAINT L'OUVERTURE

share in this progress, remaining much in the same condition as formerly; and thus matters stood—a sluggish community side by side with a thriving one—when the French Revolution broke out, and plunged the island into a state of ferment. In 1790 the population of the western colony consisted of half a million, of which number 38,360 were of European origin, 28,370 free people of colour, and the whole of the remainder negro slaves. The government of the island excluded the free people of colour—mostly mulattoes—from all political privileges, although they were in many cases well-educated men, and themselves the owners of large estates. . . . On the 15th May, 1790, the French National Assembly passed a decree declaring that people of colour, born of free parents, were entitled to all the privileges of French citizens. When this news reached the colony, it set the inhabitants in a perfect frenzy, the mulattoes manifesting an unbounded joy, whilst the whites boiled at the indignity their class had sustained. The representations of the latter caused the governor to delay the operation of the decree until the home government could be communicated with—a measure that aroused the greatest indignation

amongst the mulattoes, and civil war appeared inevitable, when a third and wholly unexpected party stepped into the arena. The slaves rose in insurrection on August 23rd. 1791, marching with the body of a white infant on a spear-head as a standard, and murdering all Europeans indiscriminately. In the utmost consternation the whites conceded the required terms to the mulattoes, and, together with the help of the military, the rising was suppressed, and there seemed a prospect of peace, when the Assembly at Paris repealed the decree of the 15th May. The mulattoes now flew to arms, and for several years a terrible struggle was sustained, the horrors of which were augmented by vindictive ferocity on both sides. Commissioners sent from France could effect no settlement, for the camp of the whites was divided into two hostile sections, royalist and republican. The English and Spaniards both descended on the island, and the blacks, under able chiefs, held impregnable positions in the mountains. Apprehensive of a British invasion in force, the Commissioners, finding they could not conquer the blacks, resolved on conciliating them; and in August, 1793, universal freedom was proclaimed—a measure ratified by the National Convention early in the following year. Meanwhile the English had taken Port-au-Prince, and were besieging the French governor in Port de la Paix, when the blacks, relying on the recent proclamation, came to his assistance, under the command of Toussaint L'Ouverture, and effected his release. . . . François Dominique Toussaint, a negro of pure blood, a slave and the offspring of slaves, was born in 1743, and on attaining manhood was first employed as a coachman, and afterwards held a post of trust in connexion with the sugar manufactory of the estate to which he belonged. The overseer having taken a fancy to him, he was taught to read and write, and even picked up some slight knowledge of Latin and mathematics." He was slow to join the rising of the blacks; "but at length, after having secured the escape of his master and family, he joined the negro army in a medical capacity," but quickly rose to leadership. "At first the blacks fought with the Spaniards against the French," but Toussaint came to the conclusion that they had more to hope from the French, and persuaded his followers to march to the relief of the French governor, Levaux. When the latter heard that Toussaint had won the blacks to this alliance, he exclaimed, "Mais cet homme fait ouverture partout," and from that day the black commander-in-chief received the surname of L'Ouverture, by which he is best known in history. Acting with wonderful energy, Toussaint effected a junction with Levaux, drove the English from their positions, took 28 Spanish batteries in four days, and finally the British abandoned the island, whilst the Spaniards [1797] gave up all claim to its western end. Toussaint L'Ouverture—now holding the position of commander-in-chief, but virtually dictator—succeeded with great skill in combining all the hostile elements of the colony. Peace was restored, commerce and agriculture revived, the whites were encouraged to reclaim their estates, and by a variety of prudent and temperate measures Toussaint showed the remarkable administrative abilities that he possessed. At this stage he assumed great state in public, being always guarded by a chosen body of 1,500 men in brilliant uniform, but in private life he was frugal and moderate. In the administration of affairs he was assisted by a council of nine, of whom eight were white planters. This body drew up a Constitution by which

L'Ouverture was named president for life, and free trade established. The draft of this constitution, together with an autograph letter, he forwarded to Bonaparte; but the First Consul had no toleration for fellow-upstarts, and replied, 'He is a revolted slave whom we must punish; the honour of France is outraged.' At this time the whole island of Haiti was under Toussaint's sway. As some excuse for Bonaparte it must be acknowledged that Toussaint undoubtedly contemplated independence. . . . Anxious to divest his new presidency of even nominal subjection to France, he declared the independence of the island, with himself as supreme chief, in July 1801. Most unfortunately for the Haitian general, hostilities had for the moment ceased between Great Britain and France, and the First Consul was enabled to bestow his close attention on the former French colony. Determined to repossess it, Bonaparte sent out an army of 30,000 men, with 66 ships of war, under the command of his brother-in-law General Leclerc. . . . During Toussaint's presidency he had abolished slavery, the negroes still working the plantations, but as free men, and under the name of 'cultivators,' . . . Leclerc now endeavoured by proclamations to turn the cultivators against their chief, and also laboured to sow dissension in the ranks of the black army, by making the officers tempting offers, which they too often believed in and accepted. For months a bloody war raged, in which great cruelties were inflicted; but the discipline of the French was slowly telling in their favour, when Leclerc made a political blunder that destroyed the advantages he had gained. Thinking that all obstacles were overcome, he threw off the mask, and boldly declared the real object of the expedition—the re-enslavement of the negro population. This news fell like a thunderbolt amongst the blacks, who rallied round Toussaint in thousands." Alarmed at the effect, Leclerc recalled his proclamation, acknowledged it to be an error, and promised the summoning of an assembly representative of all races alike. "This specious programme won over Christophe, Dessalines, and other negro generals; and finally, on receiving solemn assurances from Leclerc, Toussaint accepted his offers, and peace was concluded." Soon afterwards, by an act of the blackest treachery, the negro statesman and soldier was lured into the hands of his mean enemy, and sent, a prisoner, to France. Confined, without trial, or any hearing, in the dungeons of the Château Joux, in the department of Doubs, he was there "allowed to pine away, without warm clothing and with insufficient food. . . . Finally the governor of the prison went away for four days, leaving his captive without food or drink. On his return Toussaint was dead, and the rats had gnawed his feet. It was given out that apoplexy was the cause of death. . . . This breach of faith on the part of the French aroused the fury and indignation of the blacks. . . . Under Dessalines, Christophe, Clervaux, and others, the fires of insurrection blazed out afresh." At the same time yellow fever raged and Leclerc was among the victims. General Rochambeau, who succeeded him, continued the war with unmeasured barbarity, but also with continued defeat and discouragement, until he was driven, in 1803, to surrender, and "the power of the French was lost on the island."—C. H. Eden, *West Indies*, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: H. Martineau, *Hour and the man*.—J. Brown, *History of St. Domingo*.—H. Adams, *Historical essays*, ch. 4.

1639-1700.—Buccaneers and their piratical

warfare with Spain. See AMERICA: 1639-1700.

1804-1880.—Massacre of whites.—Empire of Dessalines.—Kingdom of Christophe.—Republic of Pétion and Boyer.—Separation of the independent republic of Santo Domingo.—Empire of Soulouque.—Restored republic of Haiti.—“In the beginning of 1804 the independence of the negroes under Dessalines was sufficiently assured: but they were not satisfied until they had completed a general massacre of nearly the whole of the whites, including aged men, women and children, who remained in the island, numbering, according to the lowest estimate, 2,500 souls. Thus did Dessalines, in his own savage words, render war for war, crime for crime, and outrage for outrage, to the European cannibals who had so long preyed upon his unhappy race. The negroes declared Dessalines Emperor: and in October 1804 he was crowned at Port-au-Prince by the title of James I. Dessalines was at once a brave man and a cruel and avaricious tyrant. He acquired great influence over the negroes, who long remembered him with affectionate regret: but he was not warmly supported by the mulattoes, who were by far the most intelligent of the Haytians. He abolished the militia, and set up a standing army of 40,000 men, whom he found himself unable to pay, from the universal ruin which had overtaken the island. The plantation labourers refused to work. . . . Dessalines authorised the landowners to flog them. Dessalines was himself a large planter: he had 32 large plantations of his own at work, and he forced his labourers to work on them at the point of the bayonet. Both he and his successor, Christophe, like Mahomed Ali in Egypt, grew rich by being the chief merchants in their own dominions. . . . He failed in an expedition against St. Domingo, the Spanish part of the island, whence the French general Ferrand still threatened him: and at length some sanguinary acts of tyranny roused against him an insurrection headed by his old comrade Christophe. The insurgents marched on Port-au-Prince, and the first black Emperor was shot by an ambuscade at the Pont Rouge outside the town. The death of Dessalines delivered up Hayti once more to the horrors of civil war. The negroes and mulattoes, who had joined cordially enough to exterminate their common enemies, would no longer hold together; and ever since the death of Dessalines their jealousies and differences have been a source of weakness in the black republic. In the old times, Hayti, as the French part of the island of Española was henceforth called, had been divided into three provinces: South, East, and North. After the death of Dessalines each of these provinces became for a time a separate state. Christophe wished to maintain the unlimited imperialism which Dessalines had set up: but the Constituent Assembly, which he summoned at Port-au-Prince in 1806, had other views. They resolved upon a Republican constitution.” Christophe, not contented with the offered presidency, “collected an army with the view of dispersing the Constituent Assembly: but they collected one of their own, under Pétion, and forced him to retire from the capital. Christophe maintained himself in Cap François, or, as it is now called, Cap Haytien; and here he ruled for 14 years. In 1811, despising the imperial title which Dessalines had desecrated, he took the royal style by the name of Henry I. Christophe, as a man, was nearly as great a monster as Dessalines. . . . Yet Christophe at his best was a man capable of great aims, and a sagacious and energetic ruler.” In 1820, finding himself deserted in the face of a

mulatto insurrection, he committed suicide. “In a month or two after Christophe’s suicide the whole island was united under the rule of President Boyer.” Boyer was the successor of Pétion, who had been elected in the north, under the republican constitution which Christophe refused submission to. Pétion, “a mulatto of the best type,” educated at the military academy of Paris, and full of European ideas, had ruled the province which he controlled ably and well for eleven years. Discouraged, however, by internal dissensions and continued war with Christophe, he took his own life, and was succeeded, in 1818, by his lieutenant, Jean Pierre Boyer, a mulatto. “On the suicide of Christophe, the army of the Northern Province, weary of the tyranny of one of their own race, declared for Boyer. The French part of the island was now once more under a single government: and Boyer turned his attention to the much larger Spanish territory, with the old capital of St. Domingo, where a Spaniard named Muñoz de Caceres, with the aid of the negroes, had now followed the example in the West, and proclaimed an independent government. The Dominicans, however, were still afraid of Spain, and were glad to put themselves under the wing of Hayti: Boyer was not unwilling to take possession of the Spanish colony, and thus it happened that in 1822 he united the whole island under his Presidency. In the same year he was elected President for life under the constitution of Pétion, whose general policy he maintained: but his government, especially in his later years, was almost as despotic as that of Christophe. Boyer was the first Haytian who united the blacks and mulattoes under his rule. It was mainly through confidence in him that the government of Hayti won the recognition of the European powers. . . . In 1825 its independence was formally recognised by France, on a compensation of 150,000,000 of francs being guaranteed to the exiled planters and to the home government. This vast sum was afterwards reduced: but it still weighed heavily on the impoverished state, and the discontents which the necessary taxation produced led to Boyer’s downfall,” in 1843, when he withdrew to Jamaica, and afterwards to Paris, where he died in 1850. A singular state of affairs ensued. The eastern, or Spanish, part of the island resumed its independence (1844), under a republican constitution resembling that of Venezuela, and with Pedro Santana for its president, and has been known since that time as the republic of Santo Domingo, or the Dominican republic. In the Western, or Haitian republic, large numbers of the negroes, “under the names of Piquets and Zinglins, now formed themselves into armed bands, and sought to obtain a general division of property under some communistic monarch of their own race. The mulatto officials now cajoled the poor negroes by bribing some old negro, whose name was well known to the mass of the people as one of the heroes of the war of liberty, to allow himself to be set up as President. The Boyerists, as the mulatto oligarchy were called, thus succeeded in re-establishing their power,” and their system (for describing which the word “gerontocracy” has been invented) was carried on for some years, until it resulted, in 1847, in the election to the presidency of General Faustin Soulouque. “Soulouque was an illiterate negro whose recommendations to power were that he was old enough to have taken part in the War of Independence, having been a lieutenant under Pétion, and that he was popular with the negroes, being devotedly attached to the strange mixture of freemasonry and fetish worship by which the

Haytian blacks maintain their political organisation." The new president took his elevation more seriously than was expected, and proved to be more than a match for the mulattoes who thought to make him their puppet. He gathered the reins into his own hands, and crushed the mulattoes at Port-au-Prince by a general massacre. He then "caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor, by the title of Faustinus the First (1849)," and established a grotesque imperial court, with a fantastic nobility, in which a Duke de Lemonade figured by the side of a Prince Tape-à-l'œil. This lasted until December 1858, when Soulouque was dethroned and sent out of the country, to take refuge in Jamaica, and the republic was restored, with Fabre Nicholas Geffrard, a mulatto general, at its head. Geffrard held the presidency for eight years, when he followed his predecessor into exile in Jamaica, and was succeeded by General Salnave, a negro, who tried to re-establish the empire and was shot, 1869. Since that time revolutions have been frequent and nothing has been constant except the disorder and decline of the country.—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 15.

ALSO IN: S. B. St. John, *Hayti, or the black republic*, ch. 3.

1888-1896.—Civil war.—General Hippolite becomes president.—From 1888 to 1889 there was civil war between generals Légitime and Hippolite who were candidates for the presidency. General Hippolite was the victor and ruled until his death, 1896. General Therasias Simon Sam was elected to succeed him.

1890.—Represented at first International American Congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1897.—Quarrel with Germany.—The government of Haiti came into conflict with that of Germany, in September, 1897, over what was claimed to be the illegal arrest of a Haitian-born German, named Lueders, who had secured German citizenship. Germany demanded his release, with an indemnity at the rate of \$1,000 per day for his imprisonment. The demand not being acceded to promptly, the German consul at Port-au-Prince hauled down his flag. Then the United States minister persuaded the Haitian president, General Simon Sam, to set Lueders free. But the demand for indemnity, still pending, brought two German war-ships to Port-au-Prince on December 6, with their guns ready to open fire on the town if payment were not made within eight hours. For Haiti there was nothing possible but submission, and \$30,000 was paid, with apologies and expressions of regret.

1901-1902.—Second International Conference of American republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1902.—Revolution and civil war produced by a blunder of law.—Resignation of President Sam.—Election of General Nord Alexis.—An outbreak of revolution in Haiti occurred under singular circumstances on May 12, 1902. As related in a dispatch of a few days later by W. F. Powell, United States minister to Haiti, the circumstances were these: When, in April, 1806, General Therasias Simon Sam was elected president of the republic, "Congress enacted a law requiring him to enter upon the duties of the Presidential office at once, and to remain in office until May 15, 1903. This law, it seems now," wrote Mr. Powell, "was not constitutional, as the constitution states: 'That upon the death, resignation, malfeasance in office, or removal therefrom of the President before the 15th of May (in any

year) the cabinet or council of ministers is charged with these functions until the 15th of May, when the newly elected President shall assume the duties of the Presidency; but if a President should accept office or enter upon the duties of the same prior to this time (15th of May), then his term of office must expire on the 15th of May of the year preceding the time that it actually expired, thus not allowing the incumbent to remain in office the full seven years, the time for which he was elected.' For some reason this provision of the constitution was not thought of, or else forgotten, at the time General Sam was elected. No mention was made of this section until about a year ago, when the question was launched upon the public view by the enemies of the Government. The more this question was discussed the more potent it became, until it occupied the attention of all classes to the exclusion of all other matters. . . . The several political arrests and the exile of many persons within the past two years have been on account of this discussion, they demanding that this article of the constitution should be literally followed, the Government, on its part, believing that in the arrest and exile of all such persons all discussions and agitation of this matter would cease. But this rigor on the part of the Government produced, instead of friends, enemies, who were daily gaining strength. At the several interviews I had with the President up to the time I left for Santo Domingo (February 10) he stated that it was his intention to remain in office until he had finished his term (to May 15, 1903) and that he would not resign or cease to be President prior to that time. He had also impressed this fact upon the members of his cabinet up to May 1 of the present year, when it was learned that it was his intention to resign at an early day." This announcement brought a number of candidates into the field, and Mr. Powell, on returning to Port-au-Prince on May 11, found a precarious situation there. He secured an interview with President Sam the following morning, and "was informed that he had determined to resign, that his resignation was ready to be sent to Congress, that he was tired of this constant agitation, and that he would leave by the French steamer then in port for France, where he would pass the remainder of his life in quietness and peace; that since it was the wish of the people to have a new President he would not oppose them, but would abide by article 93 of the national constitution, and if the chambers did not elect a President to-day, Monday, the country would be without a President." One of the candidates, General Leconte, a member of the government about to be dissolved, "felt certain that he would be elected, as he had sufficient votes pledged in both houses to elect him. This news spread rapidly, the streets became full of armed citizens wending their way toward the chambers to prevent, forcibly if necessary, his election. At first it was difficult to get the members together. The streets in the neighborhood of the legislative halls were thronged with people and the Government troops, the latter to protect the members in case of violence. Several secret meetings of the members were held. At last the doors were opened, and as soon as opened every available space not occupied by the two houses was filled by the friends and foes of General Leconte. As the balloting was about to commence some one in the chambers fired a revolver. In an instant shooting commenced from all parts of the room. One or two were killed and the same number wounded. The



members all sought shelter in the most available places they could find—under benches or desks. Others forgot the way they entered and sought exit by means of the windows. By this means the populace prevented the election of General Leconte, forcibly adjourned the chambers without date, and dispersed the members of both chambers. The Government troops immediately retired to the palace, the arsenal, the barracks, or the arrondissement, as it was thought that an attack would be immediately made on each place. A committee of safety was at once formed to safeguard the interests of the city, and as the news reached the other cities of the Republic similar committees were named with like duties. The next object was to secure the palace, arsenal, and the Government buildings. A concerted attack was made on each of the above places at 10 p. m., lasting about twenty minutes, in which the Government troops were the victors. It is supposed that in these engagements about one hundred persons were either killed or wounded."

The next day, on the ex-president's request, Mr. Powell, as dean of the diplomatic corps, arranged with his associates to escort General and Mrs. Sam, together with General Leconte, to the steamer on which they wished to embark, and their departure was undisturbed. On May 26, a provisional government, with General Boisronnd Canal for its president, was established by delegates sent from "the several sections of the Republic." Elections for a new Chamber of Deputies were appointed to be held early in July; though the constitution had declared that such elections "must occur during the first weeks in the month of January." This gave a fine opening for future troubles. Meantime, irregular skirmishing, preliminary to positive civil war, was bringing all business to an end. On July 26 Mr. Powell reported to Washington that civil war had been declared. The contest for the presidency seemed narrowed to two candidates, General Nord Alexis, minister of war and marine in the provisional government, and Mr. A. Firmin. Firmin was the Haitian ambassador at Paris and had established a rival government at Gonaïves in the northern part of the island. His cause was supported by the Haitian navy, of two gunboats, commanded by Admiral Killick. It is needless to give details of the hostilities that ensued except to state that Firmin was overthrown in October 1902.

The elections were determined and the Chamber of Deputies was organized about August 20. The deputies had then to choose the Senatorial body, and the strife of factions among them prevented that election until late in the year, when the forces of the provisional government had achieved successes which brought the civil war practically to an end. General Nord Alexis, who had been campaigning for months, returned triumphantly with his army to Port au Prince on December 14; was acclaimed president by the army on the 17th; and was formally elected by the National Assembly on the 21st. He was then reported to be eighty-five years old.

1908.—**Revolution once more.—Overthrow and expulsion of President Nord Alexis.—General Antoine Simon is elected successor.**—The government under President Nord Alexis was maintained for six years, by its own unsparing use of power, it would seem, rather than by the good will of the country. Revolutionary projects had been crushed with prompt vigor before they had much chance of development, until November, 1908, when one, led by a displaced military commander, General Antoine Simon, ran so rapid a

course that it arrived at complete success on the 2nd of the following month. The aged but indomitable Nord Alexis strove hard to resist it, even to the last inch of fighting in his own palace; but Port au Prince rose against him; his partisans fell away; his soldiers deserted; and finally, on the afternoon of December 2nd, he consented to be taken on board a French training-ship, then in port. In doing this there was difficulty in saving him from an angry city mob. General Simon and his victorious army of rebellion entered the capital on the 5th. Some degree of order had been restored by a committee of safety, but fresh strifes were imminent between rival candidates for the vacant presidency. Simon, with his military following, brushed them aside, and obtained a unanimous election by the Haitian Congress on the 7th, assuming office as president on the 20th.

1909.—**Curse of the country in its military government.**—"The curse of Haiti from the day she established her independence in 1804 to the present time is the tyrannical and wasteful Government of the military party. . . . Scarcely a President in the history of Haiti has not been a military man and the favourite leader, for the time being, of the major portion of the army. . . . That President Antoine Simon will follow in the bloody footsteps of all his Presidential predecessors is improbable. He is a man of obviously kindly nature, with a record of 22 years' essentially clement government of the great southern province of Haiti; but he is an old man of imperfect education. . . . The whole power of the country is still entirely based on the soldiers."—H. Johnston, *The Times* (London), Apr. 13, 1909.—"General Nord Alexis, ex-president of Haiti, died in Jamaica in May. He had taken refuge in the island after his downfall in 1909, and with other refugees was believed to be engaged in a conspiracy for the overthrow of his successor, General Simon, against whom General Firmin was conducting a revolution said to be financed by Alexis. Alexis possessed a considerable fortune. A Haitian gunboat was blown up off Port de Paix in October with heavy loss of life, among the killed being ten Haitian generals on their way to command troops in the north."—*Annual Register*, 1910, p. 470.

1911-1916.—**Foreign intervention.—President Oreste forced to flee.—Great Britain paid indemnity by President Zamor.—Violent civil war (1915).—Intervention by the United States.—Haiti partially under the control of the United States.**—"In 1911 France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy made a joint demand on the Haitian government for the settlement of claims within three months or their submission to arbitration. Political conditions then were and thereafter contained to be unsettled. In 1914 revolutionary disturbances occurred."—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy*, p. 403.—"In January, 1914, President Oreste succeeded in putting down a revolt. . . . Theodore and Zamor then started uprisings, both opposing the Government, but each seeking to put himself into the presidency. American and German marines were landed to protect the interests of foreigners. The revolts were successful and President Oreste sought safety in flight to Colombia. Theodore and Zamor now turned on each other. Zamor was favored by Congress and was elected President on February 7th. He was recognized by the United States and succeeded in putting down Theodore temporarily. But in June Theodore was again in the field and by October gained the upper hand, forcing Zamor into exile, and himself into the presidency. Mean-

while, the clouds of international trouble were gathering around the republic whose leaders were so much engaged in fighting each other. In May, Great Britain, tired of being put off, sent an ultimatum demanding payment of \$62,000 indemnity. Zamor managed to raise the money and that cloud blew over, but the next month, with Theodore again in arms, Germany and France made a formal demand for control of customs. What would have been the outcome of this situation had it stood alone it is impossible to tell. It was certainly highly dangerous for Haiti and unpleasant for the United States, carrying as it did the possibility of European intervention. The European War came in August and the Haitian treasury suspended payment on all obligations of the Government. Theodore came into power in October and the United States, which had been an anxious spectator, undertook in December to secure supervisory control of the country's finances. Theodore could not keep his seat until the arrangement could be put through. The feeling against him was said to be due partly to his willingness to consider an American protectorate, including a grant of a naval station at Mole St. Nicholas. In January and February the tide was rising against him, and in the middle of 1915 it took his life. In the fighting preceding his violent death, a French cruiser had landed marines to protect foreign interests at Cape Haitien. The United States ordered Rear Admiral Wm. B. Caperton, who had been at Vera Cruz, to proceed to Cape Haitien with his cruiser, the *Washington*. Being of a higher rank than the French commander, this put an American in charge of the situation. Caperton had hardly arrived at Cape Haitien when both sides broke into unrestrained savagery at the capital, Port-au-Prince. July 27, 1915, marked the beginning of a ten days reign of terror. Rosalvo Bobo was gaining ground against President Guillaume-Sam. . . . Guillaume-Sam and his general, Oscar, defended the building [the palace], but unable to hold it were forced to flee. Before doing so they put to death all the 160 men held as political prisoners. . . . When the populace heard of the wholesale murders, a mob gathered, invaded the Dominican Legation and from it dragged General Oscar to the street and shot him. The next day, July 28, the mob attacked the French Legation, dragged out Sam, shot him, dragged his body through the streets, and Bobo proclaimed himself President. Confronted by this situation, the foreign military were prompt to act. Admiral Caperton landed marines at Port-au-Prince on July 29 to protect the legations. During the landing, six Haitians and two Americans were killed. An American battleship, the *Connecticut*, was ordered to the port. By August 10, there were 1,400 marines ashore and 850 more on the way. In addition, there was a small force of French marines protecting their Legation, with the approval of Admiral Caperton. The American marines took possession of the fort dominating the town, the barracks and a Haitian gunboat. The Haitian Congress, not to pass unnoticed for lack of activity, proposed the election of a President on August 8. Admiral Caperton decided that, for the moment, such action was inopportune, but his opinion soon changed and on August 12th [1915], under American auspices, an election was held, which resulted in the choice of General D'Artigueave."—C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, pp. 137-140.—On August 12, a new president was elected who cooperated with the American forces in their efforts to establish

peace and order. "On September 16 [1915], a treaty was signed at Port-au-Prince frankly converting Haiti into a protectorate of the United States. The chief provisions were: (1) a Haitian receivership of customs under American control; (2) appointment of an American financial adviser, and American supervision of all expenditure of public moneys; (3) a native constabulary commanded by American officers; (4) a pledge on the part of the Haitian government to cede or lease no territory to a foreign power; and (5) a promise by the United States to 'lend an efficient aid for the preservation of Haitian independence and the maintenance of a government adequate for the protection of life, property, and individual liberty.' The treaty was to last ten years, and an equal additional period if its objects were not accomplished within that time. Pending ratification, its terms were put in operation under a *modus vivendi*. The Haitian Congress ratified it in November, 1915, and the American Senate February 28, 1916. The arrangement marked a distinct expansion of the policy of Caribbean control; for responsibility was assumed not only for honest customs administration and prompt meeting of obligations abroad, but for wise management of the country's internal finances and for the maintenance of an adequate police. Haiti had been a pariah among nations. The population was almost wholly black, and twice as great as that of Santo Domingo. The burden assumed by the United States was therefore more weighty than most people understood."—F. A. Ogg, *National progress (American Nation Series, pp. 259-260)*.—See also DOLLAR DIPLOMACY; U.S.A.: 1915 (August-September).

ALSO IN: J. H. Latané *Political relations of United States and Latin America*.

1918.—New constitution.—A new Constitution was drafted and submitted, June 19, to a plebiscite and was approved by a large majority. The chief change was in the matter of allowing foreigners to acquire property. A new article provided that foreigners residing in the country and societies formed by them should have the right to own real property. This right should expire five years after the foreigner ceased to be a resident of Haiti or the companies had gone out of business. The legislative power is vested in a chamber of deputies and a senate. The members of the former are elected for two years by direct popular vote on a basis of one for 60,000 inhabitants. The members of the latter are chosen for six years also by a direct vote of the people. The president is elected for four years by the two chambers in joint session.

1918 (July).—War declared on Germany.—Haiti joined the allies on account of the torpedoing of a French steamer causing the loss of eight Haitians.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1917-1918: Central America in the World War.

1919.—Represented at Paris conference and Conference of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF; Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF; Conditions of Peace.

1920-1921.—Inquiry into the conduct of the United States marines.—"The naval court of inquiry which investigated the conduct of marines in Haiti on Dec. 18 reported to Secretary Daniels that there 'had been no proper grounds for the statement by Brig. Gen. George Barnett, former Commandant of the Marine Corps, that the American Occupation forces had been guilty of "practically indiscriminate killing" of Haitians.' . . . James Weldon Johnson, Secretary of the Association for the Advancement of Colored People, called

the report absurd on its face and said it was not to be expected that a naval court of inquiry would do other than obscure charges brought against a branch of the navy."—*New York Times Current History, Feb., 1921, p. 351.*—"Rear Admiral H. S. Knapp, in a report on conditions in Haiti made public by the Navy Department on Feb. 13, 1921, urged that Haiti should be held for years to come, as the only means of maintaining the progress which the island republic has made under the American régime. Admiral Knapp declared that the cry for complete independence came from an element which did not represent as much as 5 per cent. of the population, and that the only aim of the agitators in demanding the abrogation of the 1915 treaty between Haiti and the United States was to restore the old régime of graft and wholesale exploitation. The report advocated the extension of the treaty, but expressed a strong belief, based on study of the conditions, that the American rule must be continued."—*Ibid., Mar., 1921, p. 403.*

1922.—American marines exonerated.—"The select committee appointed by the United States Senate to investigate the charges of maladministration in Haiti and Santo Domingo presented its formal report on Haiti to the Senate on June 26, 1922. The report, which is unanimous, is made up of some twenty-six pages, exclusive of maps. The American occupation is justified. On this subject the committee says: 'The chronic anarchy into which Haiti had fallen, the exhaustion of its credit, the threatened intervention of the German Government, and the actual landing of the French naval forces, all imperiled the Monroe Doctrine and led the Government of the United States to take the successive steps set forth . . . to establish order in Haiti, to help institute a Government as nearly representative as might be, and to assure the collaboration of the Governments of the United States and Haiti for the future maintenance of peace and the development of the Haitian people.' The main interest centres in the committee's findings with regard to the charges of maladministration, oppression, killings of Haitians and even torture and mutilation. The charges of cruelty by marines and local gendarmerie are given at length. Only a few of these are declared to have been proved. Many charges are declared to be completely false; others are stated to have been based on hearsay testimony by illiterate natives. All in all, the report gives high praise to the Marine Corps for its work in Haiti. The committee recommends indefinite continuance of American military occupation, but with a reduction of the marine force. It is stated emphatically to be the committee's belief that early withdrawal or drastic reduction would be beyond all doubt immediately followed by brigandage and revolution."—*New York Times Current History, Aug., 1922, p. 836.*

See also LATIN AMERICA; SANTO DOMINGO; WEST INDIES.

ALSO IN: P. M. Brown, *American intervention in Haiti (American Journal of International Law, Oct., 1922).*

HAITIAN TREATY. See U. S. A.: 1915 (August-September).

HAJJ, (Arabic), pilgrimage to Mecca which every Mohammedan feels obliged to make at least once. After having accomplished the pilgrimage, the pilgrim is entitled to add "Hajji" to his name.

HAJLAH, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 5.

HAJVOROWKA, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 7.

HAKATA, Battle near (1281). See JAPAN: 1274-1281.

HAKODATE, northernmost of old treaty ports of Japan, on the southern end of the island of Yezo. In 1854 it was opened to foreign trade. See JAPAN: 1797-1854.

HAKON. See HAAKON.

HAKUAISHA SOCIETY, Japan. See RED CROSS: Japan.

HALAMAH. See HELAM.

HALDANE, Richard Burdon, 1st Viscount (1856- ), British statesman. Member of Parliament, 1885-1910; queen's counsel, 1890; secretary for war, 1905-1912; created viscount, 1911; lord high chancellor, 1912-1915. See ENGLAND: 1912; 1912-1913; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 32; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1907-1909; British army reorganization.

HALDIMAND, Sir Frederick (1718-1791), British general and administrator, of Swiss birth. Served in the armies of Sardinia, Russia, and Holland; fought in the French and Indian Wars; defended Oswego and saved Niagara, 1750; had charge of the English garrison, Pensacola, Florida, 1767-1773; governor-general of Canada, 1778-1784.

HALE, Chandler (1873- ), American representative at second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

HALE, John Parker (1806-1873), American statesman and orator. See U.S.A.: 1852: Seventeenth presidential election.

HALE, Nathan (1755-1776), American patriot. Served at the siege of Boston, 1775; commissioned captain, 1776; volunteered to secure much-needed information concerning the enemy, but was captured, September 21, and hanged as a spy, September 22, 1776.

ALSO IN: H. P. Johnston, *Nathan Hale*.—W. O. Partridge, *Nathan Hale, the ideal patriot*.

HALE VS. HENKEL, case against trusts (1905). See TRUSTS: United States: 1901-1906; 1905-1906.

HALEPA, Pact of (1878). See TURKEY: 1896.

HALÉVY, Jacques François Fromental (1799-1862), French composer, of Jewish birth. Studied at the Paris Conservatory, later with Cherubini; was successively, professor of harmony, theory, and counterpoint at the Paris Conservatory, 1827-1840; elected member, Institute de France, 1836; became permanent secretary of the Académie des Beaux-Arts, 1854. "La Juive" is his masterpiece.—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1864; 1800-1908.

HALÉVY, Joseph (1827-1918), French orientalist. Interested in Zionist movement. See JEWS: Zionism: 20th century.

HALF-BREEDS, name given in derision to one faction of the Republican party during Grant's administration. See STALWARTS.

HALF-MOON, sailing vessel of Henry Hudson. See AMERICA: 1609.

HALFWAY COVENANT. Term applied to a modification of church membership in New England. See BOSTON: 1657-1669.

HALIARTUS, Battle of (395 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 399-387.

HALICARNASSUS, Greek city in southwestern Asia Minor. See ASIA MINOR: B.C. 1100; CARIANS; GREECE: Map; MACEDONIA: B.C. 334-330.

Mausoleum excavated. See BRITISH MUSEUM: Excavations and accessions.

HALICZ, Polish name for Galicia. See GALICIA.

HALICZ, town of Galicia about sixty miles southeast of Lemberg. Russians and Austro-Germans fought for this town during four years of

the World War. Brussilov captured the town on July 10, 1917, but lost it during Russia's last effort. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 1; 1917: I. Summary: b, 4; III. Russia and the eastern front: k.**

**HALIDON HILL, Battle of (1333).** See **BERWICK-UPON-TWEED: 1293-1333; SCOTLAND: 1332-1333.**

**HALIFAX, George Savile, 1st Marquess of (1633-1695),** English statesman. Member of privy council, 1679; presided over council of lords which took measures to maintain order after James's flight, 1688; lord chancellor and speaker of House of Lords, 1689; tendered the crown to William and Mary in the name of the nation and made lord privy seal the same year.—See also **ENGLAND: 1689 (January-February).**

**HALIFAX,** Canadian port of entry, and capital of the province of Nova Scotia, situated on the southwestern side of Halifax harbor on the southeastern coast of the province. "In the year [1749] after the peace [of Aix-la-Chapelle] the land forces in Great Britain were reduced to little more than 18,000 men; those in Minorca, Gibraltar, and the American plantations, to 10,000; while the sailors retained in the Royal Navy were under 17,000. From the large number both of soldiers and seamen suddenly discharged, it was feared that they might be either driven to distress or tempted to depredation. Thus, both for their own comfort and for the quiet of the remaining community, emigration seemed to afford a safe and excellent resource. The province of Nova Scotia was pitched upon for this experiment, and the freehold of fifty acres was offered to each settler, with ten acres more for every child brought with him, besides a free passage, and an exemption from all taxes during a term of ten years. Allured by such advantages, above 4,000 persons, with their families, embarked under the command of Colonel Cornwallis, and landed at the harbour of Chebuctow. The new town which soon arose from their labours received its name from the Earl of Halifax, who presided at the Board of Trade, and who had the principal share in the foundation of this colony. In the first winter there were but 300 huts of wood, surrounded by a palisade."—Lord Mahon, *History of England, v. 4, ch. 31.*—See also **NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755.**—Halifax was made the capital of the province in 1750; declared a free port in 1817, and incorporated as a city in 1842. In 1911 it became an Imperial naval station. "Between February 21, 1915 and August 23, 1918 . . . 305,655 troops sailed from Halifax, this being three-fifths of the slightly over five hundred thousand men who composed the total Canadian Expeditionary Force."—A. W. Eaton, *Chapters in the history of Halifax, Nova Scotia, p. 141.*—On December 6, 1917, as the result of an explosion and conflagration, caused by the collision of two ships, one carrying a cargo of war munitions, the north end of the city and Dartmouth on the east side of the harbor were devastated. The French munitions ship, *Mont Blanc*, was passing up the Narrows, carrying 2800 tons of nitroglycerin and trinitrotoluol, and a deck cargo of gasoline. The Belgian relief-ship *Imo* was passing through the Narrows out to sea. Owing to a misunderstanding of the signals, the *Imo* crashed into the *Mont Blanc*. An area of about two and one-half square miles was totally destroyed by the explosion and fires that followed. A blizzard, the following day, impeded the rescue work and increased the number of deaths. Relief trains were immediately sent by the American Red Cross, and the city was put under martial law. The Domin-

ion government made large appropriations for relief, and organized clearing operations. The report submitted to the General Relief Committee gave estimates of 1,500 killed, 4,000 seriously injured, 20,000 rendered homeless, and a total property loss of \$50,000,000.

**HALIFAX CURRENCY.**—"For many years Canada used what was called 'Halifax currency,' in which the nomenclature of sterling money was that employed, but having a pound of this currency valued at four dollars."—G. Bryce, *Short history of the Canadian people, p. 433.*

**HALIFAX FISHERY AWARD.** See **FISHERIES: 1877-1898.**

**HALL, Charles Francis (1821-1871),** American Arctic explorer. See **ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1850-1883; Chronological summary: 1860-1862; 1871-1872.**

**HALL, Chester Moor (1703-1771),** English scientist and inventor. See **INVENTIONS: 18th century: Improved telescope.**

**HALL, Granville Stanley (1846- ),** American educator, interested in child study. See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Experimental schools.**

**HALL, Lyman (1725-1790),** American patriot and signer of Declaration of Independence. See **U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration.**

**HALL, Major,** American engineer and co-designer of Liberty motor. See **AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.**

**HALL OF FAME FOR GREAT AMERICANS.**—In the designing of new buildings for the New York University College of Arts and Science, at University Heights, certain exigencies of art led to the construction of a stately colonnade, surrounding a high terrace which overlooks Harlem river, and the happy idea was conceived by Chancellor MacCracken of evolving therefrom a "Hall of Fame for Great Americans." The idea has been carried out, by providing for the inscription of carefully chosen names on panels of stone, with a further provision of space for statues, busts, portraits, tablets, autographs, and other memorials of those whose names are found worthy of the place. For the selection of names thus honored, a body of one hundred electors, representing all parts of the country, was appointed by the Senate of the University. These electors were apportioned to four classes of citizens, in as nearly equal numbers as possible, namely: (A) University or college presidents and educators. (B) Professors of history and scientists. (C) Publicists, editors, and authors. (D) Judges of the Supreme Court, State or National. It was required of the electors that they should consider the claims of eminent citizens in many classes, not less than fifteen, and that a majority of these classes should be represented among the first fifty names to be chosen. They were, furthermore, restricted in their choice to native-born Americans, a rule which had some reasons in its favor, though it excluded from the hall such shining names in American history as those of John Winthrop, Roger Williams, and Alexander Hamilton. As the result of the votes given by 97 electors, in the year 1900, 29 names were found to have received the approval of 51 or more of the electors, and these were ordered to be inscribed in the Hall of Fame. The 29 names are as follows, in the order of preference shown them by the 97 electors: George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Daniel Webster, Benjamin Franklin, Ulysses S. Grant, John Marshall, Thomas Jefferson, Ralph Waldo

Emerson, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Robert Fulton, Washington Irving, Jonathan Edwards, Samuel F. B. Morse, David Glasgow Farragut, Henry Clay, Nathaniel Hawthorne, George Peabody, Robert E. Lee, Peter Cooper, Eli Whitney, John James Audubon, Horace Mann, Henry Ward Beecher, James Kent, Joseph Story, John Adams, William Ellery Channing, Gilbert Stuart, Asa Gray. Resolutions by the Senate of the University determined the action to be taken for the selection of further names, as follows: "The Senate will take action in the year 1902, under the rules of the Hall of Fame, toward filling at that time the vacant panels belonging to [1900], being 21 in number." "Each nomination of the present year to the Hall of Fame that has received the approval of ten or more electors, yet has failed to receive a majority, will be considered a nomination for the year 1902. To these shall be added any name nominated in writing by five of the Board of Electors. Also other names may be nominated by the New York University Senate in such way as it may find expedient. Any nomination by any citizen of the United States that shall be addressed to the New York University Senate shall be received and considered by that body." Furthermore: "Every five years throughout the twentieth century five additional names will be inscribed, provided the electors under the rules can agree by a majority upon so many." The senate further took note of the many requests that foreign-born Americans should be considered, by adopting a memorial to the university corporation, to the effect that it will welcome a similar memorial for foreign-born Americans, for which a new edifice may be joined to the north porch of the present hall, containing one-fifth of the space of the latter, providing thirty panels for names.—Chancellor H. M. MacCracken, *Hall of Fame (American Review of Reviews, Nov., 1900, p. 563)*.—This loggia was added, and, in 1905, the names of Alexander Hamilton, Louis Agassiz, and John Paul Jones were inscribed upon its panels. The same year, a loggia for American women was erected and Mary Lyon, Emma Willard, and Maria Mitchell were the first women honored. Harriet Beecher Stowe led the list in 1910 with 74 votes. The others elected in that year were as follows: Oliver Wendell Holmes, Edgar Allan Poe, Roger Williams, James Fenimore Cooper, Phillips Brooks, William Cullen Bryant, Frances E. Willard, Andrew Jackson, George Bañcroft, John Lathrop Motley.

In 1915 the new names added were: Francis Parkman, Mark Hopkins, Elias Howe, Joseph Henry, Charlotte Cushman, Rufus Choate, Daniel Boone. The election of 1915 was "conducted under amended rules, the chief of which gives electors of a certain class the power to place special emphasis upon their choice of nominees in their [field], thus giving weight in the final ballot to each estimate concurred in by a majority of anyone of the seven decisions of electors. The electors are also asked to designate by the initials M.J.F. (more justly famous) those nominees thus estimated (to a number not over one-third of the entire list), thus entitling them to enter the Hall of Fame by a majority rather than the two-thirds vote which would otherwise be required."—*Journal of Education, Aug. 26, 1915, p. 157*.—When the constitution was amended in 1914 to do away with the distinction between native, and foreign-born, it was required that the four foreign-born already chosen, be re-elected in competition with the native-born put in nomination. Alexander Hamilton, and Louis Agassiz were approved,

while John Paul Jones, and Roger Williams, lacked a majority but remained in nomination for the year 1920. The successful candidates of the 1920 elections were Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain), Augustus Saint-Gaudens, Patrick Henry, Roger Williams, advocate of religious liberty and founder of Rhode Island, James Buchanan Eads, bridgebuilder and constructor of the Mississippi jetties, William Thomas Green Morton, discoverer of anesthesia, and Alice Freeman Palmer, educator and president of Wellesley College.

**HALL OF INDEPENDENCE.** See INDEPENDENCE HALL.

**HALL OF THE ABENCERRAGES.** See ALHAMBRA.

**HALL OF THE AMBASSADORS.** See ALHAMBRA.

**HALL OF THE ANIMALS.** See VATICAN MUSEUMS.

**HALL OF THE TRIBUNAL.** See ALHAMBRA.

**HALL OF THE TWO SISTERS.** See ALHAMBRA.

**HALLAM, Henry (1777-1850),** English historian and critic. See HISTORY: 32.

**HALLE, city in Saxony.** See GERMANY: Map. University founded in 1694. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1906.

**HALLECK, Henry Wager (1815-1872),** American general and jurist. Took part in the Mexican War in California, 1847-1849; member of California Constitutional Convention, 1849; president of Pacific and Atlantic Railroad, 1855; during the Civil War, supreme commander in western theater of the war, 1861-1862; general-in-chief of the United States army, 1862-1864. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-November); (August-October: Missouri); 1862 (February-April: Tennessee); (April-May: Tennessee-Mississippi); (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky); July-August: Virginia); End of peninsular campaign; Beginning of Pope's campaign.

**HALLER, Albrecht von (1708-1777),** Swiss physiologist, anatomist and botanist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 18th century: System of Haller.

**HALLER, Joseph (1873- ),** Polish commander in the World War. Served as colonel in the Austrian army, and deserted after the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk, 1918; joined the Czecho-Slovaks in Russia, 1918; made his way to France and took command of the Polish troops fighting there for the Allies, 1918; commander-in-chief of Polish army, 1919-1920. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.

**HALLEY, Edmund (1656-1742),** English astronomer and mathematician. Published paper on comets, 1676; catalogue of stars of southern hemisphere, 1679; observed the comet whose return he predicted, 1682; published theory of the variation of comets, 1683; published chart on the variation of the compass in different parts of the globe, 1701; predicted the return in 1758 of the comet named for him, 1705; experimented with the diving bell, 1716. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Improved diving bell.

**HALLOGNE,** one of the forts around Liège, Belgium. In 1914 of the World War, it was taken by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: b.

**HALLSTATT,** upper Austria. Region famous for its prehistoric remains. See EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Iron Age.

**HALMAHEIRA,** one of the Spice islands. See MOLUCCAS.

**HALS, Frans (c. 1580-1666),** Dutch painter. See PAINTING: Dutch.

**HALSTED, William Stewart** (1852- ), American surgeon. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Advance in surgical methods.**

**HALYS, Battle of** (1102). See **CRUSADES: 1101-1102.**

**HAM, Race of.** See **ARABIA: Ancient succession and fusion of races.**

**HAM, town in northeastern France, fourteen miles southeast of Péronne.** Taken by the Germans in the Franco-German War, 1870, and again in the World War; relieved by the Allied counter-offensive, 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 11; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: c.**

**HAMADAN, Persian town, capital of the province of the same name.** It is identified with the ancient Ecbatana, but contains few remains of antiquity. The population in 1922 was about 40,000.—See also **ECBATANA.**

**1915-1916.—Activities during World War.** See **WORLD WAR: 1915: VII. Persia and Germany; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3; d, 7.**

**HAMATH, Kingdom of.**—"It is impossible to doubt that the Hamathites are identical with the Canaanitish tribe that was settled in the town of Hamath, afterwards called Epiphania, on the Orontes, between the Hittites and the Amorites of Kadesh. After the time of David they were succeeded in that town by the Arimæans."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the East*, v. 2, bk. 6, ch. 1.

**HAMBURG, German republic situated on the lower Elbe, between Schleswig-Holstein and Hanover, and consists of the city of Hamburg and the four domains: Bergedorf, Geestlande, Marschlande, and Ritzbüttel.** (See **GERMANY: Maps.**) Under the constitution of 1861 (revised in 1879 and 1906), it had a republican form of government, consisting of a Senate and a House of Burgeses. The "Free and Hansa City Hamburg," in the republic of Hamburg and the second largest city in Germany, lies on the northern arm of the Elbe. Tradition has it that Charlemagne built the castle of Hamburg between 805 and 811. An episcopal see was established there in 831, and Hamburg became the center of civilization for northern Europe. In 1110 it passed into the hands of Adolph I, count of Schauenburg, and with the building of the Neustadt (present parish of St. Nicholas) by Adolph III of Holstein the history of the commercial city begins. In 1189 it received important commercial privileges from Frederick Barbarossa and the treaties with Lübeck and Bremen, in 1241, and 1249 practically laid the foundations of the Hanseatic League. (See **HANSA TOWNS.**) In 1270 the constitution rendered the internal organization more stable, and 1292, the city acquired complete internal autonomy. The gild war between handicraftsmen and the patrician merchants forced the latter, 1310, to recognize the authority of a committee of forty-eight burghers, which concluded with the senate, the so-called First Recess. In 1510, Maximilian I, declared Hamburg an imperial city, but the act was not confirmed by the imperial chamber, till 1618. In 1520, the Great Recess of February 19 definitely established the Reformation in Hamburg, and vested the city government in the Rath. In 1536, Hamburg joined the League of Schmalkalden; in 1603, received a code of laws regulating exchange; in 1619, the bank was established; in 1770, was admitted for the first time to a representation in the diet of the empire, and in 1783, received its first great commercial impulse when by the Treaty of Paris, the United States became an independent

power which opened up a direct maritime communication with America.

**1801-1806.—One of the six free cities which survived the Peace of Lunéville.** See **CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY; GERMANY: 1801-1803; 1805-1806.**

**1806.—French occupation.** See **GERMANY: 1806 (October-December).**

**1810-1815.—Loss and recovery of autonomy of a free city.—Member of Germanic confederation.** See **CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.**

**1813.—Expulsion of French.** See **GERMANY: 1812-1813.**

**1813.—Re-assembly of free town republic.** See **GERMANY: 1813 (October-December).**

**1842-1871.—Final incorporation into German empire.—In 1842, the business part of the city was devastated by fire. In 1866, it joined the North German Confederation and in 1871 became a constituent part of the German empire.**

**1886.—Surrender of free privileges.—Growth.**—In 1888, it joined the Zollverein, and set apart a portion of the port as a free harbor comprising altogether 750 acres of water and 1750 acres of dry land, and constructed a system of docks, basins, and quays at an estimated cost of about \$35,000,000, thus making Hamburg the largest port on the continent and the third largest in the world.—See also **GERMANY: 1888: Free cities surrender free-port privileges.**

**1892.—Cholera.—An outbreak of cholera, in 1892, carried off 8,000 of its inhabitants.**

**1917-1920.—Modern reforms.—An electoral reform was adopted in 1917; the Council of Workmen and Soldiers assumed complete political power in 1918; and a new constitution was adopted in 1920.**

**1920.—Occupied by the French.** See **GERMANY: 1920 (March-April).**

See also **HOUSING: Germany: Difficulties of the housing problem.**

ALSO IN: W. King, *Chronicles of three free cities: Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck.*

**HAMBURG - AMERICAN STEAMSHIP LINE PLOTS.—Indicted.** See **U. S. A.: 1914-1917; 1915 (March): Indictment of Hamburg-American Line.**

**HAMBURG-ELBERFELD POOR RELIEF SYSTEM.** See **CHARITIES: Germany: 1852-1921.**

**HAMEL, village south of the Somme and about twelve miles east of Amiens, northeastern France.** Taken by the Germans during the World War; captured by American and Australian forces, July 4, 1918.

**HAMILCAR, name of several distinguished Carthaginians.**

**Hamilcar** (d. 480 B.C.), commanded an expedition to Sicily, 480 B.C. Was defeated by Gelon at the first battle of Himera.

**Hamilcar, Carthaginian commander** defeated at Crimissus, 339 B.C., by Timoleon, the Corinthian general.

**Hamilcar** (surnamed Rhodius), ambassador to Alexander the Great.

**Hamilcar, governor of Sicily.** Made himself master of Syracuse, 317 B.C.

**Hamilcar** (d. 309 B.C.), engaged in a war against Syracuse. Taken prisoner and put to death.

**Hamilcar, general in the First Punic War.** Commanded in Sicily, 262 B.C. Fought a naval battle with the Romans, and was defeated, 256 B.C.

**Hamilcar** (surnamed Barca) (c. 270-228 B.C.), father of Hannibal. Fought a war with Rome in Africa and Italy; led an expedition into Spain and

was eventually killed in battle with the Vettones, 228 B.C. See **CARTHAGE**: B.C. 241-238; **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 7; **PUNIC WARS**: First; Second; **ROME**: Republic: B.C. 218-202.

**HAMILTON, Alexander** (1757-1804), American statesman and economist. Appointed to the command of an artillery company, Revolutionary War, 1776; joined Washington's staff, March 1777; in a series of letters diagnosed the ills of the confederation and suggested remedies, 1779-1788; abandoned his staff position, secured a field command, and won laurels at Yorktown, 1781; became a member of the Continental Congress, and acted as receiver of continental taxes in the state of New York, 1782-1783; represented New York in the Annapolis Convention, 1786; and drafted the report which led to the assembling of the constitutional convention, Philadelphia, 1787.—See also U.S.A.: 1781 (May-October); 1783-1787; 1787; 1787-1789.

**Financial statesmanship.** See U. S. A.: 1780-1792; **TARIFF**: 1789-1792; **MONEY AND BANKING**: Modern: 1782-1792; 1790-1816.

**Federal party.** See U. S. A.: 1780-1792.

**Economic situation of United States.** See U. S. A.: 1790; Economic situation, etc.

**Louisiana Purchase.** See U. S. A.: 1803; Louisiana Purchase.

**Fatal duel.** See U. S. A.: 1806-1807.

See also **CAUCUS**: United States: 1776-1800; U.S.A.: 1796; Washington's farewell address; 1798.

ALSO IN: A. H. Vandenburg, *Greatest American*.

**HAMILTON, Andrew Jackson** (1815-1875), American brigadier-general and military governor of Texas. See U. S. A.: 1805 (May-July).

**HAMILTON, Henry**, British colonel and governor of the Northwest, captured by George Rogers Clark in 1779. See U.S.A.: 1778-1779; Clark's conquest.

**HAMILTON, Sir Ian Standish Monteith** (1853- ), British general. In Afghan War, 1878-1880; Boer wars, 1881, 1899-1901; Nile expedition, 1884-1885; Burmese expedition, 1886-1887; quartermaster-general, 1903-1904; southern command of army, 1905-1909; Mediterranean command, 1910-1915; Mediterranean expeditionary force, 1915.—See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: n; 1915: VI. Turkey: a; a, 4; a, 4, viii; a, 4, xvii; a, 4, xxxvi; c, 4; c, 4, ii.

**HAMILTON, Sir William** (1730-1803), British diplomat and archæologist. See **BRITISH MUSEUM**: Explorations and accessions.

**HAMILTON COLLEGE**, New York: Founded in 1812. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 1812.

**HAMITES, HAMITIC LANGUAGES.**—The name Hamites, as now used among ethnologists, is restricted more closely than it once was to certain African races, whose languages are found to be related. The languages classed as Hamitic are those of the ancient Egyptians and the modern Copts, most of the Abyssinian tribes, the Gallas and the Berbers. Some of the older writers, Lenormant, for example, embraced the Phœnicians and all their Canaanite neighbors among the Hamites; but this is not now an accepted view. It was undoubtedly formed under the influence of the theory from which the name Hamites came, namely that the people so designated were descendants of Ham; and it sought to adjust a division of the Hamitic family to four lines of descent, indicated by the biblical account of the four sons of Ham,—Cush, Mizraim, Phut, and Canaan. This hypothesis identified the Cushites with the Ethiopians (modern Abyssinians and Nubians), the descendants of Mizraim with the Egyptians, those

of Phut with the Libyans, and those of Canaan with the Canaanites, including the Phœnicians. Some held that the Hamites occupied originally a great part of western and southern Asia; that they were the primitive inhabitants of southern Mesopotamia, or Chaldea, southern Persia, and southern Arabia, and were displaced by the Semites; also that they once inhabited the most of Asia Minor, and that the Carians were a surviving remnant of them. But the more conservative sense in which the term Hamite is now used restricts it, as stated above, to certain races which are grouped together by a relationship in their languages. Whether or not the Hamitic tongues have an affinity to the Semitic seems still an open question; and, in fact, the whole subject is in an undetermined state, as may be inferred from the following extract: "The so-called Hamitic or sub-Semitic languages of Northern Africa . . . exhibit resemblances to the language of ancient Egypt as well as to those of the Semitic family. In the Libyan dialects we find the same double verbal form employed with the same double function as in Assyrian, and throughout the 'Hamitic' languages the causative is denoted by a prefixed sibilant as it was in the parent Semitic speech. We cannot argue, however, from language to race. . . . and the Libyans have ethnologically no connection with the Semites or the Egyptians. Moreover, in several instances the 'Hamitic' dialects are spoken by tribes of negro or Nubian origin, while the physiological characteristics of the Egyptians are very different from those of the Semite."—A. H. Sayce, *Races of the Old Testament*, ch. 4.—See also **LIBYANS**; **PHILOLOGY**: 25.

**HAMLIN, Hannibal** (1809-1891), American statesman. Member Maine legislature, 1835-1841; national House of Representatives, 1843-1847; United States Senate, 1848-1856, 1857-1860, 1869-1881; governor of Maine, 1856-1857; vice president of the United States, 1861-1865; minister to Spain, 1881-1883.

**HAMMOND, James Bartlett** (1839-1913), American inventor. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Typewriter.

**HAMMOND, John Hays** (1885- ), American mining engineer. Appointed special expert United States Geological Survey, 1885; consulting engineer South African properties, 1893-1900; for complicity in the Jameson raid was arrested, sentenced to death by the South African republic, and released on payment of \$125,000 fine, 1895-1896; elected president of the American Institute of Mining Engineers, 1907; special representative of President Taft at the coronation of King George V, 1911; and chairman of the World Court Congress, 1914-1915.

**HAMMURABI, or Khammurabi**, king of Babylonia, c. 2124-2081 B.C., codifier of laws. The date of Hammurabi's reign which is fixed by the "List of the Babylonian Kings" has been the subject of much discussion. Earlier authorities set the close of his life at (c.) 2250 B.C.; but later discoveries place his period from (c.) 2124-(c.) 2081 B.C. See **ASSYRIA**: People; **BABYLONIA**: First Babylonian empire; Hammurabi: His character; **CODES**: B.C. 2250; **ELAM**; **WOMAN'S RIGHTS**: B.C. 2250-538.

ALSO IN: L. W. King, *History of Babylon*, pp. 110-111.—C. Edwards, *Hammurabi Code*, p. 10.

**HAMPDEN, John** (1594-1643), English statesman. Opposed the ship money impost. See **ENGLAND**: 1629-1640; 1642 (January); 1643 (August-September).

**HAMPDEN CLUBS.** See **ENGLAND**: 1816-1820.

**HAMPSHIRE**, British cruiser, sunk off the coast of Scotland. See ENGLAND: 1916 (June 5).

**HAMPSTEAD**, metropolitan borough of London, England. See CITY PLANNING: Great Britain.

**HAMPTON**, Wade (1754-1835), American soldier and planter. Served as an officer in the Revolutionary War, and in the War of 1812. See U. S. A.: 1813 (October-November).

**HAMPTON**, Wade (1818-1902), American soldier and statesman. Served in the Civil War, and was active in the reconstructive period that followed; governor of South Carolina, 1876-1879. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-June; Virginia: Campaigning in the Shenandoah valley).

**HAMPTON COURT CONFERENCE**, held after the accession of James I, for the discussion of religious differences. See ENGLAND: 1604.

**HAMPTON COURT PALACE**, royal palace of red brick with battlemented walls, is situated in a park on the bank of the River Thames, at Hampton Court, fifteen miles from London. It is the largest palace in the British Isles and was originally founded by Cardinal Wolsey, the one-time favorite of Henry VIII. The story runs that the king on a visit to Wolsey expressed his admiration for the grandeur of the buildings and the extensive gardens, whereupon the cardinal immediately presented the whole estate to his sovereign. It was later occupied by Cromwell, the Stuarts, William III, and the first two kings of the House of Hanover. It was here also that Shakespeare's company of players entertained the royal guests and that the Hampton Court Conference was held in 1604.

**HAMPTON INSTITUTE**, Virginia. Institution for negro and Indian education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: United States: Negroes.

**HAMPTON ROADS**, Virginia: 1865.—Peace conference. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February).

**1907**.—Start of United States fleet on cruise. See U. S. A.: 1907-1909.

**HAMSUN**, Knut (1859- ), Norwegian novelist, dramatist and poet. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1888-1920; NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1920.

**HAN**, Children of. See CHINA: Names of the country.

**HAN**, Japan. See JAPAN: 1641-1853.

**HAN DYNASTY**, one of the most important of the early dynasties of China. See CHINA: Origin of the people.

**HANAKS**. See MORAVIA: Its people.

**HANAU**, district in Hesse-Nassau, Prussia, twelve miles northeast of Frankfurt. See GERMANY: 1920 (March-April).

**HANAU**, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1813 (October-December).

**HANCOCK**, John (1737-1793). American patriot. Delegate to first Continental Congress, 1774; president first and second Massachusetts Provincial Congresses, 1774-1775; president second Continental Congress, 1775-1777; member until 1780, and from 1785-1796; major-general Massachusetts militia; member Massachusetts constitutional convention, 1780; governor of Massachusetts, 1780-1785, 1787-1793. See U. S. A.: 1772-1773; 1775 (May-August); 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.; 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence, 1787-1789.

**HANCOCK**, Thomas (1785-1865), founder of india rubber trade in England. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

**HANCOCK**, Winfield Scott (1824-1886), American soldier and statesman. See U. S. A.: 1880: Twenty-fourth presidential election.

**HAND GRENADE**. See GRENADES.

**HANDEL**, George Frederick (1685-1759), English composer, of German birth. Supreme master of oratorio; studied with Zachau, Halle; produced his first opera, "Almira," at Hamburg, 1705; became Kapellmeister to the duke of Chandos, England, 1718-1721; produced the oratorios "Saul," and "Israel in Egypt," 1739; and the famous "Messiah," 1742. See MUSIC: Modern: 1700-1827.

**HANDL**, Jacques (1550-1591), Austrian musician and composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1500-1628.

**HAND-LOOM WEAVING**. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes.

**HANES**, ancient Egyptian city, mentioned in the Bible by that name (Isaiah 30:4). Its ruins have been identified, about seventy miles above Cairo, on the western bank of the Nile. The Egyptian name of the city was Chenensu; the Greek name Heracleopolis.—R. S. Poole, *Cities of Egypt*, ch. 3.

**HANGAR**, structure for the accommodation of airships. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

**HANGING GARDENS**, Babylon. See BABYLONIA: Nebuchadrezzar, etc.; BABYLON: Hanging gardens.

**HANKAU**. See HANKOW.

**HANKAU SZE-CHUEN RAILWAY LOAN**. See CHINA: 1904-1909.

**HANKIN**, St. John Emile Claverling (1869-1909), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

**HANKOW**, river port in China on the Yangtse-kiang, six hundred miles from the coast. See CHINA: Map; SHANGHAI.

1911.—Rebellion. See CHINA: 1911 (April-December).

**HANLY**, J. Frank (1863- ), governor of Indiana, 1905-1909. See U. S. A.: 1916 (February-November); INDIANA: 1905-1907.

**HANNA**, Marcus Alonzo (1837-1904), American merchant and legislator. Delegate to Republican national convention, 1884, 1888, 1896; chairman Republican national committee, 1896; United States senator, 1897-1904. See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms, etc.; Republican; 1901 (September).

**HANNIBAL** (d. 406 B.C.), Carthaginian general and commander in Sicily. See SICILY: B.C. 409-405.

**HANNIBAL** (c. 249-183 B.C.), Carthaginian general and statesman, son of Hamilcar Barca. After his appointment as commander-in-chief, he completed the conquest of Spain, south of the Ebro, 221-219 B.C.; began the conquest of Rome by storming the town of Saguntum, 219 B.C.; finally defeated by the Roman general, Scipio, at Zama, 202 B.C.; went into voluntary exile, 195 B.C., first to Tyre, and thence to Ephesus. From the court of Antiochus, Hannibal fled to Crete but soon returned to Asia Minor and eventually committed suicide.—See also ALPS: Roman period; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 7; PUNIC WARS: First; Second; ROME: Republic: B.C. 218-202.

**HANNYNGTON**, John Arthur (1868- ), British general in Africa during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theatre: a, 7; a, 10; a, 11; a, 14; a, 16.

**HANOTAUX**, Albert Auguste Gabriel (1853- ). French statesman, historian, and member of the French Academy. Director of historical department of national archives, 1876; counselor of legation at Constantinople, 1885; director in the ministry of foreign affairs, 1892; minister of foreign affairs, May, 1894 to January, 1895, and November, 1895 to June, 1898.



**HANOVER**, or Brunswick-Lüneburg, province of North Prussia, Germany. See GERMANY: Map.

**Origin of the kingdom and house.** See SAXONY: 1178.

**Guelf connection.** See GUELF AND GIBELINES; ESTE, HOUSE OF.

**1529.—Duke joins in the protest which gave origin to the name Protestants.** See PAPACY: 1525-1529.

**1546.—Final separation from the Wolfenbüttel branch of the house.**—The two principalities of Brunswick and Lüneburg, which had been divided, were reunited by Ernest, called the Confessor. On his death, in 1546, they were again divided, the heir of his elder son taking Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, or Brunswick, and the younger receiving Brunswick-Lüneburg, or Hanover. From the latter branch sprang the electoral house of Hanover, and the present royal family of England; from the former descended the ducal Brunswick family.—A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*, v. 2, bk. 9.

**1648.—Losses and acquisitions in the Peace of Westphalia.**—Alternating Bishopric. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia.

**1692.—Rise to electoral rank.** See GERMANY: 1648-1705; 1125-1272.

**1694-1696.—War of the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV.** See FRANCE: 1694; 1695-1696.

**1701.—Settlement of the succession of the Brunswick-Lüneberg line to the English crown.** See ENGLAND: 1701.

**1714.—Succession of the elector to the British crown.** See ENGLAND: 1714.

**1720.—Acquisition of the duchies of Bremen and Verden by the elector.** See SWEDEN: 1719-1721.

**1741.—War of the Austrian Succession.**—Neutrality declared. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (August-November).

**1745.—English-Hanoverian defeat at Fontenoy.** See BELGIUM: 1745.

**1757-1762.—French attack and British defense of the electorate in the Seven Years' War.** See GERMANY: 1755-1756, to 1761-1762.

**1763.—Peace of Paris, ending the Seven Years' War.** See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

**1776.—Troops hired to Great Britain for service in the American War.** See U. S. A.: 1776 (January-June): Engagement of hiring Hessians.

**1785.—In League of Princes.** See GERMANY: 1785.

**1801-1803.—Annexation of Osnabruck.** See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

**1803-1806.—Seizure by the French.—Cession to Prussia.** See FRANCE: 1802-1804; GERMANY: 1806 (January-August).

**1807.—Absorbed in the kingdom of Westphalia.** See GERMANY: 1807 (June-July).

**1809.—Control by Prussia.** See AUSTRIA: 1809-1814.

**1813.—Deliverance from Napoleon.—Restoration to the king of England.** See GERMANY: 1813 (October-December).

**1815.—Raised to the rank of a kingdom, with territorial enlargement.** See VIENNA, Congress of.

**1819.—Constitution granted.** See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.

**1833.—Northwestern League.** See TARIFF: 1833.

**1837.—Separation of the crown from that of Great Britain.**—"From the hour that the Crown

of these kingdoms [Great Britain and Ireland] devolved upon Queen Victoria, dates a change which was a real blessing in the relations of the Sovereign to the Continent of Europe. Hanover was at that instant wholly separated from Great Britain. By the law of that country a female could not reign except in default of heirs male in the Royal family. But in addition to the great advantage of separating the policy of England wholly from the intrigues and complications of a petty German State, it was an immediate happiness that the most hated and in some respects the most dangerous man in these islands was removed to a sphere where his political system might be worked out with less danger to the good of society than amongst a people where his influence was associated with the grossest follies of Toryism and the darkest designs of Orangism. On the 24th of June the duke of Cumberland, now become Ernest Augustus, King of Hanover, left London. On the 28th he made a solemn entrance into the capital of his states, and at once exhibited to his new subjects his character and disposition by refusing to receive a deputation of the Chambers, who came to offer him their homage and their congratulations. By a proclamation of the 5th of July he announced his intention to abolish the representative constitution, which he had previously refused to recognize by the customary oath. We shall have little further occasion to notice the course of this worst disciple of the old school of intolerance and irresponsible government, and we may therefore at once state that he succeeded in depriving Hanover of the forms of freedom under which she had begun to live; ejected from their offices and banished some of the ablest professors of the University of Göttingen, who had ventured to think that letters would flourish best in a free soil; and reached the height of his ambition in becoming the representative of whatever in sovereign power was most repugnant to the spirit of the age."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England*, v. 3, ch. 23.—See also GERMANY: 1817-1840; 1819-1840.

**1849.—Alliance of Three Kings.—Four Kings' Draft.** See GERMANY: 1850-1851.

**1866.—Alliance with Austria against Prussia.—Extinction of kingdom.** See AUSTRIA: 1862-1866; GERMANY: 1866.

ALSO IN: A. Hüne, *Geschichte des Königreichs Hannover und des Herzogtums Braunschweig*.—A. F. H. Schaumann, *Handbuch der Geschichte der Lande Hannover und Braunschweig*.—G. S. Ford, *Hanover and Prussia*.

**HANOVER, Alliance of.** See SPAIN: 1713-1725.

**HANOVER JUNCTION, Engagement at.** See U. S. A.: 1862 (May-June: Virginia).

**HANRIOT, François** (1761-1794), French revolutionist. See FRANCE: 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus.

**HANSA TOWNS.**—"In consequence of the liberty and security enjoyed by the inhabitants of the free towns [of Germany—see CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY], while the rest of the country was a prey to all the evils of feudal anarchy and oppression, they made a comparatively rapid progress in wealth and population. Nuremberg, Augsburg, Worms, Spire, Frankfort, and other cities, became at an early period celebrated alike for the extent of their commerce, the magnificence of their buildings, and the opulence of their citizens. . . . The commercial spirit awakened in the north about the same time as in the south of Germany. Hamburg was founded by Charlemagne in the beginning of the ninth century,

# THE GUELF LINE OF DESCENT OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

21st.

1st GENERATION.

2d.

3d.

4th.

5th.

6th.

7th.

8th.

9th-10th.

17th.

18th.

19th.

20th.

Welf, or Guef, { Cunigunda,  
of *Aitoy*, married  
Alzo II.,  
in *Stabia*. } *Marguis of Este*.

Welf I.,  
Duke of  
Bavaria,  
1070-1101,  
married \*  
Judith  
of *Flanders*.

Welf II.,  
1101-1120,  
married  
Countess *Matilda*.  
Henry,  
(*The Black*),  
1120-1136,  
married  
Wolfrida  
of *Saxony*.

Henry,  
(*The Proud*),  
1126-1139,  
married  
Gertrude  
of *Saxony*.  
Henry,  
(*The Lion*),  
died 1196,  
married  
Matilda  
of *England*.

Henry,  
(*The Young*),  
died 1227.  
Otho IV.,  
Emperor,  
died 1218.  
William,  
died 1213.  
Otho,  
(*The Child*),  
Duke of  
*Brunswick*,  
1238-1252.

Eight  
generations. { Ernest,  
1832-1846.

Henry.  
William,  
Duke of  
*Lunenburg*,  
1569-1592.

Ernest,  
1592-1611.  
Christian,  
1611-1633.  
Augustus,  
1633-1656.  
Frederick,  
1656-1688.  
George,  
died 1641.

George William,  
Duke of *Zell*.  
John Frederick,  
Duke of *Hanover*.  
Ernest Augustus,  
Duke of *Hanover*,  
First *Electo*r,  
married  
Sophia,  
(daughter of  
Frederick V.,  
Elector *Fu*stine;  
granddaughter of  
James I.,  
King of *England*.)  
King of *England*.

Sophia Dorothea  
married  
George I.,  
King of *England*.  
(See below.)  
George Louis,  
or GEORGE I.,  
of *England*,  
married  
Sophia Dorothea.  
(See above.)  
(See Genealogy,  
Sovereigns of *England*,  
under *ENGLAND*;  
1483-1486.)

\* First married to Ethelinda, sister of Henry the Fat.

in the intention of serving as a fort to bridle the Saxons, who had been subjugated by the emperor. Its favourable situation on the Elbe necessarily rendered it a commercial emporium. Towards the close of the twelfth century, the inhabitants, who had already been extensively engaged in naval enterprises, began to form the design of emancipating themselves from the authority of their counts, and of becoming a sovereign and independent state; and in 1189 they obtained an Imperial charter which gave them various privileges, including among others the power of electing councillors, or aldermen, to whom, in conjunction with the deputy of the count, the government of the town was to be entrusted. Not long after Hamburg became entirely free. In 1224 the citizens purchased from Count Albert the renunciation to any property in or sovereignty over the town, and its immediate vicinity. And the government was thus early placed on that liberal footing on which it has ever since remained. Lubeck, situated on the Trave, was founded about the middle of the twelfth century. It rapidly grew to be a place of great trade. It became the principal emporium for the commerce of the Baltic, and its merchants extended their dealings to Italy and the Levant. At a period when navigation was still imperfect, and when the seas were infested with pirates, it was of great importance to be able to maintain a safe intercourse by land between Lubeck and Hamburg, as by that means the difficult and dangerous navigation of the Sound was avoided. And it is said by some, that the first political union between these cities had the protection of merchandise carried between them by land for its sole object. But this is contradicted by Lambeck in his 'Origines Hamburgenses' (lib. xi, pa. 26). . . . But whatever may have been the motives which led to the alliance between these two cities, it was the origin of the famous Hanseatic League, so called from the German word 'hansa,' signifying a corporation. There is no very distinct evidence as to the time when the alliance in question was established; but the more general opinion seems to be that it dates from the year 1247. . . . From the beginning of the twelfth century, the progress of commerce and navigation in the north was exceedingly rapid. The countries which stretch along the bottom of the Baltic from Holstein to Russia, and which had been occupied by barbarous tribes of Slavonic origin, were then subjugated by the Kings of Denmark, the Dukes of Saxony, and other princes. The greater part of the inhabitants being exterminated, their place was filled by German colonists, who founded the towns of Stralsund, Rostock, Wismar, etc. Prussia and Poland were afterwards subjugated by the Christian princes, and the Knights of the Teutonic order. So that in a comparatively short period, the foundations of civilization and the arts were laid in countries whose barbarism had ever remained impervious to the Roman power. The cities that were established along the coasts of the Baltic, and even in the interior of the countries bordering upon it, eagerly joined the Hanseatic confederation. They were indebted to the merchants of Lubeck for supplies of the commodities produced in more civilized countries, and they looked up to them for protection against the barbarians by whom they were surrounded. The progress of the league was in consequence singularly rapid. Previously to the end of the thirteenth century it embraced every considerable city in all those vast countries extending from Livonia to Holland; and was a match for the most powerful monarchs. . . . The principal factory of the

League was at Bruges in the Netherlands. Bruges became, at a very early period, one of the first commercial cities of Europe, and the centre of the most extensive trade carried on to the north of Italy. The art of navigation in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was so imperfect, that a voyage from Italy to the Baltic and back again could not be performed in a single season, and hence, for the sake of their mutual convenience, the Italian and Hanseatic merchants determined on establishing a magazine or store-house of their respective products in some intermediate situation. Bruges was fixed upon for this purpose, a distinction which it seems to have owed as much to the freedom enjoyed by the inhabitants, and the liberality of the government of the Low Countries, as to the conveniency of its situation."—*History of the Hanseatic League (Foreign Quarterly Review, Jan., 1831)*.—See also BRUGES: 13th-15th centuries.—"Under cities we are to understand fortified places in the enjoyment of market-jurisdiction (marktrecht), immunity and corporate self-government. The German as well as the French cities are a creation of the Middle Ages. They were unknown to the Frankish as well as to the old Germanic public law; there was no organic connection with the Roman town-system. . . . All cities were in the first place markets; only in market-jurisdiction are we to seek the starting point for civic jurisdiction. The market-cross, the same emblem which already in the Frankish period signified the market-peace imposed under penalty of the king's ban, became in the Middle Ages the emblem of the cities. . . . After the 12th century we find it to be the custom in most German and many French cities to erect a monumental town-cross in the market-place or at different points on the city boundary. Since the 14th century the place of this was often taken in North-German cities by the so-called Roland-images. . . . All those market-places gradually became cities in which, in addition to yearly markets, weekly markets and finally daily markets were held. Here there was need of coins and of scales, of permanent fortifications for the protection of the market-peace and the objects of value which were collected together; here merchants settled permanently in growing numbers, the Jews among them especially forming an important element. Corporative associations of the merchants resulted, and especially were civic and market tribunals established. . . . From the beginning such a thing as free cities, which were entirely their own masters, had not existed. Each city had its lord; who he was depended on to whom the land belonged on which they stood. If it belonged to the empire or was under the administration (vogtei) of the empire, the city was a royal or imperial one. The oldest of these were the Pfalz-cities (Pfalzstädte) which had developed from the king's places of residence (Königspfalze). . . . Beginning with the 12th century and in course of the 13th century all cities came to have such an organ [i. e. a body of representatives] called the Stadtrath (consilium, consules) with one or more burgomasters (magistri civium) at their head. Herewith did the city first become a public corporation, a city in the legal sense. . . . Of the royal cities many since the time of Frederick II had lost their direct dependence on the empire (Reichsunmittelbarkeit) and had become territorial or provincial cities, through having been sold or pledged by the imperial government. As soon as the view had gained ground that the king had no right to make such dispositions and thus to disregard the privileges that had been granted to the cities, people spoke

no longer of royal cities but of cities of the empire. These had, all of them, in course of time, even where the chief jurisdiction remained in the hand of an imperial official, attained a degree of independence approximating to the territorial suzerainty of the princes. They had their special courts as corporations before the king. Since the second half of the 13th century they rejoiced in an autonomy modified only by the laws of the realm; they had the disposal of their own armed contingents and the sole right of placing garrisons in their fortresses. They had accordingly also the right of making leagues and carrying on feuds, the right to lordless lands (*Heimfallsrecht*) . . . and other prerogatives. The cities of the empire often ruled at the same time over extensive territories. . . . Among the cities of the empire were comprised after the 14th century also various cities of bishops which had been able to protect themselves from subjection to the territorial power of the bishop, and which only stood

'Hansa of Germany' or 'Gildhall of the Germans in England,' come to comprise all Germans who carried on trade with England. Similar associations of the German merchants were the 'German House' in Venice, the 'German Counting-house' in Bruges and the German Hansas in Wisby on Gotland, in Schonen, Bergen, Riga and Novgorod. The chief purpose of these Hansas was the procuring of a 'House' as a shelter for persons and for wares, the maintaining of peace among the Hansa brothers, legal protection, the acquisition of commercial privileges, etc. The Hansas were guilds with several elected aldermen at their heads who represented them in external matters and who administered the property. . . . Quarrels among the brothers might not, under penalty, be brought before external tribunals; they were to be brought before the Hansa committee as a gild-tribunal. This committee had also an extended penal jurisdiction over the members; under certain circumstances they had even the



TOWNS INCLUDED IN THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE

to it in a more or less loose degree of subordination. . . . For the majority of the cities of bishops which later became cities of the empire the denomination 'Free Cities' came up in the 14th century (not till later 'Free Cities of the Empire'). . . . Among the leagues of cities, which especially contributed to raise their prestige and paved the way to their becoming Estates of the empire or of the principalities, the great Rhenish civic confederation (1254-1256) lasted too short a time to have an enduring effect. The Swabian civic league was for purely political purposes—the maintenance of the direct dependence on the empire (*Reichsunmittelbarkeit*) against the claims of territorial sovereignty of the princes, and its unfortunate ending served rather to deteriorate than to improve the condition of the cities. It was different with the Hansa. This name, which signified nothing else than gild or brotherhood, was first applied to the gild of the German merchants in the 'stahlhof' in London. This gild, having originated from the amalgamation of various national Houses of German merchants in England, had finally, under the name of

power of life and death in their hands. An especially effective punishment was the Hansa bann, which occasioned, besides expulsion from the Hansa, a complete boycott on the part of the Hansa brothers. . . . The community of interests thus founded among these cities led repeatedly, already as early as the second half of the 13th century, to common steps on their part; so that in Hansa affairs a tacit league existed, even although it had not been expressly sanctioned. After this had become more clearly apparent in the troubles with Flanders (1356-1358) the name Hansa was also applied to this league-relationship, so that henceforward besides the Hansa of the German merchants there existed a Hansa of the German cities. The Hanseatic League received a firm organization through the Greifswald and Cologne confederations of 1361 and 1367, both of which were at first only entered into for a single warlike undertaking (against Waldemar of Denmark), but which were then repeatedly renewed and finally looked upon as a permanent league. The Hanseatic League . . . came forward in external matters, even in inter-

national relationships, as an independent legal entity. It carried on war and entered into treaties with foreign nations; it had a league army at its disposal and a league fleet; it acquired whole territorial districts and saw to the building of fortresses. In itself it was not a defensive and offensive league; it did not concern itself with the feuds of single cities with outsiders. The sphere of activity of the league was essentially confined to the province of commerce: protection of commerce, . . . the closing of commercial treaties, etc. . . . The head of the League was and continued to be Lubeck. Its kernel, as it were, was formed by the Wendish (i. e. Mecklenburg and Pomeranian) cities which were united under Lubeck. Originally any city of Lower Germany which asked to be taken in was received into the League. . . . Hansa cities which did not fulfil their federal obligations came under the penalty of the Hansa bann and the general commercial ostracism consequent upon it. . . . The federal power was exercised by civic diets, which were assemblies of delegates from the members of the council [Rath] of the individual cities. The summons was sent by Lubeck. The decrees were passed in the form of 'recesses'. . . . Within the League again were narrower leagues with their own common affairs and their own civic diets. After numerous changes the four 'quarters' were recognized as such: the Wendish under Lubeck as its head, the Saxon under Brunswick, the Cologne under Cologne, the Prussian-Livonian under Danzig."—R. Schröder, *Lehrbuch der deutschen Rechtsgeschichte* (tr. from the German), pp. 588-600.—"The complete ruin of the empire in the course of the 15th century necessarily entailed at last the ruin also of its members. Nowhere did this elementary truth make itself felt in a more terrible manner than in northeastern Germany, in those colonial districts which in consequence of the extraordinary development of the Hansa had risen in importance to the extent of having an influence on the whole east and northeast of Europe. Here the year 1370 had denoted for the Hansa a climax without a parallel. After a glorious war it had closed with the Danish king, Waldemar Atterdag, a peace which seemed about to keep the northern kingdoms, for a long time to come, under the power of its will. But, soon after, the Lubeck-Hanseatic policy began to degenerate. . . . The Hansa had looked on without interfering at the struggle which began between the Teutonic Order and Poland. This freed it from the threatening maritime supremacy of the Order; besides this it had just become involved, itself, in conflicts in the North. . . . A long and tedious war ensued . . . which ended to the disadvantage of the Hansa. . . . Within the Hansa, during the struggle, the divergency of interests between the Wendish, Prussian and Livonian cities had for the first time become so pronounced as to amount to complete disunion, and already in 1431 in Hanseatic circles the fear could be expressed . . . 'that the noble confederation of our Hansa will be dissolved and destroyed.' Such being the case it soon became evident that the struggle with King Erich had actually cost the Hansa the 'Dominium maris Baltici.' For one thing the English and the Dutch, more and more unopposed, began to carry on in the East a commerce which was hostile to the Hansa. . . . While the Western enemies of the Hansa thus appeared in districts on the Baltic, which had hitherto been reserved for the Hanseatic merchant, the influence on the North Sea of the Baltic Hansa cities diminished also more and

more. It was possible indeed, for some time to come, still to hold on to Norway. But further to the south-west the Hansa ships, in the war which England in union with Burgundy had been waging with France since the year 1415, saw themselves attacked on all sides in spite of the neutral flag. It was well known that the empire would not protect the German flag. It was worse still that in England a more and more violent opposition arose against the Hanseatic privileges, for the progress of this movement laid bare once and for all the fundamental contrast between the commercial interests in England of the Rhenish Hansa cities and those of the 'Osterlings' [Eastern cities]. If the English were prepared perhaps to further extend the rights of the Hansa in their land in return for the simultaneous free entry of their flag in the Baltic, that was a condition which pleased the German western cities as much as it seemed unacceptable to the Osterlings, Lubeck at their head. The English had succeeded in carrying discord into the enemy's camp. Affairs in Flanders were on a footing equally dangerous to the continued existence of the Hansa as a whole. . . . Lubeck, in a diet of the year 1466, recommended the members of the Hansa to consider the merchants of Cologne as not belonging to the Hansa when in the lands of the Duke of Burgundy. A complete breach could not now fail to come. It occurred, very unfortunately for Cologne and the western cities, on English territory. In 1468 English ships were plundered in the 'Sund,' at the bidding, as was claimed, of the Hansa. The result was that King Edward IV took prisoner all German merchants who happened to be in England and forbade commercial intercourse with Germany. From this restriction, however, the Cologners were able to free themselves through separate negotiations with the king. It was an inconsiderate step thus to separate themselves from the rest of the Hansa, and that, too, in such a question as this. Cologne stood there fully isolated now even from the western cities. Lubeck at once profited by the occasion to have Cologne placed under the Hansa bann, and soon after the Hansa, almost entirely united now except for Cologne, began the war against England. In the year 1472 a great fleet sailed out against the island-kingdom; it had complete success. The peace of Utrecht of February 18th, 1474, restored once more the old Hanseatic privileges in England and opened up the prospect of damages amounting to £10,000. Cologne had to submit; in 1478 it returned to the Hansa. But all the same there was no complete restoration of the old unity. The mercantile differences between the west and the east cities not only continued but increased, and a dominion over the Baltic, not to mention the North Sea, was, in spite of the momentary success in England, no longer to be thought of. . . . After about 1490 the interests also of the Wendish cities including, say, Bremen, Hamburg and Lüneburg, became divided. . . . Thus towards the end of the 15th century the Hansa bore the stamp of decline in all directions, . . . the political-mercantile preponderance on land, as well as the 'Dominium maris Baltici,' was broken and the league itself was torn by internal dissensions. In the years from 1476 to 1494 only one common Hansa diet was held; complete ruin was now only a question of time. The 16th century and a part still of the 17th century comprise the period of the slow wasting away of the Hansa. While at the beginning of this period the South-German merchant-princes developed a German world-commerce, the satiated mercantile

houses of the North showed themselves incapable of progressing even on purely commercial paths. They remained in the ruts of old-fashioned commerce." In England "less and less regard was paid to the warnings and complaints of this antiquated piece of retrogression, until Queen Elizabeth made use of the incautious promulgation of an imperial edict forbidding English merchants to settle in the Hansa cities to simply abrogate the Hanseatic privileges in England. It was the key-stone of the tomb of the Hanseatic relations with England, once so close and full of import."—K. Lamprecht, *Deutsche Geschichte* (tr. from the German), v. 4, pp. 468-484.—See also COMMERCE: Medieval; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1300-1600.—"The Thirty Years' War put an absolute end to the corporate activity of the Hanseatic League, and this, not only because of foreign competition, but, primarily, because the pressure of the War on the inland towns belonging to the League prevented them from helping to maintain its organization by their contributions. . . . As a matter of fact, two out of the three great maritime towns which after nominally renewing the decrepit League towards the end of the War, preserved down to our own day the ancient name which was all that was left of it—Hamburg and Bremen—suffered perhaps less than any other of the more important German towns during the course of the conflict; and one of them, Hamburg, which from the beginning of the 17th century onwards, had facilitated the advance through its portals of English trade into Germany, turned the actual state of things to its own account with remarkable skill. Lübeck, the venerable head of the Hansa, was necessarily less favoured by fortune; for the command of the Baltic was one of the main ends to compass which first Denmark and then Sweden entered into the War, and the ultimate ambition of the Scandinavian Powers contemplated nothing short of the extinction of German navigation in its waters. Lübeck, instead of any share in the rule of the blue sea over which she had once been mistress, had to guard her ancient gateways against horsemen and pikemen; and even before the conclusion of the peace called by her name at the end of the Danish War her citizens are found complaining of the diminution of her fleet, ship after ship, ill made up for by the unavoidable increase of her military trained bands. The credit of her great merchant houses was beginning to give way, and a decline was setting in to which there has hardly been a turn till the last quarter of the nineteenth century."—A. W. Ward, *Effects of the Thirty Years' War (Proceedings of the Royal Institution of Great Britain, Mar. 8, 1912)*.

See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany.

ALSO IN: G. F. Sartorius, *Geschichte des hanseatischen Bundes*.—F. W. Barthold, *Geschichte der deutschen Hansa*.—D. Schäfer, *Die Hansestädte und König Waldemar von Dänemark*.—B. Ehrenberg, *Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Königin Elisabeth*.—H. Zimmern, *Hansa towns*.

HANSE OF LONDON, Flemish. See FLANDERS: 13th century.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE. See HANSA TOWNS.

HANSEMANN, David Ludwig (1794-1864), German publicist and statesman. Founded Disconto-Gesellschaft, 1851. See DISCONTO-GESELLSCHAFT.

HANSEN, Mauritz Christopher (1794-1842), Norwegian poet and novelist. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1814-1900.

HANSON, Alexander Contee (1786-1819), member of United States Senate, 1817-1819.

Editor of the *Baltimore Federal Republican*. See U. S. A.: 1812 (June-October).

HANTZSCH, Bernhard (1875-1911), German ornithologist and explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1910-1916.

HANYEPHING COMPANY, China. See CHINA: 1915.

HAOMA. See SOMA.

HAPSBURG, or Habsburg, name of famous family from which have sprung dukes and archdukes of Austria, kings of Hungary and Bohemia, and German and Spanish kings.

Origin.—First kings. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; AUSTRIA: 1246-1282; GERMANY: 1273-1308; HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

Control of Belgium, Bohemia, Hungary and Luxemburg. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1346; BELGIUM: 1297-1447; BOHEMIA: 1364; 1516-1576.

Growth of possessions. See AUSTRIA: Introduction; 1815-1846; Map.

Spanish and German branches. See AUSTRIA: 1496-1526.

Wars with Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1658-1683.

Hereditary crown vested in Austria. See HUNGARY: 1683-1687.

Decline of power. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918; HUNGARY: 1918 (November); 1921-1922.

Genealogical table. See GERMANY: 1250-1272.

Genealogical table of Spanish House. See SPAIN: 1608-1700.

HAPSBURG-LORRAINE, House of. See AUSTRIA: 1745 (September-October).

HAR GOVIND (1606-1645), guru of the Sikhs and founder of the Sikh nation. See SIKHS.

HARA, Takashi (1856-1921), first commoner to become prime minister of Japan. Secretary and chargé d'affaires, Paris, 1886; three times minister for home affairs, 1906-1908, 1911-1912, and 1913-1914; formed the first party (conservative) cabinet in Japan, 1918. See JAPAN: 1918-1921; 1921-1922; KOREA: 1919-1922.

HARALD I, Haarfagr (c. 850-933), king of Norway, 860-933. See CHRISTIANITY: 9th-11th centuries; NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire; Vikings, etc.; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-11th centuries.

Harald II, Graafeld (d. 969), king of Norway, 961-969.

Harald III, Haardraade (1015-1066), king of Norway, 1047-1066.

Harald IV, Gylle (d. 1136), king of Norway, 1134-1136.

HARALD BLAATAND, king of Denmark, 941-991.

HARALD SWEYNSON, king of Denmark, 1076-1080.

HARAN.—"From Ur, Abraham's father had migrated to Haran, in the northern part of Mesopotamia, on the high road which led from Babylonia and Assyria into Syria and Palestine. Why he should have migrated to so distant a city has been a great puzzle, and has tempted scholars to place both Ur and Haran in wrong localities; but here, again, the cuneiform inscriptions have at last furnished us with the key. As far back as the Accadian epoch, the district in which Haran was built belonged to the rulers of Babylonia; Haran was, in fact, the frontier town of the empire, commanding at once the highway into the west and the fords of the Euphrates; the name itself was an Accadian one, signifying 'the road.'"—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 2.—The site of Haran is generally identified with that of the later city of Carrhæ.

**HARBIN**, or Kharbin, city of Manchuria, on the Sungari river. (See JAPAN: Map.) The Russian government in 1896 established the city in connection with surveys for the Chinese Eastern Railway Company. It became important both as a railway administration center and as a military depot. During the Russo-Japanese War it was a valuable military base for the Russians. Harbin was officially opened to the world's trade on January 14, 1907, in accordance with the terms of the Chino-Japanese Treaty of December, 1905. (See CHINA: 1905 [December].) In 1918 of the World War it was a center of fighting activities. See WORLD WAR: 1918: III. Russia: e, 1; SIBERIA: 1917-1918.

**HARBONNIERES**, town in France on the Somme region, northeast of Montdidier. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: j, 1.

**HARBORD**, James Guthrie (1866- ), American major-general. Entered army as a private, 1889; served in World War, 1917-1919; twice chief-of-staff of the American Expeditionary Forces; commanded successively the marine brigade near Château-Thierry, the Second Division in the Soissons offensive, and the Services of Supply; was chief of the American military mission in Armenia, 1919. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 3.

**HARCOURT**, Lewis Vernon, 1st Viscount, Baron Nuneham (1863-1922). See ENGLAND: 1905-1906.

**HARDEE**, William Joseph (1815-1873), American confederate soldier. See U.S.A.: 1865 (February: South Carolina); (May): Feeling of surrendered Confederate officers.

**HARDEN**, Maximilian (Witkowski) (1861- ), German publicist. Tried three times for *lèse majesté*; was sued for libel in 1907 by General Kuno von Moltke, who, together with Count zu Eulenburg and Count Wilhelm von Hohenau, had been accused by Harden as members of a court Camarilla to influence the Kaiser's political actions; was sentenced to four months' imprisonment, which, on appeal two years later, was changed to a fine of \$150; arrested in 1917 and his newspaper suppressed, but was later released and permitted to resume publication; an attempt was made to assassinate him, July 3, 1922.—See also GERMANY: 1900 (Oct. 9); 1907-1908.

**HARDENBERG**, Karl August, Prince (1750-1822), Prussian statesman and administrator. President of Council of State in Brunswick, 1787; minister of state in Prussia, 1791; arranged peace negotiations with France, 1795; first Prussian minister, 1804; resigned, 1805; chancellor, 1810; representative at Congress of Vienna, 1815; re-organized Council of State, 1817.—See also GERMANY: 1807-1808; 1814-1820; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Prussian; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

**HARDENBURG**, Edict of (1812). See JFWs: 18th-19th centuries.

**HARDICANUTE**, or Harthacnut (c. 1019-1042), king of Denmark, 1035-1042; king of England, 1040-1042. See ENGLAND: 1042-1066.

**HARDIE**, James Keir (1856-1915), English labor leader. Founded the Socialistic Independent Labor party, 1893; elected to parliament, 1892; became leader of the Labor party in the House of Commons, 1906. See SOCIALISM: 1882-1916.

**HARDING**, Stephen (d. 1134), founder of Cistercian Order. See CISTERCIAN ORDER.

**HARDING**, Warren Gamaliel (1865- ), twenty-ninth president of the United States. Member Ohio Senate, 1900-1904; lieutenant-governor of Ohio, 1904-1906; United States senator, 1915-

1920; elected president, 1920. See U.S.A.: 1920 (May-November).

Inaugural address. See U. S. A.: 1921 (March): Inauguration, etc.

First message to Congress. See U. S. A.: 1921 (April).

Vetoes War Bonus Bill. See U. S. A.: 1921 (March-July).

Signs Knox Resolution. See U. S. A.: 1920-1921 (April-July).

Foreign policy. See U. S. A.: 1921 (April-May): Comments on President Harding's foreign policy.

Treaty with Colombia. See U. S. A.: 1914-1921.

Refusal of mediation on German reparations. See U.S.A.: 1921 (April-May): German appeal, etc.

Proposes conference on limitation of armaments. See U. S. A.: 1921 (July-August).

Letter to Sulgrave Institution on bonds of English speaking peoples. See U. S. A.: 1921: American friendship, etc.

**HARDINGE OF LAHORE**, Henry, 1st Viscount (1785-1856), English field marshal, and governor-general of India. Entered as ensign Queens Rangers, Upper Canada, 1799; deputy quartermaster-general, Portuguese army, 1800-1813; commissioner at Prussian headquarters, 1815; secretary of war, 1828, and 1841-1844; chief secretary for Ireland, 1830, and 1834-1835; governor-general of India, 1844-1847; commander-in-chief of the British army, 1852-1856.—See also INDIA: 1836-1845; 1845-1849.

**HARDINGE OF PENSURST**, Charles, 1st Baron (1858- ), British colonial official. Entered diplomatic service, 1880; secretary of legation, Teheran, 1896; secretary of embassy, St. Petersburg, 1898-1903; assistant under-secretary for foreign affairs, 1903-1904; British ambassador, St. Petersburg, 1904-1906; viceroy of India, 1910-1916. See DELHI: 1911.

**HARD-SHELL DEMOCRATS**. See U.S.A.: 1845-1846.

**HARDWICKE**, Philip Yorke, 1st Earl of (1600-1764), English lord chancellor and distinguished judge. See EQUITY LAW: 1736-1756; 1742.

**HARDY**, Alexandre (1575-1621), French dramatist. See DRAMA: 1500-1700.

**HARDY**, Thomas (1840- ), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

**HARE**, Robert (1781-1858), American chemist and inventor. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier.

**HAREM**: Ancient Egypt. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 2000-500.

**HARFLEUR**, town in France, four miles east of Havre. In 1415 it was captured by Henry V. See FRANCE: 1415.

**HARGREAVES**, James (d. 1778), English inventor of the carding machine and spinning jenny. See INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: England; Inventions in textile industry.

**HARII**, or Aarii, ancient tribe. See LYGIANS.

**HARKNESS**, Mrs. Stephen V. See COMMON-WEALTH FUND; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

**HARLAW**, Battle of (1411), a very memorable battle in Scottish history, fought July 24, 1411, between the Highlanders and Lowlanders of the country. Donald, lord of the Isles, was then practically an independent sovereign of the western Highlands of Scotland, as well as the islands opposite their shore. He claimed still larger domains and invaded the lowland districts to make his claim good. The defeat inflicted upon him, at

heavy cost to the victors, was felt, says Mr. Benton in his "History of Scotland," as a more memorable deliverance even than that of Bannockburn. The independence of the lord of the Isle was not extinguished until sixty years later. "The battle of Harlaw and its consequences were of the highest importance, since they might be said to decide the superiority of the more civilized regions of Scotland over those inhabited by the Celtic tribes."—W. Scott, *History of Scotland*, ch. 17.

**HARLEIAN LIBRARY OF MANUSCRIPTS.** See BRITISH MUSEUM.

**HARLEM.** See HAARLEM.

**HARLEY, Robert, Earl of Oxford and Mortimer** (1661-1724), English statesman and founder of collection of books in the British Museum. See LIBRARIES: Modern: England, etc.: King's library.

**HARMAR, Josiah** (1753-1813), American soldier. Commander-in-chief of the United States army, 1789; led a disastrous expedition against the northwestern Indians, 1790. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1790-1795.

**HARMON, Judson** (1846- ), American lawyer. Governor of Ohio, 1909-1911 and 1911-1913. See U.S.A.: 1912: Woodrow Wilson and the election.

**HARMONY SOCIETY.** See SOCIALISM: 1805-1827.

**HARMOSTS**, name of Spartan governors of subject towns. See SPARTA: B.C. 404-403.

**HARNEY, William Selby** (1800-1889), American general. Served in wars with Indians. See MISSOURI: 1861; WYOMING: 1851-1865.

**HARNEY TREATY** (1856). See WYOMING: 1851-1865.

**HARO ARCHIPELAGO**, Pacific ocean, off the coast of Washington. See SAN JUAN.

**HAROLD**, kings of Norway. See HARALD.

**HAROLD I, the Dane** (d. 1040), king of England, 1037-1040.

**Harold II, the Saxon** (c. 1022-1066), king of England, 1066. Disputed the kingship with William but was defeated at the battle of Hastings. See ENGLAND: 1042-1066; 1066: Norman invasion; Spring and summer.

**HAROUN AL-RASHID.** See HARUN AL-RASHID.

**HARP: Egypt.** See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Stringed instruments.

**England.** See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: England.

**Ireland.** See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Ireland.

**Scandinavian countries.** See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia.

**HARPER, Robert Goodloe** (1765-1825), American senator and originator of name Liberia. See LIBERIA: Origin of name.

**HARPER'S FERRY**, town in West Virginia, fifty-six miles northwest of Washington.

1859.—John Brown's invasion. See U. S. A.: 1859.

1861 (April).—Arsenal destroyed and abandoned by federal garrison.—Occupied by rebels. See U.S.A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion, etc.

1862.—Capture by Confederates. See U. S. A.: 1862 (September: Maryland): Lee's first invasion.

**HARPSICHORD**, musical instrument, precursor of the piano. See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Piano.

**HARRIMAN, Edward Henry** (1848-1900), American railroad magnate and financier. See RAILROADS: 1893-1910; 1901-1905; 1901-1909.

**HARRIS, Isham Green** (1818-1897), governor of Tennessee, 1857-1862. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856; U.S.A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

**HARRIS, Townsend** (1804-1878), American diplomat. First consul-general to Japan, 1855-1861. See JAPAN: 1857-1862.

**HARRIS, William Alexander** (1841-1909), populist senator from Kansas, 1897-1903. See U.S.A.: 1899 (January-February).

**HARRIS, Sir William Snow** (1791-1867), English electrician and inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: 1831-1921.

**HARRISBURG**, capital of Pennsylvania. See BUCKSHOT WAR; CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress in city planning.

**HARRISON, Benjamin** (c. 1740-1791), American patriot and signer of the Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration, etc.; STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1774-1789.

**HARRISON, Benjamin** (1833-1901), twenty-third president of the United States. Served in the Civil War; brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers, 1865; appointed member of the Mississippi River Commission, 1878; elected United States senator, 1880; president of the United States, 1889-1893; chief representative of the United States at the Hague Conference, 1899; counsel for Venezuela before the Commission appointed to arbitrate the boundary dispute with England, 1899. See U.S.A.: 1888; 1889-1890; 1892: Twenty-seventh presidential election; 1901 (March); CHILE: 1891-1892; OKLAHOMA: 1889-1890.

**HARRISON, Fairfax** (1869- ), American railway president. See RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

**HARRISON, Francis Burton** (1873- ), governor-general of the Philippine islands, 1913-1917. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1917-1918.

**HARRISON, Joseph** (1810-1874), American engineer and inventor. See RAILROADS: 1830-1880.

**HARRISON, Thomas** (1606-1660), English regicide. See FIFTH MONARCHY MEN.

**HARRISON, William Henry** (1773-1841) ninth president of the United States. Northwest territorial delegate in Congress, 1799; appointed governor, Indiana territory, 1801-1812; negotiated treaties, 1803-1814; vanquished the Indians at the battle of Tippecanoe, 1811; served in the War of 1812; member of Congress, 1815-1819; served in Ohio Senate, 1819-1821; member United States Senate, 1825-1828; first United States minister to Colombia, 1828; unsuccessful candidate for presidency, 1835; elected president, 1840.

Indian campaign and battle of Tippecanoe. See U.S.A.: 1811.

War of 1812. See U. S. A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign; KENTUCKY: 1812-1814.

Presidency.—Death. See U. S. A.: 1840; 1841.

**HARRISON'S LANDING**, Army of the Potomac at. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-July: Virginia), (July-August: Virginia): End of peninsular campaign

**HARROD, James** (1746-1825), American pioneer. See KENTUCKY: 1765-1778.

**HARSHA OF KANOUJ** (fl. 606-648), king of India. See INDIA: 480-648.

**HART, John** (1714-1770), American patriot and signer of Declaration of Independence. See U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration, etc.

**HART VS. WHITE** (1872). See U. S. A.: 1869-1872.

**HARTFORD**, city, port of entry, and capital of Connecticut.



1634-1637.—Beginnings of the city. See CONNECTICUT: 1631; 1634-1637.

1650.—Treaty with the Dutch of New Netherlands. See NEW YORK: 1650.

1687.—Hiding of the charter. See CONNECTICUT: 1685-1687.

1880-1920.—Manufactures. See CONNECTICUT: 1880-1920.

**HARTFORD CONVENTION**, political assembly of the New England Federalists. See U.S.A.: 1814 (December).

**HARTHACNUT**. See **HARDICANUTE**.

**HARTLEPOOL**, seaport in northeastern England. On December 16, 1914, it was bombarded by German cruisers and hundreds of civilians were killed and wounded.

**HARTLIB**, Samuel (c. 1500-c. 1670), English social reformer, of German birth. See SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century.

**HARTMANNWEILERKOPF**, hill in Alsace about twelve miles northwest of Mulhouse. During the World War it was the scene of severe fighting between the French and Germans and frequently changed hands. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 3.

**HARTOG**, Dirk (fl. 1611), Dutch navigator. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800.

**HARUN AL-RASHID** (c. 763-809), caliph of Bagdad. Belonged to the Abbasside family; patron of learning and the arts. See BARMECIDES; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century.

**HARUSPICES**.—"The haruspices, nearly related to the augures, were of Etruscan origin. Under the [Roman] Republic they were consulted only in a few individual cases; under the emperors they gained more importance, remaining, however, inferior to the other priestly colleges. They also expounded and procured lightnings and 'prodigies,' and moreover examined the intestines of sacrificed animals. . . . Heart, liver and lungs were carefully examined, every anomaly being explained in a favourable or unfavourable sense."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, sect. 103.

**HARVARD, John** (1607-1638), Puritan minister, of English parentage, and principal founder of Harvard college. Studied theology at Emmanuel college, Cambridge, England; assistant pastor of the First Church, Charleston, Massachusetts, 1637; bequeathed to the "Wilderness seminary" half his estate, \$3,700, and his library of 320 books. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1636; GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

**HARVARD UNIVERSITY: Founding**. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1636.

**Library**. See LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: University libraries.

**HARVEY, George** (1864- ), American editor and diplomat. Appointed United States ambassador to Great Britain, 1921. See U.S.A.: 1921 (May).

**HARVEY, Hayward Augustus** (1824-1893), American manufacturer. See WARSHIPS: 1861-1892.

**HARVEY, Sir John** (1778-1852), British soldier and governor of New Brunswick. See AROSTOOK WAR.

**HARVEY, William** (1578-1657), English physician. Discovered circulation of blood. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Harvey, etc.; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century; EUROPE: Modern: Revolutionary period.

**HASA**, division of Arabia. See ARABIA: Political divisions; Map.

**HASDRUBAL** (d. 221 B.C.), Carthaginian statesman and son-in-law of Hamilcar Barca. Carried on a campaign in Spain, where he retained control of the country. See CARTAGENA: B.C. 209-221.

**HASDRUBAL** (d. 207 B.C.), Carthaginian soldier, son of Hamilcar Barca, and brother of Hannibal. He took part in the Second Punic War in Italy, and fought against Scipio in Spain, 212 B.C. See PUNIC WARS: Second; ROME: Republic: B.C. 218-202.

**HASMONEANS**, or **Asmoneans**, name of Maccabees. See JEWS: B.C. 166-40.

**HASSAN SABBAH** (1056-1124), chief of Ishmaelites, founder of Assassins. See ASSASSINS.

**HASSIDIN**, sect of Jewish mystics which rose during the seventeenth century in Podolia, Wallachia, Moldavia, Hungary, and neighboring regions.—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews*, v, 3, bk. 28.

**HASTATI**, youngest troops in the Roman legion. See LEGION, ROMAN.

**HASTENBACK**, Battle of. See GERMANY: 1757 (July-December).

**HASTINGS, Francis Rawdon**, 1st Marquess of (1754-1826), British soldier and governor-general of India. Served in American Revolution, 1775-1782; governor-general of India, 1813-1823; governor of Malta, 1824-1826. See INDIA: 1805-1816; 1816-1819.

**HASTINGS, Warren** (1732-1818), first governor-general of British India. Upon his return to England, he was impeached for "high crimes and misdemeanors," but ultimately acquitted.—See also INDIA: 1757-1772; 1773-1785; 1780-1783; 1785-1795.

**HASTINGS, England**, one of the cinque ports. See CINQUE PORTS.

**HASTINGS, or Senlac**, Battle of. See ENGLAND: 1066: Norman invasion.

**HASUUR**, town in Great Namaqua Land, southwestern Africa, held by the English during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1.

**HATAMOTOS**, powerful class in Japan during shogunate. See JAPAN: 1540-1605.

**HATCH ACT** (1887). See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: United States.

**HATFIELD CHASE**, vast swamp in the West Riding of Yorkshire, England, 180,000 acres in extent, which was sold by the crown in the reign of Charles I to a Hollander who drained and reclaimed it. It had been a forest in early times and was the scene of a great battle between Penda, king of Mercia, and Edwin of Northumberland.—J. C. Brown, *Forests of England*, pt. 1, ch. 2, sect. 2.

**HATRA**.—"Hatra [in central Mesopotamia] became known as a place of importance in the early part of the second century after Christ. It successfully resisted Trajan in 116, and Severus in 198. It is then described as a large and populous city, defended by strong and extensive walls, and containing within it a temple of the Sun, celebrated for the great value of its offerings. It enjoyed its own kings at this time, who were regarded as of Arabian stock, and were among the more important of the Parthian tributary monarchs. By the year 363 Hatra had gone to ruin, and is then described as 'long since deserted.' Its flourishing period thus belongs to the space between 100 and 300. [The ruins of Hatra, now called El-Hadhr, were] visited by Mr. Layard in 1846, and described at length by Mr. Ross in the ninth volume of the 'Journal of the Royal Geographical Society,' as well as by Mr. Fergusson,

in his 'History of Architecture.'—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 22.

**HATS AND CAPS, Parties of.** See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.

**HATSEPSUT**, or *Hatasu*, queen of Egypt of the eighteenth dynasty. Daughter of Thothmes I and Mother of Thothmes III, during whose reign she exercised great power. See EGYPT: B.C. c. 1700-1400.

**HATTERAS EXPEDITION.** See U. S. A.: 1861 (August: North Carolina).

**HATTERS' BOYCOTT** (1897). See BOYCOTT: 1897-1920.

**HATTI SHERIFF OF GÜLHANÉ**, or *The Tanzimat*, decree of Sultan Abdul Medjid. See TURKEY: 1839.

**HATTIN, Battle of** (1187). See CRUSADES: Military aspect of the Crusades.

**HAUENSTEIN LEAGUE.** See FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany.

**HAUGWITZ, Christian August Heinrich Kurt**, Count von, Freiherr von Krappitz (1752-1831), Prussian statesman. See GERMANY: 1806 (January-August).

**HAUPTMANN, Gerhart** (1862- ), German dramatist. See DRAMA: 1871-1921; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922; NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1912.

**HAUSEN, Max Clemens Lothar, Baron von** (1846-1922), German general. In the World War he commanded one of the armies which in 1914 invaded France. It was his army that was broken by Foch, September 9, 1914, in the battle of the Marne. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: g, 2; i; p, 4; p, 7.

**HAUTMONT**, village in France, south of Mons, seized by Germans in 1914, and re-taken by the British in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: w, 2.

**HAUT-RHIN**, department of France. See FRANCE: 1915 (January).

**HAÜY, Valentin** (1746-1822), French teacher of the blind. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, etc.: Blind.

**HAVANA**, capital of Cuba and the commercial center of the West Indies, is located on the western side of Havana harbor on the northern coast of the island. It was founded by Diego Valesquez, on an unhealthy site near the present Batabano (see CUBA: 1514-1762), but was removed to its present location, 1519. It was burned by buccaneers, 1528; sacked by another band, 1555; again despoiled, 1563; and unsuccessfully attacked by Drake, 1585, after which Philip II ordered the building of forts El Morro and La Punta, 1580. It was captured by the English, 1762, but was restored to Spain the next year, in exchange for the Floridas (see CUBA: 1762-1763; LOUISIANA: 1762-1766; SPAIN: 1761-1763). Partly burned, 1802, it was rebuilt into a modern city of brick and stone. The United States battleship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor, February 5, 1898 (see U. S. A.: 1808 [February-March]), following which the harbor was blockaded by the American fleet, and the city administered by American forces until 1902, and again from 1906 to 1909. Since that time the city has been rapidly modernized by the latest scientific improvements. In 1921 port conditions were bettered and plans made for a subway. H. Upmann and Co., a German bank in Havana, suspended payments May 1, 1922, with liabilities of \$9,111,000 and assets of \$12,110,000. Charges were made of fraud and bribery in connection with alleged efforts to recover securities seized by the United States during the World War

as alien property, which were returned to them in March, 1920. Estimated population, 1919, about 363,506.

**HAVELBERG, Capture of** (1635). See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

**HAVELOCK, Sir Henry** (1795-1857), British soldier. Figured in the relief of Lucknow in the Sepoy rebellion in 1857. See INDIA: 1857-1858.

**HAVEMEYER, Henry Osborne** (1847-1907), American manufacturer. See TRUSTS: United States: Sugar trust.

**HAVRE**, fortified seaport of northwestern France on the northern bank of the Seine. Havre owes its origin to Louis XII, who built the foundations in 1509. Francis I, recognizing the maritime importance of the situation, ordered the construction of docks for the use of the royal navy and bestowed upon the town, under the name Ville-Françoise, valuable privileges. The name Havre originated from Havre-de-Grâce, an ancient chapel in the neighborhood.

1563-1564.—Occupation by the English.—Siege and recovery by the French. See FRANCE: 1563-1564.

20th century.—Increased importance during World War.—“Sixty per cent of the tonnage of the port in 1913 was in regular lines, especially of passenger ships. The war altered this decidedly. Regular lines almost disappeared, giving place to a great English base, a Belgian base and to services of the national food-supply. The commercial rôle, still important for certain commodities, notably cotton and coffee, seemed however to be effaced by the enormous transit of Allied troops, munitions, provisions for the armies and for the civil population, arriving by full cargo and re-shipped by rail and by water. In 1916 the tonnage of the entering ships, which was 5,405,500 tons in 1913, rose to 8,741,243, and the importations of merchandise passed from 3,003,566 tons to 5,981,000.”—L. Fontain, *Le port du Havre*, pp. 7-8.—From August, 1914, to November, 1918, Havre was the seat of the Belgian government. During the war it was an important port of debarkation and supply base for the British and for the many thousands of Americans who went to France via England. Two so-called “rest camps” were located here.

1915.—Bombed by Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1915: X. War in the air.

**HAVRINCOURT**, town in France, ten miles southwest of Cambrai, scene of fighting in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: c, 6; g, 3; 1, 3.

**HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Geographical description.**—Area.—Population.—The Hawaiian islands at the “crossroads” of the north Pacific form the most northeasterly group of Polynesia, or the division of Oceania lying between North America and the Fiji islands. From Honolulu, the capital, the distance to San Francisco is about 2,067 miles. The group, which consists of eight inhabited and twelve uninhabited islands, lies just below the tropic of Cancer and extends over more than 380 miles. All of the islands are of volcanic origin built up by eruptive process from a base about 15,000 feet below the sea, to a maximum height (Mauna Kea) on the largest island (Hawaii) of 13,805 feet above the sea. The physical features vary tremendously: mountain peaks clad in perpetual snow, deep valleys, arid plains, and deep forests. The total area of the islands is about 6,449 square miles. The principal islands are Hawaii, 4,015; Maui, 728; Oahu, 598; Kauai, 547; Molokai, 261; Lanai, 139; Niihau, 97; and Kahoolawe, 69. The estimated population, 1920,

was 255,912, divided among races and nationalities as follows: Hawaiians, 22,000; part-Hawaiians, 16,900; Chinese, 22,600; Japanese, 113,500; Portuguese, 24,800; Filipinos, 23,400; Porto Ricans, 5,300; Spanish, 1,000; Korean, 5,200; American, British, German, and Russian about 25,600.

ALSO IN: W. T. Brigham, *Volcanoes of Kilauea and Mauna Loa*.—C. W. Baldwin, *Geography of the Hawaiian Islands*.—W. R. Castle, Jr., *Hawaii, past and present*.

**Resources.—Education.**—The soil of the Hawaiian islands is very fertile and productive, and the climatic conditions highly favorable for agricultural activities; but owing to the distance from the world's markets, and the tariffs, only a few products have been raised on a sufficient scale to export in considerable quantities—chief among these are sugar and pineapples. The yield of cane sugar per acre is the greatest in the world. The development of the sugar industry on a large scale dates from 1875, when the Reciprocity Treaty established practically free trade between the islands and the United States. Of the exports, 1920, raw sugar represented \$154,550,205; and canned pineapples \$29,176,104. "The conditions existent in the islands seem highly favorable for the production of henequen, or sisal, and extensive plantations are in operation. An obstacle to its ready and profitable sale in the United States appears in freight charges that are heavy in comparison with the transportation of the product of Yucatan. A good grade of tobacco is produced on a relatively considerable acreage and there is a tendency toward a material increase in plantings. Some of the crop is manufactured for domestic consumption and some is shipped abroad. . . . Experiments are being made with rubber on a fairly extensive scale and the prospects are regarded as highly promising. If insect pests can be successfully combated, there seems no reason why the islands should not be a source of supply for cotton of excellent quality. Sea-island cotton is reported as having given most encouraging results in a number of localities, yielding a heavier crop than is obtained in the Charleston (S. C.) district, but the Caravonica variety has thus far proved the most satisfactory of the various kinds that have been tried. From this, yields ranging from 400 to 700 pounds an acre have been obtained. The success of the industry depends upon the discovery of the variety best suited to the local conditions, upon the care taken in cultivation, and upon the eradication of the several insect pests whose activities at present make the industry somewhat precarious. The various experiments now on trial give promise of a successful issue and of the establishment of a reasonably profitable cotton industry."—A. G. Robinson, *Commerce and industry of Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Philippine islands*, pp. 38-40.—The forest reserves in the territory number 47, aggregating 817,114 acres, and other reserves are contemplated. There are no important mineral resources.

Elementary education is free, and English the language in general use. In 1920 there were 174 public schools with an enrollment of 41,151 pupils, of this number 7,850 were Hawaiians, 5,251 Portuguese, 24,965 Asiatics, and 1,236 Anglo-Saxon. A child born on American soil is entitled to American citizenship, a law that makes possible in Hawaii a condition which careful observers regard with grave apprehension. In 1900 the Japanese pupils in the public schools numbered 1,352 and in 1909 they had increased to 6,415. Most of them are Hawaiian-born. The annual records show the Japanese birth-rate to be over

half the total in the islands, and this proportion has been steadily increasing. "The United States has for its solving a genuine enigma out in these islands. . . . It is not merely a matter of the Americanization of foreign-born residents speaking alien tongues. . . . It is that even more troublesome necessity of molding for citizenship the offspring of Mongolian peoples, themselves not admitted to naturalization under the Federal Constitution. It is this part of the Hawaiian population, moreover, which is most rapidly growing. . . . Here, clearly, is a puzzle of Oriental sort—and written in Japanese characters, one might say. This "Paradise of the Pacific" is today [1922] 44 per cent Japanese. They are far and away the largest single element among the heterogeneous inhabitants. Counting the Chinese, Koreans and Filipinos, Hawaii is 64 per cent Oriental. Now it is easily understandable that these foreigners should wish their children trained, partly at least, in the parents' tongues, and so automatically there grew up a system of foreign-language schools, conducted by teachers often unacquainted with English and usually out of sympathy with American ideals and institutions. However, this has been set right to a very considerable degree. Just a year ago there went into effect a law bringing all such institutions under the Territorial Department of Public Instruction, prohibiting their sessions preceding or during those of the regular schools, or for more than one hour a day. Most important of all, their teachers must now have permits from the department, and these are granted only on satisfactory evidence of a reasonable knowledge of democratic ideals and American history, accompanied by ability to use the English language. Even so, there are yet 200 schools of this sort in Hawaii, whose 500 teachers instruct close upon 23,000 pupils, though never for more than one hour daily."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Aug. 2, 1922.—In July, 1922, the joint committee on the revision of text books and courses of study in the Japanese language schools recommended the reduction of the course of study for elementary Japanese schools, from eight to six years. The territorial school department officially approved the recommendation. "In recommending that the course of study for Japanese language schools be planned for six instead of eight years, thereby eliminating the first and second grades and the kindergartens, the joint committee had in mind not only the greater Americanization of the foreign schools but a desire to give to each child of Japanese parentage a thorough background in the English language and in American customs and ideals before the time came for him to enter a language school to acquaint himself with the tongue, the customs, the history and the literature of the homeland of his forebears. Those in charge of the Japanese language schools in Hawaii have voluntarily agreed to the proposed reduction in the length of the course of study."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Aug. 15, 1922.

ALSO IN: J. F. Rock, *Indigenous trees of the Hawaiian islands.—Survey of education in Hawaii* (1920).—C. H. Forbes-Lindsay, *America's insular possessions*, pt. 2.—*The Friend*, v. 76, June, 1918, pp. 126-127.—R. F. Pettigrew, *Course of empire*, pt. 1.—H. E. Chambers, *Constitutional history of Hawaii*.—R. H. Allen, *Education and race problems in Hawaii* (*Review of Reviews*, Dec., 1921).—*Hawaiian Annual*, 1918.

**Anthropology of the islands.**—Fusion of the races: Hawaiian, Caucasian, Chinese, Portuguese, and Japanese.—The culture which early

discoverers found in Hawaii was typical of Polynesian civilization. The migrations of the Polynesians through all the islands of the Pacific have caused a tremendous amount of speculation and through cultural evidences some of their journeyings have been traced, but all are as yet but tentative. Fornander in his book, "The Polynesian Race," endeavors to prove that the Polynesians previously inhabited the Asiatic Archipelago and perhaps even lands beyond. His evidence is principally of a geographical nature; he claims that naming new places of habitation after old abodes is a deep rooted trait in human nature and through linguistic resemblances of place names he maps out courses of emigration. As far as we know at present the Hawaiians (often called Kanakas from the Hawaiian word Kanaka which means man) settled on the islands in the 10th century, probably having come from Samoa, Tahiti and the Marquesas islands. These people may not be assigned directly with the white, negroid or Mongoloid race and have often been called the Malayo-Polynesian type. (They speak a dialect of the Malayo-Polynesian group of languages.) In physical characteristics they are markedly different from their Melanesian neighbors although the further west one travels in Polynesia the more clearly the intermixture of the two types can be seen. The typical Polynesian has a reddish skin, dark brown or black hair, more often wavy than straight, a broad face and a prominent profile; large eyes, a flattened nose and fairly thick lips. Anthropological measurements show the Hawaiians to be a sub-brachycephalic type, that is, the average cephalic index (on the living) is about 82 while the cranial index of skulls is 79. This puts the type on the border line of the brachycephalic and mesocephalic. There is a difference in physique between the nobles and the common people especially in stature for both the men and women of the upper classes are remarkably tall, while the average stature of the common people is only medium height. This division in physical appearance is typical of the entire culture. "Fusion is in process in the mid-Pacific. In order to estimate it let us first examine the elements. The base is of course the native race. . . . Together with the inhabitants of New Zealand, the Marquesas, the Society, the Samoan, and other Pacific islands it makes up the Polynesian group. . . . Next chronologically among the fusing factors in Hawaii is the Caucasian. . . . Real acquaintance with the whites came when Cook discovered the islands for the modern world in 1778. . . . Hawaii has since 1778 felt the touch of libertinism, of Puritanism, and finally of modern, middle-class American ideals. . . . The Chinese in Hawaii may well debate the claim of the Caucasian to second place among the fusing elements. Chinese began to arrive before the middle of the [nineteenth] century, in response to the opportunities of the sandalwood trade. . . . A dozen other peoples are found in Hawaii in appreciable numbers. Of these the Portuguese alone promise to contribute in any considerable measure to the race mixture. They were imported as cheap plantation labor. . . . They intermarry with no great freedom, but since their group is relatively large their influence is bound to be felt. The Japanese stand at the other end of the scale. Separate, exclusive, and avoided by all, they almost never form unions with other peoples. Between these two extremes are sprinklings of various nationalities—small in extent, but nevertheless certain to leave their mark in a community where race lines are vague and the fusing process well under way. These include

Korean, Russian, Filipino, Spanish, Porto Rican negro. Moreover, the influences catalogued are by no means final. . . . The tragedy of the highly cultured negro finds a mild counterpart in the situation of the educated native of Hawaii in whose veins runs a mixture of white, Hawaiian, and Chinese blood. . . . Race amalgamation in Hawaii is more than an interesting and isolated movement. World-statesmen have for years been inquiring what is to happen when there transpires the real meeting of East and West. . . . The significant facts are that it has seemingly established itself in the community, and that it is to all appearances virile, capable, fertile, and charged with the excellences of parent races."—E. J. Reece, *Race mingling in Hawaii* (*American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1914).

See also PACIFIC OCEAN: B.C. 2500-A.D. 1500; 500-1603.

**Ancient mythology.** See MYTHOLOGY: Oceanic: Polynesian myths.

**Social organization.—Taboo.**—"Polynesian romance reflects its own social world—a world based upon the fundamental conception of social rank. The family tie and the inherited rights and titles derived from it determine a man's place in the community. The families of chiefs claim these rights and titles from the gods who are their ancestors. They consist not only in land and property rights but in certain privileges in administering the affairs of a group, and in certain acknowledged forms of etiquette equivalent to the worship paid to a god. These rights are administered through a system of taboo. . . . The limits of this right are prescribed by grade. Before some chiefs the bystander must prostrate himself, others are too sacred to be touched. So, when a chief dedicates a part of his body to the deity, for an inferior it is taboo; any act of sacrilege will throw the chief into a fury of passion. In the same way tabooed food or property of any kind is held sacred and can not be touched by the inferior. To break a taboo is to challenge a contest of strength—that is, to declare war. As the basis of the taboo right lay in descent from the gods, lineage was of first importance in the social world. . . . For this reason women held a comparatively important position in the social framework, and this place is reflected in the folk tales. Many Polynesian romances are, like the *Laiwikawai*, centered about the heroine of the tale. . . . The taboo means that he [the chief] can command, at the community expense, the best of the food supply, the most splendid ornaments, equipment, and clothing. He is further able, again at the community expense, to keep dependent upon himself, because fed at his table, a large following, all held in duty bound to carry out his will. Even the land was, in Hawaii and other Polynesian communities, under the control of the chief, to be redistributed whenever a new chief came into power. The taboo system thus became the means for economic distribution, . . . [and] constituted as powerful an instrument for the control of the labor and wealth of a community and the consequent enjoyment of personal ease and luxury as was ever put into the hands of an organized upper class."—M. W. Beckwith, *Hawaiian romance*, pp. 308-310.

**Discovery and early history.—Recognition as an independent state, 1842-1843.—Constitutions of 1852 and 1864.—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States, 1875; renewed, 1887.—Deposition of Queen Liliuokalani, 1893.—Blount's report.—Annexation refused by Cleveland.—Failure of**

the Treaty of 1897.—“Gaetano discovered one of the Sandwich [Hawaiian] Islands in 1542; and, following him, Quiros found Tahiti and the New Hebrides. Sea voyages in the Pacific multiplied, but that sea long continued the exclusive theatre of the enterprises of the Spaniards and Portuguese. . . . Native traditions refer to the arrival of strangers a long time before Cook's appearance. In the seventeenth century Spanish merchantmen were crossing the Pacific, and might have refreshed at these islands. The buccaneers, too, may have found the small harbour a convenient place of concealment.”—M. Hopkins, *Hawaii: Past, present and future of the island kingdom*, pp. 83, 87.—“It is about a century since His Majesty's ships ‘Resolution’ and ‘Adventure,’ Captains Cook and Clerke, turned back from Behring Strait after an unsuccessful attempt to discover the North-West Passage. But the adventurers were destined to light upon fairer lands than those which they had failed to find. On the 18th of January, 1778, whilst sailing through the Pacific, the look-out man reported land ahead, and in the evening they anchored on the shores of that lovely group of twelve islands, which they named in honour of the then First Lord of the Admiralty—Lord Sandwich—better known to the satirists of his day as ‘Jemmy Tickler,’ one of the greatest of statesmen and most abandoned of men. The natives received the strangers gladly; but on the 14th of February, 1779, in an altercation consequent on the theft of a boat, Captain Cook was killed in Kealakekua or Karakakoa Bay, in the Island of Hawaii, or Owhyhee, from which the official name of the country—the kingdom of Hawaii—takes its name.”—R. Brown, *Countries of the world*, v. 4, p. 22.—The several islands of the Hawaiian group were politically independent of each other and ruled by different chiefs at the time of Captain Cook's visit; but a few years later a chief named Kamehameha (1736-1810), of remarkable qualities and capabilities, succeeded to the sovereignty in the Island of Hawaii, and made himself master in time of the whole group. Dying in 1810, he left a consolidated kingdom to his son Liholiho, or Kamehameha II. Kamehameha II ruled from 1810 to 1824 and was succeeded by his younger brother (Kamehameha III). During the minority of these two kings, the country was governed by Kaahumanu, the widow of Kamehameha I. “Kaahumanu, or ‘Feather Mantle,’ was one of the three most notable native characters that Hawaii produced in its later history. . . . She followed the policy of her husband, Kamehameha I, quelling insubordination and rebellion, administering the government with discretion, and making the years of her rulership long to be remembered as a time of progress and prosperity. She ruled the Liliupian kingdom of Hawaii for thirteen years (1810-1832), choosing the best governors for the islands that could be found. She overcame rebellious chiefs, enacted useful laws, and finally . . . supplemented her bold step in abolishing idolatry by making the most of the advice of the missionaries by whom she was converted in 1824. In 1820 the first American missionaries, sent out by the American Board from Boston, Massachusetts, were received by the queen regent with haughty disdain. She reluctantly consented that they should stay a year; but she watched them and scrutinized all their actions. These pioneer teachers reached the island March 31, 1820. . . . The missionaries were Hiram Bingham and Asa Thurston, clergymen, and their wives; Thomas Holman, a physician; Samuel Whitney and Samuel Ruggles, teachers; Elisha Loomis, a printer, Daniel

Chamberlain, a farmer, and their wives. . . . In two years, the teachers had reduced the Hawaiian language to writing, and Mr. Loomis set up his printing press. . . . It was in the beginning of the year 1825 that this remarkable woman [Kaahumanu] took hold in earnest of the work of reforming her subjects in all the islands. She did not realize the task which she undertook with so much enthusiasm. A nation given to idolatry for centuries cannot be changed by a royal edict in a day or a generation. But by the queen regent's efforts education became general, until the people themselves, young and old, insisted on being taught.”—A. S. Twombly, *Hawaii and its people*, pp. 173-177, 203.—See also MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Islands of the Pacific.—“The first declaration of the creation of a law-making body is contained in a proclamation by the King [Kamehameha III] dated October 7, 1820. It named the King, regent and ten chiefs as entitled to sit in Council. . . . As the country grew in enlightenment a Bill of Rights, aptly called Hawaii's Magna Charta, was proclaimed, June 7, 1830. This was the forerunner of the First Constitution, . . . promulgated October 8, 1840, portions of which were incorporated into that document. This constitution did not create the House of Nobles; it merely continued the old council of chiefs, who were already Members of the Council, to sit in council with the King and premier, as heretofore, and provided that additional members were to be made so by law. Members of this Council were called Nobles, and as such were a degree higher in the rank of chiefs. Provision was also made for choosing annually ‘certain persons to sit in Council with the Nobles and establish laws.’ . . . While Representatives were thus provided for, the people did not seem to make much use of their privilege. . . . The Representatives are not mentioned in any way until April 28, 1842, . . . and later they are referred to from time to time up to the session of 1845, when their names are recorded for the first time. . . . During this period the Representatives had little or no influence and took but a minor part in legislation. This was doubtless partly due to their forming such a small minority, but probably the principal reason was their deference to the Nobles, all of whom ranked as Chiefs. . . . The Legislative journals began with the session of 1841, held at Lahaina, and the Council continued to meet there until the session of 1845, when, on April 2, it met for the first time at Honolulu, by which time it had become generally known as the Legislature, and its branches as the House of Nobles and the House of Representatives, respectively.”—R. C. Lydecker, *Roster legislatures of Hawaii, 1841-1918*, pp. 3-5.

After a series of controversies, between 1840 and 1841, with British subjects, on the question of leasing territory, the Hawaiian government took steps to obtain formal recognition of its rights as an independent state from the great powers. In 1842 the United States, by an official letter from Daniel Webster, then Secretary of State, “recognized the independence of the Hawaiian kingdom, and declared, ‘as the sense of the government of the United States, that the government of the Sandwich Islands ought to be respected; that no power ought to take possession of the islands, either as a conquest or for the purpose of colonization; and that no power ought to seek for any undue control over the existing government, or any exclusive privileges or preferences in matters of commerce.’ On the 28th of November, 1843, the two governments of France and

England united in a joint declaration to the effect that 'Her Majesty, the queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and His Majesty, the king of the French, taking into consideration the existence in the Sandwich Islands of a government capable of providing for the regularity of its relations with foreign nations, have thought it right to engage reciprocally to consider the Sandwich Islands as an independent state, and never to take possession, either directly or under the title of a protectorate, or under any other form, of any part of the territory of which they are composed.' . . . This was the final act by which the Hawaiian Kingdom was admitted within the pale of civilized nations."—W. D. Alexander, *Brief history of the Hawaiian people*, p. 253.—In 1848, Kamehameha III abolished the feudal system of land tenure or *mahele*. "By this *Mahele* (division of land) a portion of the soil was set apart to the king and his successors on the throne as their private property—the 'crown lands'; another portion to the government—the 'government lands'; another to the chiefs or land lords; and another—the *Kuleanas*—to those tenants who had occupied and cultivated them since 1830, the date of the Bill of Rights."—W. F. Blackman, *Making of Hawaii*, p. 158.

"As time passed it began to be felt that the people should be more fully represented, which feeling culminated in an Act passed July 30, 1850. . . . This Act increased the number of Representatives. . . . The Legislative Council to which these representatives were elected convened April 30, 1851, from which time the House of Representatives may be said to date its existence as a separate and influential branch of the legislature. . . . [In 1852 a new constitution was adopted.] . . . It will be noted that at the early sessions of the House of Nobles female chiefs were members of that body. . . . It will also be noted that Associate Justice Geo. M. Robertson held a seat in the House of Representatives, and was Speaker during the Sessions of 1855, 1856 and 1858-9, while at the same time occupying a seat on the Supreme Bench. . . . The right of the Judges to hold seats in the legislature was abolished by the Constitution of 1864. . . . From the time the Constitution of 1852 went into effect until that of 1887, the Nobles were appointed for life by the King. Previous to 1852 they were elected by the Nobles themselves, and under the Constitution of 1887 by the people. . . . [In 1864, however, King Kamehameha V had forced the adoption of a new constitution which reversed the bi-cameral arrangement of the legislature and restored a single chamber. The right to vote was modified by property and educational qualifications.] Under the Constitutions of 1852 and 1864 the Ministers held seats ex-officio, in the House of Nobles; under that of 1887 they held seats in the legislature. . . . Under the Constitution of the Republic, the Members of the President's Cabinet were ex-officio members of both Houses, with all the rights, powers and privileges of elected members, except that of voting. The Cabinet did not take part in the legislative proceedings to the same extent as that taken by the Ministers of the Crown. Their services in the Legislature were more in the nature of an advisory capacity and of furnishing information required."—R. C. Lydecker, *Roster legislatures of Hawaii, 1841-1918*, pp. 5-7.—With the death of Kamehameha V in 1872, his line ended. (In 1854, Kamehameha III had been succeeded by Alexander Liholiho. This prince, as Kamehameha IV, governed the islands from 1855 to 1863, and was in turn

succeeded by his brother Lot, Kamehameha V.) His successor, Lunalilo, was elected by the legislature, and the choice ratified by a popular vote. The reign of Lunalilo lasted but two years. His successor, David Kalakaua, was raised to the throne by election. (He aspired to what was called the "primacy of the Pacific.") In the year after his accession, Kalakaua visited the United States, and soon afterwards, in 1875, a treaty of reciprocity between the two countries was negotiated. "The triumph of his (David Kalakaua) reign was the securing of a treaty of commercial reciprocity by which Hawaiian sugar and a few other products were admitted free of duty into the United States. In return Hawaii, besides making a general remission of duties, gave to the United States the use of Pearl Harbor, as a coaling or naval station. This treaty assured the prosperity of the Islands and marked the definite establishment of the great industries."—W. R. Castle, Jr., *Hawaii, past and present*, p. 47.—In 1881 the King made a tour of the world. In the fall of 1890 he came to California for his health; in January, 1891, he died at San Francisco. His sister, Liliuokalani, widow of an American resident, succeeded him.

The reciprocity treaty of 1875 was renewed by the convention of 1887 and Pearl harbor was ceded to the United States. "The provisional cession by the Hawaiian government to the United States of Pearl Harbor, by the convention of 1887, was the first step which gave to the latter any rights territorial in the Islands. The importance of this can scarcely be overestimated. . . . Pearl Harbor is situated at a distance of seven miles from Honolulu, and in some respects is superior to the harbor of that city. . . . That the renewal of the treaty of reciprocity was ardently desired by President Cleveland is shown in a passage in his message to the forty-ninth Congress at the opening of its second session in December, 1886. . . . The treaty had scarcely been proclaimed when a note was handed to Secretary of State Bayard by the British ambassador at Washington, from Lord Salisbury, British prime minister. In this the attention of the United States government was called to the Franco-English compact of 1843, by which those two nations agreed never to take possession of the Hawaiian Islands, either directly or under the title of a protectorate, and suggesting a triple compact, in which the United States should join, guaranteeing the neutrality and equal accessibility of the Islands and their harbors to the ships of all nations without preference. . . . The British government saw in this cession an indication of a coming passage of the sovereignty of the Islands to the United States."—E. J. Carpenter, *America in Hawaii*, pp. 146-147, 151, 154-155.—In 1887 a new constitution had been adopted. "This new constitution was not framed by the king but by the people through their own appointed citizens and members of the courts. The legislative powers of the crown which had been abridged by the constitution of 1864 were now entirely removed and vested in the representatives of the people. By this the crown became an executive. In addition to this provision there was one making the ministry a responsible body and depriving the king of the right to nominate members of the house of nobles. . . . The legislature consists of a House of Nobles composed of twenty-four members, who are elected for a term of six years, and a House of Representatives consisting of from twenty-four to forty-two members elected for two years. The Houses sit in joint session. In addition to these public officers there is a cab-

inet composed of four ministers appointed by the sovereign holding executive power and who may be removed upon sufficient cause by the legislature. . . . On the 15th of January [1893] . . . Queen Liliuokalani made the attempt to promulgate a new constitution, obviously for the purpose of increasing her power in the government. . . . This new constitution, as framed by her, deprived foreigners of the right of franchise, abrogated the House of Nobles, and gave to the queen herself the power to appoint a new House. . . . The queen's own ministry were unsuccessful in their efforts to dissuade her from the attempt to put the new constitution into effect. The resolve was not to be shaken, however, and her determination to carry out her plan incited the people, chiefly the foreigners, to oppose the measure."—A. A. Black, *Hawaiian Islands (Charataquian, Apr., 1893)*.—The result was a bloodless revolution. The queen was declared deposed in the following proclamation in which the revolutionists gave a preliminary sketch of Hawaiian constitutional history from their point of view. They declared that during the reign of Kalahaua (1874-1891) "a change was discernible in the spirit animating the chief executive and in the influences surrounding the Throne. A steadily increasing disposition was manifested on the part of the King, to extend the Royal prerogatives; to favor adventurers and persons of no character or standing in the community; to encroach upon the rights and privileges of the people . . . in the interest of absolutism. This finally resulted in the revulsion of feeling and popular uprising of 1887, which wrested from the King a large portion of his ill-gotten powers. . . . Up to the time of his death, the history of the Government has been a continual struggle between the King on the one hand and the Cabinet and the Legislature on the other, the former constantly endeavoring by every available form of influence and evasion to ignore his promises and agreements and regain his lost powers. . . . Upon the accession of Her Majesty Liliuokalani [1891], for a brief period the hope prevailed that a new policy would be adopted. This hope was soon blasted by her immediately entering into conflict with the existing Cabinet, who held office with the approval of a large majority of the Legislature, resulting in the triumph of the Queen and the removal of the Cabinet. . . . In this belief, and also in the firm belief that the action hereby taken is, and will be for the best personal, political and property interests of every citizen of the land; We, citizens and residents of the Hawaiian Islands, organized and acting for the public safety and the common good, hereby proclaim as follows:

"1. The Hawaiian Monarchical system of Government is hereby abrogated.

"2. A Provisional Government for the control and management of public affairs and the protection of the public peace is hereby established, to exist until terms of union with the United States of America have been negotiated and agreed upon.

"3. Such Provisional Government shall consist of an Executive Council of Four Members, who are hereby declared to be S. B. Dole, J. A. King, P. C. Jones, W. O. Smith.' The Executive and Advisory Councils were named as the Legislative Power by a Proclamation of the Committee of Safety, issued January 17, 1893, and acted as such until May 22, 1895, on which date the last joint meeting was held."—R. C. Lydcker, *Roster legislatures of Hawaii, 1841-1918*, pp. 185-187, 180.

The provisional government set up by the revo-

lutionists was immediately recognized by the United States minister, John L. Stevens, and commissioners were sent to Washington to apply for the annexation of the islands to the United States. On February 16th, 1893, the president of the United States, Benjamin Harrison, sent a message to the Senate, submitting an annexation treaty and recommending its ratification. Meantime, at Honolulu, on February 6th, the United States minister, acting without instructions, had established a protectorate over the Hawaiian islands, in the name of the United States. On March 4th, a change in the presidency of the United States occurred, Grover Cleveland succeeding Benjamin Harrison. One of the earliest acts of President Cleveland was to send a message to the Senate, withdrawing the annexation treaty of his predecessor. A commissioner, James H. Blount, was then sent to the Hawaiian islands to examine and report upon the circumstances attending the change of government. On December 18th following, the report of Commissioner Blount was sent to Congress, with an accompanying message from the president, in which latter paper the facts set forth by the Commissioner, and the conclusions reached and action taken by the United States Government, were summarized partly as follows: "On Saturday, January 14, 1893, the Queen of Hawaii, who had been contemplating the proclamation of a new constitution, had, in deference to the wishes and remonstrances of her Cabinet, renounced it for the present at least. Taking this relinquished purpose as a basis of action, citizens of Honolulu, numbering from fifty to one hundred, mostly resident aliens, met in a private room and selected a so-called committee of safety composed of thirteen persons, nine of whom were foreign subjects, and composed of seven Americans, one Englishman, and one German. This committee, though its designs were not revealed, had in view nothing less than annexation to the United States, and between Saturday, the 14th, and the following Sunday, the 15th of January—though exactly what action was taken may never be revealed—they were certainly in communication with the United States minister. On Monday morning the Queen and her Cabinet made public proclamation, with a notice which was specially served upon the representatives of all foreign governments, that any changes in the constitution would be sought only in the methods provided by that instrument. Nevertheless, at the call and under the auspices of the committee of safety, a mass meeting of citizens was held on that day to protest against the Queen's alleged illegal and unlawful proceedings and purpose. Even at this meeting the committee of safety continued to disguise their real purpose and contented themselves with procuring the passage of a resolution denouncing the Queen and empowering the committee to devise ways and means 'to secure the permanent maintenance of law and order and the protection of life, liberty, and property in Hawaii.' This meeting adjourned between 3 and 4 o'clock in the afternoon. On the same day, and immediately after such adjournment, the committee, unwilling to take further steps without the co-operation of the United States Minister, addressed him a note representing that the public safety was menaced and that lives and property were in danger, and concluded as follows: 'We are unable to protect ourselves without aid, and therefore pray for the protection of the United States forces.' Whatever may be thought of the other contents of this note, the absolute truth of this latter statement is incontestable. When the note was written and delivered, the committee, so far as it appears, had neither

a man nor a gun at their command, and after its delivery they became so panic-stricken at their position that they sent some of their number to interview the Minister and request him not to land the United States forces till the next morning, but he replied the troops had been ordered and whether the committee were ready or not the landing should take place. And so it happened that on the 16th day of January, 1893, between 4 and 5 o'clock in the afternoon, a detachment of marines from the United States steamship Boston, with two pieces of artillery, landed at Honolulu. The men, upwards of one hundred and sixty in all, were supplied with double cartridge belts, filled with ammunition, and with haversacks and canteens, and were accompanied by a hospital corps with stretchers and medical supplies. This military demonstration upon the soil of Honolulu was of itself an act of war, unless made either with the consent of the Government of Hawaii or for the bona fide purpose of protecting the imperilled lives and prop-

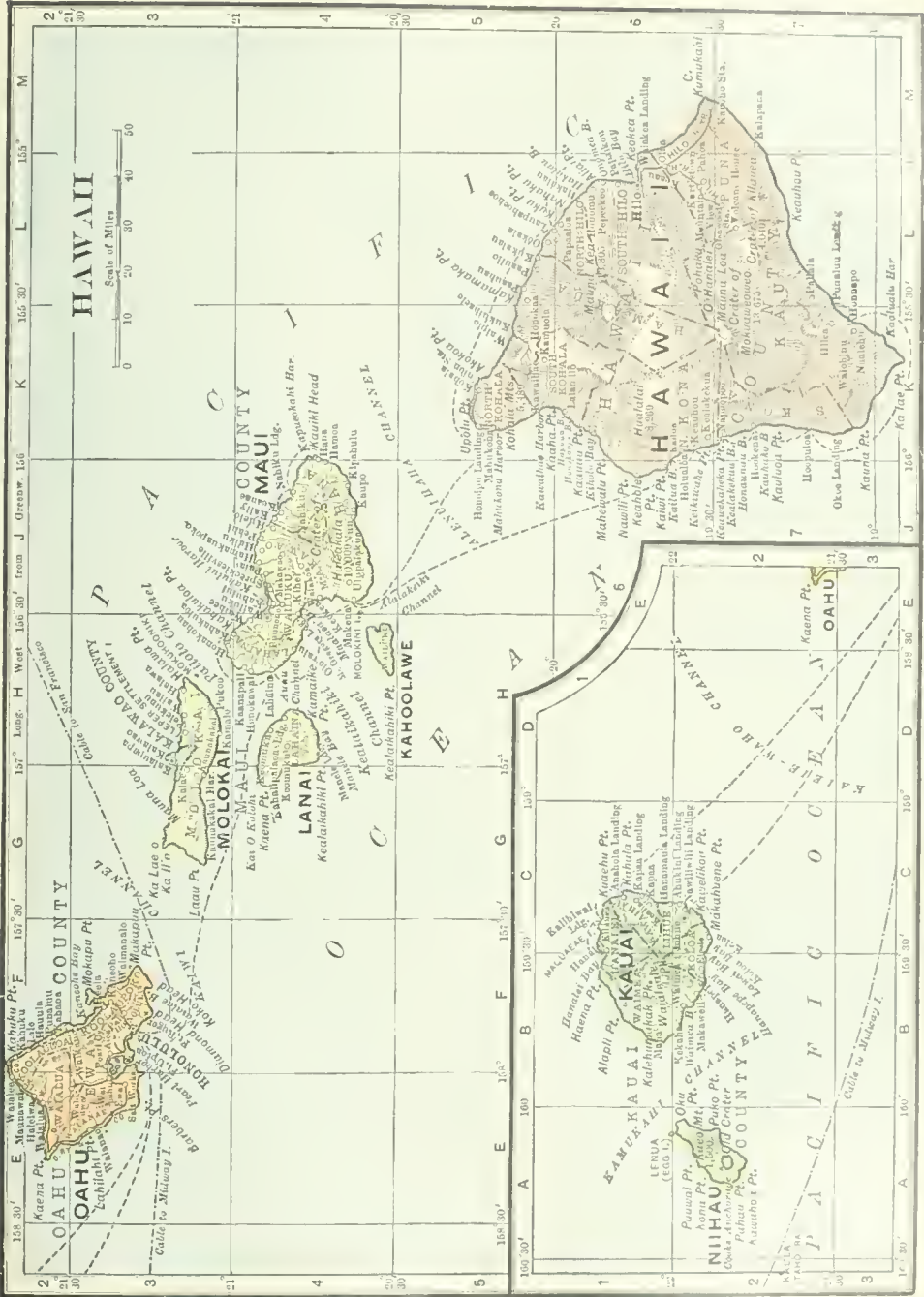


QUEEN LILIUOKALANI

erty of the citizens of the United States. But there is no pretense of any such consent on the part of the Government of Hawaii, which at that time was undisputed, and was both the de facto and the de jure Government. In point of fact the Government, instead of requesting the presence of an armed force, protested against it. There is little basis for the pretense that such forces landed for the security of American life and property. . . . When these armed men were landed the city of Honolulu was in its customary orderly and peaceful condition. There was no symptom of riot or disturbance in any quarter. . . . Thus it appears that Hawaii was taken possession of by the United States forces without the consent or wish of the Government of the Islands, or anybody else so far as known, except the United States Minister. Therefore, the military occupation of Honolulu by the United States on the day mentioned was wholly without satisfaction, either as an occupation by consent or as an occupation necessitated by dangers threatening American life and property. It must be accounted for in some other way and on some other ground, and its real motive and purpose

are neither obscure nor far to seek. The United States forces being now on the scene and favorably stationed, the committee proceeded to carry out their original scheme. They met the next morning, Tuesday, the 17th, perfected the plan of temporary government and fixed upon its principal officers, who were drawn from 13 members of the committee of safety. Between 1 and 2 o'clock, by squads and by different routes to avoid notice, and having first taken the precaution of ascertaining whether there was anyone there to oppose them, they proceeded to the Government building to proclaim the new Government. No sign of opposition was manifest, and thereupon an American citizen began to read the proclamation from the steps of the Government Building almost entirely without auditors. The United States Minister, pursuant to prior agreement, recognized this Government within an hour after the reading of the proclamation, and before 5 o'clock, in answer to an inquiry on behalf of the Queen and her Cabinet, announced that he had done so. . . . As I apprehend the situation, we are brought face to face with the fact that the lawful government of Hawaii was overthrown without the drawing of a sword or the firing of a shot, by a process every step of which, it may safely be asserted, is directly traceable to and dependent for its success upon the agency of the United States acting through its diplomatic and naval representatives. . . . Believing, therefore, that the United States could not, under the circumstances disclosed, annex the islands without justly incurring the imputation of acquiring them by unjustifiable methods, I shall not again submit the treaty of annexation to the Senate for its consideration, and in the instructions to Minister Willis, a copy of which accompanies this message, I have directed him to so inform the Provisional Government. But in the present instance our duty does not, in my opinion, end with refusing to consummate this questionable transaction. . . . I mistake the American people if they favor the odious doctrine that there is no such thing as international morality; that there is one law for a strong nation and another for a weak one; and that even by indirection a strong power may, with impunity, despoil a weak one of its territory. . . . The Queen surrendered, not to the Provisional Government, but to the United States. She surrendered not absolutely and permanently, but temporarily and conditionally until such facts could be considered by the United States. . . . In view of the fact that both the Queen and the Provisional Government had at one time apparently acquiesced in a reference of the entire case to the United States Government, and considering the further fact that, in any event, the Provisional Government, by its own declared limitation, was only 'to exist until terms of union with the United States of America have been negotiated and agreed upon,' I hoped that after the assurance to the members of that Government that such union could not be consummated, I might compass a peaceful adjustment of the difficulty. Actuated by these desires and purposes, and not unmindful of the inherent perplexities of the situation nor limitations upon my part, I instructed Mr. Willis to advise the Queen and her supporters of my desire to aid in the restoration of the status existing before the lawless landing of the United States forces at Honolulu on the 17th of January last, if such restoration could be effected upon terms providing for clemency as well as justice to all parties concerned. The conditions suggested contemplated a general amnesty to those concerned in setting up the Pro-





Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED  
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visional Government and a recognition of all the bona fide acts and obligations. In short, they require that the past should be buried, and that the restored Government should reassume its authority as if its continuity had not been interrupted. These conditions have not proved acceptable to the Queen, and though she has been informed that they will be insisted upon, and that unless acceded to the effort of the President to aid in the restoration of her Government will cease, I have not thus far learned that she is willing to yield them her acquiescence." The refusal of the queen to consent to a general amnesty forbade further thought of her restoration; while the project of annexation to the United States was extinguished for the time by the just action of President Cleveland, sustained by the Senate.

Hawaii was consequently left to its own resources, and on July 4, 1864, was declared a republic by the insurgents. The government was organized with Sanford B. Dole as president, and the next year Queen Liliuokalani abdicated after an unsuccessful monarchist revolt. In 1897 the question of annexation was revived. The following year at the opening of the Hawaiian legislature, the acting president reviewed these facts as follows: "Exercising the authority conferred upon him by the Constitution and following the spirit of a Resolution passed at your last regular session, the president has, with the approval of the Cabinet, made a treaty of political union with the United States of America. Negotiations were opened early in the month of April, 1897, which resulted in the signing of the Treaty at Washington on the 16th day of June, following, by the plenipotentiaries of the two Governments; on behalf of the United States of America by the Hon. John Sherman, Secretary of State, and by Messrs. Francis M. Hatch, Lorrin A. Thurston and William A. Kinney, for the Republic of Hawaii. Having reviewed the action of our plenipotentiaries and finding that the Treaty contained in its several articles sufficient provisions for the benefit and protection of the Republic and desiring to ascertain the pleasure of the Senate in regard to its final ratification, the President called a special session of that body which assembled on the 8th day of September, 1897. After mature consideration of the Treaty, the Senate, by an unanimous vote, consented to its ratification on the 6th day of September. The Treaty was signed by the President two days later. The American copy of the Treaty was transmitted by President McKinley to the Senate of that country, on the 16th day of June, 1897, accompanied by a special message recommending its ratification."—R. C. Lydecker, *Roster Legislatures of Hawaii, 1841-1918*, p. 240.—With the treaty, President McKinley submitted a report from his secretary of state, Sherman, in which the latter said: "The negotiation which has culminated in the treaty now submitted has not been a mere resumption of the negotiation of 1893, but was initiated and has been conducted upon independent lines. . . . The temporary character of its [Hawaii's] first Government gave place to a permanent scheme under a constitution framed by the representatives of the electors of the Islands, administration by an executive council not chosen by suffrage, but self-appointed, was succeeded by an elective and parliamentary régime, and the ability of the new Government to hold—as the Republic of Hawaii—an independent place in the family of sovereign States, preserving order at home and fulfilling international obligations abroad, has been put to the proof. Recognized by the powers of the earth, sending and receiving envoys, enforcing respect for the law, and maintaining peace within its

island borders, Hawaii sends to the United States, not a commission representing a successful revolution, but the accredited plenipotentiary of a constituted and firmly established sovereign State. . . . The Republic of Hawaii approaches the United States as an equal, and points for its authority to that provision of article 32 of the constitution, promulgated July 24, 1864, whereby—"The President, with the approval of the cabinet, is hereby expressly authorized and empowered to make a treaty of political or commercial union between the Republic of Hawaii and the United States of America, subject to the ratification of the Senate." The essential articles of the treaty thus submitted were the following:

Article I. The Republic of Hawaii hereby cedes absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies; and it is agreed that all the territory of and appertaining to the Republic of Hawaii is hereby annexed to the United States of America under the name of the Territory of Hawaii.

Art. II. The Republic of Hawaii also cedes and hereby transfers to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, government or crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, military equipment and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the Government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto appertaining. The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition. Provided: that all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

Art. III. Until Congress shall provide for the government of such Islands all the civil, judicial and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said Islands, shall be vested in such person or persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned. The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfilment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this treaty nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States, nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine. Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands, the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

Art. IV. The public debt of the Republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the Government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in

no case exceed \$4,000,000. So long, however, as the existing Government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued, as hereinbefore provided, said Government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

Art. v. There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States, and no Chinese by reason of anything herein contained shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

Art. vi. The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Territory of Hawaii as they shall deem necessary or proper.

United States, 55th Congress, 1st Session, *Senate executive document E*.

1897-1898.—**Opposition in United States to annexation.**—Resolution providing for annexation passed (July 6, 1898).—**Text.**—A determined opposition to the renewed proposal of Hawaiian annexation was manifested at once, in Congress and by many expressions of public opinion at large. It condemned the measure on grounds of principle and policy alike. It denied the right of the existing government at Honolulu to represent the Hawaiian people in such disposal of their country. It denied the constitutional right of the government of the United States to annex territory in the circumstances and the manner proposed. It denied, too, the expected advantages, whether naval or commercial, that the annexation of the islands would give to the United States. A protest against the annexation came also from the deposed Hawaiian queen, Liliuokalani, and another from a party in the island which attempted to rally round the presumptive heirress to the overturned Hawaiian throne, the Princess Kaiulani. The government of Japan also entered a protest, apprehending some disturbance of rights which it had acquired for its emigrating subjects, by treaty with the Republic of Hawaii; but this protest was ultimately withdrawn. The array of opposition sufficed, however, to hold the question of annexation in abeyance for more than a year. No action was taken on the treaty during the special session of the Senate. When Congress assembled in December, 1897, President McKinley repeated his expressions in its favor, and the treaty was reported to the Senate, from the committee on foreign relations, early in the following year; but the two-thirds majority needed for its ratification could not be obtained. Attempts to accomplish the annexation by that method were given up in March, 1898, and the advocates of the acquisition determined to gain their end by the passage of a joint resolution of Congress, which required no more than a majority of each House. Over the question in this form the battle was fiercely fought, until June 15th in the House of Representatives and July 6th in the Senate, on which dates the following "joint resolution to provide for annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States" was passed. It was signed by the President the following day. "Whereas the Government of the Republic of Hawaii having, in due form, signified its consent, in the manner provided by its constitution, to cede absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, and also to cede and transfer to the United States absolute fee and ownership of all public, Government, or

Crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, military equipment, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the Government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto appertaining: Therefore,

"Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That said cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and that the said Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies be, and they are hereby, annexed as a part of the territory of the United States and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America. The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition: Provided, That all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

"Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned. The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfillment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this joint resolution nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine. Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged. The public debt of the Republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this joint resolution, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the Government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed four million dollars. So long, however, as the existing Government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided said Government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

"There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

"The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall, as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legis-

lation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

"Sect. 2. That the commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

"Sect. 3. That the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America, for the purpose of carrying this joint resolution into effect."

There was no strict division of parties on the passage of the resolution; but only three Republicans in the House voted against it. Speaker Reed, who had strenuously opposed the measure, was absent. Two Republican senators voted against the resolution and three who opposed it were paired. A large majority of the Democrats in both Houses were in opposition. The policy advocated by the opponents of annexation was set forth in the following resolution, which they brought to a vote in the House, and which was defeated by 205 to 94: "1. That the United States will view as an act of hostility any attempt upon the part of any government of Europe or Asia to take or hold possession of the Hawaiian islands or to account upon any pretext or under any conditions sovereign authority therein. 2. That the United States hereby announces to the people of those islands and to the world the guarantee of the independence of the people of the Hawaiian islands and their firm determination to maintain the same."—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914; U. S. A.: Historical geography.

1898-1904.—Organization as territory.—Sanford B. Dole appointed governor.—Fundamental provisions of the act to provide a government.—Immediately upon the passage of the resolution of annexation, preparations were begun at Honolulu for the transfer of sovereignty to the United States, which was performed ceremoniously August 12. Meantime, the president had appointed, as commissioners to recommend legislation for the government of the islands, Messrs. Shelby M. Cullom, John T. Morgan, Robert R. Hitt, Sanford B. Dole, and Walter F. Frear. In the following November the Commission presented its report, with a draft of several bills embodying the recommended legislation. When the subject came into Congress, wide differences of opinion appeared on questions concerning the relations of the new possession to the United States and the form of government to be provided for it. As the consequence, more than a year passed before Congress reached action on the subject, and Hawaii was kept in suspense for that period, provisionally governed under the terms of the resolution of annexation. The Act which, at last, determined the status and the government of Hawaii, under the flag of the United States, became law by the president's signature on the 30th of April, 1900, and Sanford B. Dole, formerly president of the Republic of Hawaii, was appointed its governor and served until 1904. The fundamental provisions of the "Act to provide a government for the Territory of Hawaii" are the following:

Sect. 2. That the islands acquired by the United States of America under an Act of Congress entitled "Joint resolution to provide for annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States," approved July seventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, shall be known as the Territory of Hawaii.

Sect. 3. That a Territorial government is hereby

established over the said Territory, with its capital at Honolulu, on the island of Oahu.

Sect. 4. That all persons who were citizens of the Republic of Hawaii on August twelfth, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, are hereby declared to be citizens of the United States and citizens of the Territory of Hawaii. And all citizens of the United States resident in the Hawaiian Islands who were resident there on or since August twelfth, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, and all the citizens of the United States who shall hereafter reside in the Territory of Hawaii for one year shall be citizens of the Territory of Hawaii.

Sect. 5. That the Constitution, and, except as herein otherwise provided, all the laws of the United States which are not locally inapplicable, shall have the same force and effect within the said Territory as elsewhere in the United States: Provided, that sections eighteen hundred and fifty and eighteen hundred and ninety of the Revised Statutes of the United States shall not apply to the Territory of Hawaii.

Sect. 6. That the laws of Hawaii not inconsistent with the Constitution or laws of the United States or the provisions of this Act shall continue in force, subject to repeal or amendment by the legislature of Hawaii or the Congress of the United States. . . .

Sect. 12. That the legislature of the Territory of Hawaii shall consist of two houses, styled, respectively, the senate and house of representatives, which shall organize and sit separately, except as otherwise herein provided. The two houses shall be styled "The legislature of the Territory of Hawaii." . . .

Sect. 17. That no person holding office in or under or by authority of the Government of the United States or of the Territory of Hawaii shall be eligible to election to the legislature, or to hold the position of a member of the same while holding said office. . . .

Sect. 55. That the legislative power of the Territory shall extend to all rightful subjects of legislation not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the United States locally applicable. . . .

Sect. 66. That the executive power of the government of the Territory of Hawaii shall be vested in a governor, who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, and shall hold office for four years and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed by the President. He shall be not less than thirty-five years of age; shall be a citizen of the Territory of Hawaii; shall be commander in chief of the militia thereof; may grant pardons or reprieves for offences against the laws of the said Territory and reprieves for offences against the laws of the United States until the decision of the President is made known thereon. . . .

Sect. 68. That all the powers and duties which, by the laws of Hawaii, are conferred upon or required of the President or any minister of the Republic of Hawaii (acting alone or in connection with any other officer or person or body) or the cabinet or executive council, and not inconsistent with the Constitution or laws of the United States, are conferred upon and required of the governor of the Territory of Hawaii, unless otherwise provided. . . .

Sect. 80. That the President shall nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint the chief justice and justices of the supreme court, the judges of the circuit courts, who shall hold their respective offices for the term of four years, unless sooner removed by the President. . . .

SEC. 81. That the judicial power of the Territory shall be vested in one supreme court, circuit courts, and in such inferior courts as the legislature may from time to time establish. . . .

Sect. 85. That a Delegate to the House of Representatives of the United States, to serve during each Congress, shall be elected by the voters qualified to vote for members of the house of representatives of the legislature; such Delegate shall possess the qualifications necessary for membership of the senate of the legislature of Hawaii. . . . Every such Delegate shall have a seat in the House of Representatives, with the right of debate, but not of voting.

Sect. 86. That there shall be established in said Territory a district court to consist of one judge, who shall reside therein and be called the district judge. The President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, shall appoint a district judge, a district attorney, and a marshal of the United States for the said district, and said judge, attorney, and marshal shall hold office for six years unless sooner removed by the President. Said court shall have, in addition to the ordinary jurisdiction of district courts of the United States, jurisdiction of all cases cognizable in a circuit court of the United States, and shall proceed therein in the same manner as a circuit court. . . .

Sect. 88. That the Territory of Hawaii shall comprise a customs district of the United States, with ports of entry and delivery at Honolulu, Hilo, Mahukona, and Kahului.

See also TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

1900-1921.—Governors of the territory.—The governors of the territory between 1900 and 1921 were Sanford B. Dole, June 14, 1900, to November 23, 1903; George R. Carter, November 23, 1903, to August 15, 1907; Walter F. Frear, August 15, 1907, to November 20, 1913; Lucius E. Pinkham, November 20, 1913, to June 22, 1918; Charles J. McCarthy, June 22, 1918, to July 5, 1921; Wallace R. Farrington, July 5, 1921.

1909.—Bird reservation started by President Roosevelt. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS RESERVATION.

1910.—Changes made in the "Organic Act of Hawaii."—On May 27, 1910, President Taft approved an amendment to the "Act to provide a government for the Territory of Hawaii," the Organic Act passed in 1900. This amendment made several very important changes, the most significant of which were connected with the land laws. "Experience demonstrated that there were, unfortunately, too many loopholes in the old laws, whereby corporations and aliens might obtain title to the lands, while the citizen still failed to cling to his acres as homesteading implies. Governor Frear and the native prince delegate to Congress, J. K. Kalaniana'ole, conferred over a bill designed to remove these faults. This bill, after being approved by the native legislature, was introduced into Congress by Kalaniana'ole. It shut off the speculator and corporation by providing that when a homestead patent is issued the land shall not be sold to any one who would own more than eighty acres with that particular homestead property. . . . Only citizens, or those eligible to become so, can take up homesteads, and the latter class must complete their citizenship before the patent is issued. [This excluded the Japanese since they are ineligible to citizenship.] The sale of public land to a corporation or alien is prohibited. The general details of the land laws are not changed, the idea being to offer the prospective settler, under a

special homestead agreement, a certain area of good arable land, the size being left to the discretion of the Commissioner of Public Lands. The area will, it is thought, vary from twenty-five to forty acres of the best land, but considerable latitude in this regard will prevail. As a general thing, a long residence is to be required. No one can take up more than eighty acres under any circumstances."—R. B. Kidd, *Hawaii's new homestead law* (*Harper's Weekly*, July 2, 1910).—Furthermore, the act settled questions which had arisen as to the applicability to Hawaii of various Federal laws; and it made clear the powers of the legislature in the matter of appropriations. The law on the disqualifications of judges was improved; land set aside for Federal purposes was restored to Hawaii; and the validity of the naturalization laws made by the circuit courts was settled, also the pay of certain executive, judicial and legislative officers was raised. The text, in part, is as follows:

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section five . . . is hereby amended to read as follows: 'Sect. 5. That the Constitution, and, except as otherwise provided, all the laws of the United States, including laws carrying general appropriations, which are not locally inapplicable, shall have the same force and effect within the said Territory as elsewhere in the United States: *Provided*, That sections eighteen hundred and forty-one to eighteen hundred and ninety-one, inclusive, nineteen hundred and ten and nineteen hundred and twelve, of the Revised Statutes, and the amendments thereto, and an Act entitled "An Act to prohibit the passage of local or special laws in the Territories of the United States, to limit territorial indebtedness, and for other purposes," approved July thirtieth, eighteen hundred and eighty-six, and the amendments thereto, shall not apply to Hawaii.' . . .

"Sect. 3. That section fifty-two of said Act is hereby amended to read as follows: "Sect. 52. That appropriations, except as herein otherwise provided, shall be made by the legislature." . . .

"Sect. 6. That section eighty-four of said Act is hereby amended to read as follows: "Sect. 84. That no person shall sit as a judge or juror in any case in which his relative by affinity or by consanguinity within the third degree is interested, either as a plaintiff or defendant, or in the issue of which the said judge or juror has, either directly or through such relative, any pecuniary interest; nor shall any person sit as a judge in any case in which he has been of counsel or on an appeal from any decision or judgment rendered by him, and the legislature of the Territory may add other causes of disqualification to those herein enumerated."

"Sect. 7. That section ninety-one of said Act is hereby amended to read as follows: "Sect. 91. That, except as otherwise provided, the public property ceded and transferred to the United States by the Republic of Hawaii under the joint resolution of annexation, approved July seventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-eight, shall be and remain in the possession, use, and control of the government of the Territory of Hawaii, and shall be maintained, managed, and cared for by it, at its own expense, until otherwise provided for by Congress, or taken for the uses and purposes of the United States by direction of the President or of the governor of Hawaii. And any such public property so taken for the uses and purposes of the United States may be restored to its previous status by direction of the President; and the title to any such public property in the possession and use of the Territory

for the purposes of water, sewer, electric, and other public works, penal, charitable, scientific, and educational institutions, cemeteries, hospitals, parks, highways, wharves, landings, harbor improvements, public buildings, or other public purposes, or required for any such purposes, may be transferred to the Territory by direction of the President, and the title to any property so transferred to the Territory may thereafter be transferred to any city, county, or other political subdivision thereof by direction of the governor when thereunto authorized by the legislature." . . .

"Sect. 9. That section one hundred of said Act is hereby amended by adding thereto the following: "All records relating to naturalization, all declarations of intention to become citizens of the United States, and all certificates of naturalization filed, recorded, or issued prior to the taking effect of the naturalization Act of June twenty-ninth, nineteen hundred and six, in or from any circuit court of the Territory of Hawaii, shall for all purposes be deemed to be and to have been made, filed, recorded, or issued by a court with jurisdiction to naturalize aliens, but shall not be by this Act further validated or legalized."'"—*Statutes of the United States of America, 1909-1910, pt. 1, ch. 258.*

1910.—Law on leprosy.—As early as 1865 an act was passed providing for the forcible segregation of lepers in a colony. In 1910 this was modified in response to the claim of the natives that the old law was unjust and brutal. Thereafter, the natives were given a careful diagnosis and preliminary hospital treatment before final segregation was resorted to.

1911.—Creation of military district.—Pearl harbor dredging completed.—"On October 1, 1911, the District of Hawaii was constituted a geographical department in the Western Division, to be known as the Department of Hawaii, under the authority of General Orders 129, War Department, 1911. . . . [M. M. Macomb] assumed command of the department the same date."—*War Department, Annual Reports, 1912, v. 3, p. 83.*—"The isolation of the Hawaiian Islands makes them from the scientific, military and naval points of view, the ideal stronghold upon the seas. From the original plans, made soon after the Hawaiian Islands were annexed to the United States, two dry docks and the erection of a naval repair station [at Pearl Harbor were provided for]. . . . The world-renowned haven [Pearl Harbor] . . . contains from ten to twelve square miles of deep water and is absolutely calm in any weather. The difficulty of making it practicable lay in the bar at the entrance and in the crooked channel leading to the inner bay. The dredging of the bar was started in 1808 and completed in 1911, the channel straightened, and the . . . *California* [flagship of the Pacific fleet] steamed through the four-and-a-half mile passage into the wonderful bay. The dredging alone cost \$3,000,000, but today our entire navy can find safe anchorage here."—W. D. Boyce, *Hawaiian islands and Porto Rico, pp. 54-55.*

1914-1921.—American recreational facilities introduced. See RECREATION: 1914-1921: Recreational facilities, etc.

1916.—Creation of the Hawaiian National Park.—In 1916, Congress reserved as a national park, the active volcanoes Kilauea and Mauna Loa, on the island of Hawaii, and the great extinct crater, Haleakala, on the island of Maui, with their surrounding regions. This is the first national park to be created outside the boundaries of the United States mainland proper.

1917-1918.—Part played in World War.—The territory furnished 5,644 men or .15 per cent. of

the entire expeditionary forces. This made possible the release of the United States regulars. Eight German ships were interned in the harbor at Honolulu.

1919.—Conservation of resources.—In 1919, the government set aside over eight hundred thousand acres of land as a forest reserve. There are forty-seven of these in all and it is estimated they will be a permanent security for the water supply of the islands. In places where native forests were lacking, trees have been planted, especially the rapid growing and valuable eucalyptus.

ALSO IN: W. A. Bryan, *Natural history of Hawaii*.—W. F. Blackman, *Making of Hawaii*.—C. M. Depew, *Hawaii*.—S. B. Dole, *Our new possessions—Hawaii*.—S. E. Bishop, *Reminiscences of old Hawaii (Advertiser Historical Series, no. 1)*.—*Corporation, insurance and banking laws of the territory of Hawaii (Honolulu Star Bulletin, 1915)*.—V. MacCaughy, *One hundred most important books relating to Hawaiian islands (Bulletin of Bibliography, Boston, 1918, v. 10)*.—T. G. Thrum, *Social and civic Hawaii (Hawaiian Annual, Honolulu, 1916)*.—C. London, *Our Hawaii—Preliminary catalogue of Hawaiiana—Centennial Book, 1820-1920*.—D. Logan, *All about Hawaii*.

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS RESERVATION.—"On February 3, 1909, President Roosevelt issued an Executive order to the effect that the islets and reefs, namely: 'Cure Island, Pearl and Hermes Reef, Lysianski or Pell Island, Laysan Island, Mary Reef, Dowsetts Reef, Gardiner Island, Two Brothers Reef, French Frigate Shoal, Necker Island, Frost Shoal, and Bird Island, situated in the Pacific Ocean at and near the extreme western extension of the Hawaiian Archipelago, . . . are hereby reserved and set apart . . . as a preserve and breeding ground for native birds. . . . This reservation to be known as the Hawaiian Islands Reservation.' [This reservation is composed of islands and reefs included in the leeward chain extending in a north-easterly direction from the main Hawaiian group.] . . . The purpose of the reservation was to insure for all time a refuge and breeding place for the numerous species of birds, chiefly sea fowl, that for ages past had made the islands their home during the whole or a part of each year. In the spring of 1909, however, a party of foreign plumage hunters landed on Laysan, the principal bird rookery of the reservation, and for several months made the slaughter of sea birds a business. Had they not been interrupted, they would probably have exterminated the entire colony of birds on this island and perhaps on others of the group. As it was, many thousands of sea birds were destroyed, especially albatrosses."—H. R. Dill, *United States government report on the Hawaiian bird reservation, 1919.*

HAWK, British cruiser sunk by German submarine. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: b.

HAWKE, Edward, Baron (1705-1781), British admiral. Upheld British supremacy at sea in numerous battles with French and Spanish fleets; rendered abortive the projected invasion of England by the French, 1759. See ENGLAND: 1759 (August-November).

HAWKER, Harry (1880-1921), British aviator. Attempted transatlantic flight. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1910 (May): Attempts to cross Atlantic; Hawker's attempted Atlantic flight.

HAWKEYE STATE. See IOWA: Geographical location.

HAWKINS, Alvin (1821-1905), governor of Tennessee, 1881-1883. See TENNESSEE: 1870-1884.

**HAWKINS**, or **Hawkins**, Sir John (1532-1595), British admiral and adventurer. Made three slave-trading voyages to the New World, 1562, 1564, 1567; treasurer and comptroller of the Royal Navy, 1573; served as rear-admiral against the Spanish Armada, 1588; accompanied Sir Francis Drake in an unsuccessful expedition to the West Indies, 1595. See AMERICA: 1562-1567; 1572-1580; BUCCANEERS: English buccanners; ENGLAND: 1588; Destruction of the Armada; FLORIDA: 1564-1565.

**HAWKSBEER**, Francis, the Elder (died c. 1712), English physicist and experimenter in electricity. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Early experiments.

**HAWKWOOD**, Sir John (d. 1394), English adventurer. Attained renown fighting in Italy in the 14th century as a condottiere. See ITALY: 1343-1393; VENICE: 1379-1381.

**HAWLEY**, Jesse, American journalist. His writings interested the people in the Erie canal project. See NEW YORK: 1817-1825.

**HAWLEY**, Joseph (1723-1788), American statesman. See U. S. A.: 1776 (June): Resolutions for independence.

**HAWTHORNE**, Nathaniel (1804-1864), American novelist. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1790-1860.

**HAY**, John (1838-1905), American statesman, journalist, and author. Assistant private secretary to President Lincoln during the Civil War; secretary of legation at Paris, 1864-1867; at Vienna, 1867-1868; at Madrid, 1868-1869; editorial writer, *New York Tribune*, 1870-1875; first assistant secretary of state, 1870-1881; editor, *Tribune*, 1881-1883; ambassador to Great Britain, 1897-1898; secretary of state, 1898-1905; author (with J. C. Nicolay) of a famous biography of Lincoln.

Voices President McKinley's views in favor of acquiring Philippine islands. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-December).

Correspondence relative to the Boer War and relations of United States with England. See U. S. A.: 1900 (June-August).

Negotiations of treaty with China to open new ports to foreign trade.—Attitude on the Boxer rising. See CHINA: 1890-1900 (September-February); 1901-1902; 1903 (May-October); BOXER RISING AND THE OPEN DOOR.

Honorary president of second international conference of American republics. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

Secretary of state. See U. S. A.: 1901-1905. Hay-Pauncefote Treaty (1901). See PANAMA CANAL: 1889-1903; U. S. A.: 1914-1921.

Negotiation of the Hay-Bond Reciprocity Treaty. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1902-1905.

Appeal to powers concerning treatment of Jews in Rumania. See JEWS: Rumania: 1902.

**HAY-BOND TREATY**. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1902-1905.

**HAYDN**, Josef (1732-1800), Austrian composer. Studied in the choir school of St. Stephens, Vienna; appointed musical director to Count Franz Morzin, 1758; became Kapellmeister to Prince Paul Esterhazy, 1760; accepted a commission from Salomon, London, to write and conduct six symphonies, 1791-1795; produced his greatest work, the oratorio "Creation," at Vienna, 1798; followed by "The Seasons," 1799. See MUSIC: Modern: 1650-1827; 1700-1827.

**HAY-HERBERT CONVENTION** (1903). See ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTIONS: 1867-1903.

**HAY-HERRAN TREATY**, Project of. See COLOMBIA: 1902-1903; U. S. A.: 1914-1921.

Proclamation of his death. See U. S. A.: 1905 (July).

**HAYES**, Rutherford Birchard (1822-1893), nineteenth president of the United States. Served in the Civil War successively as major, lieutenant-colonel, and colonel of the twenty-third regiment, Ohio, 1861-1864; brevetted major general, 1865; elected to Congress, 1865-1866; governor of Ohio, 1867-1871, and 1875-1877; inaugurated president of the United States, 1877. See U. S. A.: 1869-1890; 1876-1877; 1877; 1878; CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1870-1880.

**HAYMARKET TRAGEDY** (1886). See CHICAGO: 1886-1887.

**HAYNAU**, Julius Jakob, Baron (1786-1853), Austrian general. See HUNGARY: 1847-1849; ITALY: 1848-1849.

**HAYNE**, Robert Young (1791-1839), American political leader. Served in the War of 1812; member South Carolina legislature, 1814-1818; attorney-general of that state, 1818-1822; United States senator, 1823-1832; governor of South Carolina, 1832-1834; mayor of Charleston, 1835-1837; advocate of nullification doctrine and exponent of states' rights and free trade. See TARIFF: 1808-1824.

Debate with Webster. See U. S. A.: 1828-1833.

**HAY-PAUNCEFOTE TREATY** (1901). See PANAMA CANAL: 1889-1903; U. S. A.: 1914-1921.

**HAYS**, Will H. (1879- ), United States postmaster-general, 1921-1922. See U. S. A.: 1920 (May-November); 1921 (March): President Harding's cabinet.

**HAYTI**. See HAITI.

**HAYWOOD**, Austin Hubert Wightwick (1878- ), English colonel. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: c, 6.

**HAYWOOD**, William D. (1869- ), American labor leader. First came into prominence as the leader of the Western Federation of Miners during the Cripple Creek strike, 1904; charged with complicity in the assassination of ex-governor Frank Steunenburg, Idaho, but was acquitted, 1905; as leader of the Industrial Workers of the World he conducted the Lawrence, Mass., textile strike, 1912; and the Paterson, N. J., silk-mill strike, 1913; indicted on charge of conspiracy to overthrow the government, February, 1920; conviction of conspiracy to violate selective service and espionage acts upheld by United States Circuit Court of Appeals, October, 1920; Chicago authorities moved to collect \$10,000 fine from his wife's estate, 1921; fled to Russia, 1922. See U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.

**HAZEBROUCK**, town in France, about thirty miles northwest of Lille. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 3; 1918: II. Western front: d, 10.

**HAZEN**, Moses (1733-1802), American brigadier-general. See U. S. A.: 1781 (May-October).

**HAZLERIG**, Sir Arthur. See HESILRICE, SIR ARTHUR.

**HEAD-HUNTERS**: Formosa. See FORMOSA. Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People.

**HEALDTON**, American vessel sunk March 21, 1917, by a German submarine. See U. S. A.: 1917 (February-April).

**HEALTH**, International Conference of. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Achievements of the council; Establishment of the secretariat.

**HEALTH**, Public. See PUBLIC HEALTH.

**HEALTH COUNCIL**, National. See PUBLIC HEALTH: United States; National health council.

**HEALTH INSURANCE**. See SOCIAL INSURANCE.



**HEALY, Timothy Michael** (1855- ), first governor-general of Ireland. See IRELAND: 1922 (September-January).

**HEARN, Lafcadio** (1850-1904), writer on Japanese subjects. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 1868-1921.

**HEARST, William Randolph** (1863- ), American journalist and politician. See NEW YORK: 1906-1910; NEW YORK CITY: 1905; 1909.

**HEARTS OF OAK BOYS, HEARTS OF STEEL BOYS.** See IRELAND: 1760-1798.

**HEATH, Sir Herbert Leopold** (1861- ), British vice-admiral. Took part in the battle of Jutland. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 3.

**HEATH, Sir Robert** (1575-1649), English jurist. Attorney-general to Charles I; interested in colonial enterprises. See AMERICA: 1629; BAHAMA ISLANDS: 1492-1783.

**HEATH, William** (1737-1814), American soldier. See U. S. A.: 1775 (May-August); 1781 (May-October).

**HEAVENFIELD, Battle of.** See HEFENFELD, BATTLE OF.

**HEBBEL, Friedrich** (1813-1863), German dramatist. See DRAMA: 1817-1871.

**HÉBERT, Jacques René** (c. 1757-1794), French journalist and politician. Member of club of Cordeliers and of the revolutionary commune of Paris; organized with Chaumette the "Worship of Reason," in opposition to theism. See FRANCE: 1793 (November); 1793-1794 (November-June).

**HEBREW EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.** See JEWS: United States: 19th century.

**HEBREWS.** See JEWS; CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 33-70.

**Architecture.** See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Palestine.

**Costume.** See COSTUME: Egyptian, etc.

**Ethics.** See ETHICS: Israel.

**Historiography.** See HISTORY: 14.

**Language and literature.** See JEWS: Language and literature; PHILOLOGY: 15; SEMITIC LITERATURE.

**Music.** See MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 1000 - A.D. 70.

**Religion.** See RELIGION: B.C. 600 - A.D. 30: Inner logic, etc.

**HEBRIDES, or WESTERN ISLANDS.**—"The Hebrides or Western Islands comprise all the numerous islands and islets which extend along nearly all the west coast of Scotland; and they anciently comprised also the peninsula of Cantyre, the islands of the Clyde, the isle of Rachlin, and even for some time the isle of Man."—*Historical tales of the wars of Scotland*, v. 3, p. 60.—See also WORLD WAR: Map of Europe at outbreak, etc.

**Music.** See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Hebrides.

**9th-13th centuries.**—Dominion of the Normans. See NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire; 10th-13th centuries; SODOR AND MAN.

**1266.**—Cession to Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1266.

**1346-1504.**—Lords of the Isles.—In 1346, the dominion of most of the Hebrides became consolidated under John, son of Ronald or Angus Oig, of Islay, and he assumed the title of "Lord of the Isles." The Lords of the Isles became substantially independent of the Scottish crown until the battle of Harlaw, in 1411 (see HARLAW, BATTLE OF). The lordship was extinguished in 1504 (see SCOTLAND: 1502-1504).—*Historical tales of the wars of Scotland*, pp. 65-72.

**HEBRON.**—In the settlement of the tribes of Israel, after the conquest of Canaan, Caleb, one

of the heroes of Judah, "took possession of the territory round the famous old city of Hebron, and thereby gained for his tribe a seat held sacred from Patriarchal times. . . . Beginning with Hebron, he acquired for himself a considerable territory, which even in David's time was named simply Caleb, and was distinguished from the rest of Judah as a peculiar district. . . . Hebron remained till after David's time celebrated as the main seat and central point of the entire tribe, around which it is evident that all the rest of Judah gradually clustered in good order."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, bk. 2, sect. 3, A.—"Hebron was a Hittite city, the centre of an ancient civilization, which to some extent had been inherited by the tribe of Judah. It was undoubtedly the capital of Judah, a city of the highest religious character full of recollections and traditions. It could boast of fine public buildings, good water, and a vast and well-kept pool. The unification of Israel had just been accomplished there. It was only natural that Hebron should become the capital of the new kingdom [of David]. . . . It is not easy to say what induced David to leave a city which had such ancient and evident claims for a hamlet like Jebus [Jerusalem], which did not yet belong to him. It is probable that he found Hebron too exclusively Judahite."—E. Renan, *History of the people of Israel*, bk. 2, ch. 18.—See also JEWS: Children of Israel in Egypt.

**HECANA, Kingdom of,** one of the small, short-lived kingdoms of the Angles in early England. Its territory was in modern Herefordshire.—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 7, sect. 70.

**HECATÆUS OF MILETUS** (fl. 6th-5th centuries B.C.), Greek historian. See HISTORY: 16.

**HECATOMB.**—"Large sacrifices, where a great number of animals were slaughtered, [among the ancient Greeks] are called hecatombs."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquity of Greece: The state*, p. 60.

**HECATOMBÆON, Battle of** (224 B.C.), fought by Cleomenes of Sparta with the forces of the Achæan League, over which he won a complete victory. The result was the calling in of Antigonus Doseon, king of Macedonia, to become the ally of the league, and to be aided by it in crushing the last independent political life of Peloponnesian Greece.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 62.

**HECATOMPEDON.** See PARTHENON: B.C. 445-431.

**HECATOMPYLOS,** chief city of Parthia proper, founded by Alexander the Great, and long remaining one of the capitals of the Parthian empire.

**HECKER, Friedrich Karl Franz** (1811-1881), German revolutionist. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1840-1850.

**HECKER, Isaac Thomas** (1819-1888), American Catholic priest.

Discussion of his biography by Pope Leo. See PAPACY: 1899 (January).

**HECTOR, François Louis, Baron de Carondelet,** Spanish governor of Louisiana, 1791-1797. See LOUISIANA: 1770-1797.

**HEDGELEY MOOR, Battle of** (1464). See ENGLAND: 1455-1471.

**HEDIN, Sven Anders** (1865- ), Swedish explorer. Explored Tibet and other difficult Asiatic regions, 1804-1807, 1809-1902, and 1906-1908; won the Karl Ritter medal, Berlin Geographical Society, 1897; elected member of the Paris Academy of Sciences, 1911; raised to the nobility, 1912; visited Belgium and investigated the destruction caused by the World War, 1914.

**HEDJAZ.** See **HEJAZ.**

**HEDONISM.** See **ETHICS:** Greece, Ancient: B.C. 4th century; 18th-19th centuries.

**HEDWIG, or Hedviga, Poland.** See **JADWIGA.**

**HEERBAN.**—The "heerban" was a military system instituted by Charlemagne, which gave way to the feudal system under his successors. "The basis of the heerban system was the duty of every fighting man to answer directly the call of the king to arms. The freeman, not only of the Franks, but of all the subject peoples, owed military service to the king alone. This duty is insisted upon in the laws of Charlemagne with constant repetition. The summons (heerban) was issued at the spring meeting, and sent out by the counts or missi. The soldier was obliged to present himself at the given time, fully armed and equipped with all provision for the campaign, except fire, water, and fodder for the horses."—E. Emerton, *Introduction to the study of the Middle Ages*, ch. 14.

**HEERINGEN, Josias von (1850- ),** German general. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: I.** Western front: a; g, 2.

**HEFENFELD, Battle of (634),** battle fought at Bede Denisesburn near Hefenfeld, between Cadwallan, British king, and Oswald, brother of Eanfrith, king of Bernicia. At the time that Cadwallan invaded Northumbria and slew its ruler, the kingdom was divided into two states, that of Deira and Bernicia. By the battle of Hefenfeld in which Cadwallan was defeated and killed, Oswald avenged his brother's death and took possession of Northumbria.

Also in: T. R. Green, *Making of England*, p. 275.—Bede, *Ecclesiastical history*, bk. 3, ch. 1-2.

**HEGEL, Georg Wilhelm Friedrich (1770-1831),** German philosopher. Studied theology and philosophy at Tübingen, 1788-1793; held private tutorships in Switzerland and Frankfurt, 1794-1801; established himself at Jena, 1801, and received a professorship, 1805; called to professorship of philosophy in Heidelberg, 1816, and to Berlin, 1818. "Hegel builds on the foundations laid by Fichte and Schelling. He agrees with the former in insisting on a logical method,—indeed, he undertakes to put the world-view of his friend Schelling on a rational scientific basis,—with the latter, in identifying logic with ontology or metaphysics; with both in conceiving reality as a living developing process. For him, too, nature and mind or reason are one; only, he subordinates nature to reason. Indeed, for him, all being and reason are identical; the same process that is at work in reason, is present everywhere; hence, whatever is real is rational, and whatever is rational is real. There is, therefore, a logic in nature as well as in history, and the universe is at bottom a logical system. The Absolute, then, is not an undifferentiated absolute, 'in which all cows are black,' as Schelling had taught (according to Hegel), but reason itself. Nor is the Absolute so much a substance (Spinoza) as a subject, which means that it is life, process, evolution, as well as consciousness and knowledge. All motion and action, all life, are but an unconscious thinking; they follow the law of thought; hence, the more law there is in nature, the more rational is its activity. And, finally, the goal toward which the developing Absolute moves is self-consciousness; the meaning of the entire process lies in its highest development: in the realization of truth and goodness, in the realization of a mind that knows the meaning and purpose of the universe and identifies itself with the universal purpose. . . . The impetus which Hegel gave to the study of the history of philosophy and the history of religion produced a school of great historians

and philosophy (Trendelenberg, Ritter, Brandis, J. E. Erdmann, E. Zeller, Kuno Fischer, W. Windelband) and of religion (O. Pfleiderer). He likewise exercised a great influence on the philosophy of history, the study of jurisprudence, politics, and indeed on all the mental Sciences."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 464, 463, 477.—Notable among his works are: "Encyclopedie der philosophischen Wissenschaften"; "Grundlinien der philosophie des Rechts."

See also **HISTORY: 27.**

**HEGELIAN PHILOSOPHY.** See **ETHICS: 18th-19th centuries.**

**HEGEMONY.**—"A hegemony, the political ascendancy of some one city or community over a number of subject commonwealths."—H. S. Maine, *Dissertations on early law and custom*, p. 131.

**HEGIRA.** See **HEJIRA.**

**HEGIUS, Alexander (c. 1433-1498),** German humanist and educator. See **EDUCATION: Modern: 14th-15th centuries: Brethren of the Common Life; 15th-16th centuries: Netherlands.**

**HEIAN EPOCH.** See **JAPANESE LITERATURE: 794-1868.**

**HEIDELBERG, city of Germany,** in North Baden, on the Neckar river.

16th century.—Luther's activities. See **PALATINATE OF THE RHINE: 1518-1572.**

1622.—Capture by Tilly. See **GERMANY: 1621-1623.**

1631.—Burning of the castle. See **GERMANY: 1631-1632.**

1690.—Final destruction of the castle. See **FRANCE: 1689-1690.**

1803.—Ceded to Baden by Treaty of Lunéville. See **GERMANY: 1801-1803.**

1848.—Assembly held. See **GERMANY: 1848 (March-September).**

**HEIDELBERG CONFEDERACY.** See **GERMANY: 1552-1561.**

**HEIDELBERG MAN,** skeletal remains of prehistoric man. See **ANTHROPOLOGY: Physical; EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Earliest remains, etc.: Heidelberg man.**

**HEIDELBERG UNIVERSITY.** See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1348-1826.**

**HEIDENSTAM, Karl Gustaf Verner von (1859- ),** Swedish writer. See **NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1916.**

**HEILBRONN, Union of.** See **GERMANY: 1632-1634.**

**HEILIGENHAUSEN, Battle of (1627).** See **GERMANY: 1627-1629.**

**HEI-LUNG-CHIANG,** province in northwestern Manchuria. See **MANCHURIA: Geographic description.**

**HEINE, Heinrich (1797-1856),** German poet. See **GERMAN LITERATURE: 1798-1896.**

**HEINICKE, Samuel (1727-1790),** German teacher and founder of German oral system for deaf and dumb. See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for deaf, blind, etc.: Deaf mutes.**

**HEJAZ, Kingdom of,** formerly included in the Turkish vilayet Hejaz, extending along the north-eastern shore of the Red sea. (See **ARABIA: Map; TURKEY: Land.**) Until the Treaty of Sèvres, 1920, it was controlled by Turkey. It became an independent state during the World War; has an area of 170,000 square miles and a population of 900,000.

1916.—Treatment by Turkey.—Revolt.—British fears of Holy war.—Actions of Germans. See **ARABIA: 1916; 1916 (June); WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1; c, 2; c, 3.**

1918.—Operations of British attack.—Yielded to Allies. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 5; c, 6; c, 9; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: d.*

1919.—Relations with Turkey and Nedj.—Represented at Paris conference and Treaty of Versailles. See *ARABIA: 1919: King of Hejaz, etc.; 1919: Results of treaty, etc.; PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.*

1920.—Recognized free and independent by Treaty of Sévres. See *SÉVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part III. Political clauses: Hedjaz.*

See also *ARABIA.*

**HEJIRA**, flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina to escape the persecution of his kinsmen. It is the beginning of the Mohammedan era. See *CHRONOLOGY: Era of the hejira; MEDINA; RELIGION: 622.*

Mormon. See *MORMONISM: 1830-1846.*

**HELAM**, or Halamah, Battle of, decisive victory won by King David over the Syrians.—*II. Samuel, 10: 15-19.*

**HELDENBUCH**, collection of German epic poems. See *NIBELUNGENLIED.*

**HELEN OF TROY**, wife of King Menelaus of Sparta who was carried off by Paris. According to the "Iliad" this was the cause of the Trojan War. Many legends are connected with her name.

**HELENA**, Arkansas, Defense of. See *U. S. A.: 1863 (July: On the Mississippi).*

**HELEPOLIS**, besieging engine. See *RHODES, ISLAND OF: B. C. 304.*

**HELFFERICH**, Karl Theodor (1872- ), German financier and Progressive leader. Entered government service as a specialist on colonial and economic topics, 1901; director of the Deutsche Bank, 1908-1915; secretary of the treasury, 1915-1916; secretary in imperial home office, 1916-1918; representative to Russia, 1918. See *GERMANY: 1916: Change of government, etc.; 1919 (June-July); WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 73, 1; 73, iv.*

**HELIAEA**.—Under Solon's constitution for the government of Athens, "a body of 6,000 citizens was every year created by lot to form a supreme court, called Heliaea, which was divided into several smaller ones, not limited to any precise number of persons. The qualifications required for this were the same with those which gave admission into the general assembly, except that the members of the former might not be under the age of thirty. It was, therefore, in fact, a select portion of the latter, in which the powers of the larger body were concentrated and exercised under a judicial form."—*C. Thirlwall, History of Greece, ch. 11.*—See also *DICASTERIA.*

**HELICON**. See *THESSALY.*

**HELIGOLAND**, small island in the North sea, situated fifty miles from the mouth of the Elbe. The natives are of Frisian origin, and the island in ancient times was known as Fosetisland, from the Frisian goddess Foseta. From the tenth to the thirteenth centuries it was an independent republic; from the fourteenth to the seventeenth centuries it was in possession of the dukes of Schleswig; in the eighteenth century it was captured and held by Denmark; in 1807 it was occupied by Great Britain; in 1814, officially ceded to Great Britain by Denmark; and in 1890 was ceded to Germany by England.—See also *BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties promoting expansion: 1815; SWEDEN: 1813-1814; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; GERMANY: 1890-1891.*

1910.—Building of sea-wall.—A few hundred years ago, Heligoland had five times its present

area. The sea was consuming it rapidly, until, in 1910, a sea wall was completed of steel, granite, and concrete. The island holds a commanding position over the entrance to the Kiel canal, and was heavily fortified by Germany.

1914.—Naval station in World War.—The island served as a fortified naval station. The first British naval victory of the war was won off its coast, August 28, 1914.

1920.—After-war status.—By the Treaty of Versailles, Germany retained Heligoland. However, it was stipulated that all fortifications and harbor works there should be destroyed by German labor and at Germany's expense, and that no similar works should be constructed in the future.—See also *VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: Section XIII.*

**HELIGOLAND BIGHT**, Battle of (1914). See *WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: c.*

**HELIOPOLIS**, ancient city of Egypt, modern Baalbek. See *BAALBEK; ON.*

641.—Conquest by Amru. See *CALIPHATE: 640-646.*

**HELIUM**, gaseous chemical element. See *CHEMISTRY: Radio-activity: Thorium.*

**HELLANICUS** (c. 496-c. 406 B. C.), Greek historian. See *HISTORY: 16.*

**HELLAS, HELLENES** (Graikoi or Greeks).—"To the Greek of the historical ages the idea of Hellas was not associated with any definite geographical limits. Wherever a Greek settlement existed, there for the colonists was Hellas. . . . Of a Hellas lying within certain specified bounds, and containing within it only Greek inhabitants, they knew nothing."—*G. W. Cox, History of Greece, bk. 1, ch. 1.*—"Their language was . . . from the beginning, the token of recognition among the Hellenes. . . . Where this language was spoken—in Asia, in Europe, or in Africa—there was Hellas. . . . A considerable number of the Greek tribes which immigrated by land [from Asia] into the European peninsula [of Greece] followed the tracks of the Italicans, and, taking a westward route through Pæonia and Macedonia, penetrated through Illyria into the western half of the Alpine country of Northern Greece, which the formation of its hill ranges and valleys renders more easily accessible from the north than Thessaly in its secluded hollow. The numerous rivers, abounding in water, which flow close by one another through long gorges into the Ionian Sea, here facilitated an advance into the south; and the rich pasture-land invited immigration; so that Epirus became the dwelling-place of a dense crowd of population, which commenced its civilized career in the fertile lowlands of the country. Among them three main tribes were marked out, of which the Chaones were regarded as the most ancient. . . . Farther to the south the Thesprotians had settled, and more inland, in the direction of Pindus, the Molossians. A more ancient appellation than those of this triple division is that of the Greeks (Graikoi), which the Hellenes thought the earliest designation of their ancestors. The same name of Graeci (Greeks) the Italicans applied to the whole family of peoples with whom they had once dwelt together in these districts. This is the first collective name of the Hellenic tribes in Europe. . . . Far away from the coast, in the seclusion of the hills, where lie closely together the springs of the Thyamis, Aous, Aracthus, and Achelous, extends at the base of Tomarus the lake Ioannina, on the thickly wooded banks of which, between fields of corn and damp meadows, lay Dodona, a chosen seat of the Pelasgian Zeus, the invisible God, who announced his presence in the rustling of the oaks, whose altar

was surrounded by a vast circle of tripods, for a sign that he was the first to unite the domestic hearths and civic communities into a great association centering in himself. This Dodona was the central seat of the Græci; it was a sacred center of the whole district before the Italicans commenced their westward journey; and at the same time the place where the subsequent national name of the Greeks can be first proved to have prevailed; for the chosen of the people, who administered the worship of Zeus, were called Selli or Helli, and after them the surrounding country Hellopia or Hellas.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 1, 4.—See also *ACHÆA*; *BALKAN STATES*: 10th century; GREECE.

Also in: G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 2, pt. 2, ch. 2.—G. W. Cox, *History of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—W. E. Gladstone, *Juventus Mundi*, ch. 4.

**B.C. 1000.**—Absorption of Ægean culture. See *ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION*: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750.

**HELLENIC ALLIANCE.** See GREECE: B.C. 481-479.

**HELLENIC LAW OF NATIONS.** See INTERNATIONAL LAW: Usages in ancient world.

**HELLENION**, ancient commercial center at Naucratis, Egypt, organized and supported by nine Greek cities. See NAUCRATIS.

**HELLENISM**: Greek genius and culture.—Its influence.—“It was the privilege of the Greeks to discover the sovereign efficacy of reason. They entered on the pursuit of knowledge with a sure and joyous instinct. Baffled and puzzled they might be, but they never grew weary of the quest. The speculative faculty which reached its height in Plato and Aristotle, was, when we make due allowance for time and circumstance, scarcely less eminent in the Ionian philosophers; and it was Ionia that gave birth to an idea, which was foreign to the East, but has become the starting-point of modern science,—the idea that Nature works by fixed laws. A fragment of Euripides speaks of him as ‘happy who has learned to search into causes,’ who ‘discerns the deathless and ageless order of nature, whence it arose, the how and the why.’ The early poet-philosophers of Ionia gave the impulse which has carried the human intellect forward across the line which separates empirical from scientific knowledge; and the Greek precocity of mind in this direction, unlike that of the Orientals, had in it the promise of uninterrupted advance in the future,—of great discoveries in mathematics, geometry, experimental physics, in medicine also and physiology. . . . By the middle of the fifth century B.C. the general conception of law in the physical world was firmly established in the mind of Greek thinkers. Even the more obscure phenomena of disease were brought within the rule. Hippocrates writing about a malady which was common among the Scythians and was thought to be preternatural says: ‘As for me I think that these maladies are divine like all others, but that none is more divine or more human than another. Each has its natural principle and none exists without its natural cause.’ Again, the Greeks set themselves to discover a rational basis for conduct. Rigorously they brought their actions to the test of reason, and that not only by the mouth of philosophers, but through their poets, historians, and orators. Thinking and doing—clear thought and noble action—did not stand opposed to the Greek mind. The antithesis rather marks a period when the Hellenic spirit was past its prime, and had taken a one-sided bent. The Athenians of the Periclean age—in whom we must recognise the purest embodiment of Hellenism—

had in truth the peculiar power, which Thucydides claims for them, of thinking before they acted and of acting also. . . . To Greece . . . we owe the love of Science, the love of Art, the love of Freedom: not Science alone, Art alone, or Freedom alone, but these vitally correlated with one another and brought into organic union. And in this union we recognise the distinctive features of the West. The Greek genius is the European genius in its first and brightest bloom. From a vivifying contact with the Greek spirit Europe derived that new and mighty impulse which we call Progress. Strange it is to think that these Greeks, like the other members of the Indo-European family, probably had their cradle in the East; that behind Greek civilisation, Greek language, Greek mythology, there is that Eastern background to which the comparative sciences seem to point. But it is no more than a background. In spite of all resemblances, in spite of common customs, common words, common syntax, common gods, the spirit of the Greeks and of their Eastern kinsmen—the spirit of their civilisation, art, language, and mythology—remains essentially distinct. . . . From Greece came that first mighty impulse, whose far-off workings are felt by us to-day, and which has brought it about that progress has been accepted as the law and goal of human endeavour. Greece first took up the task of equipping man with all that fits him for civil life and promotes his secular wellbeing; of unfolding and expanding every in-born faculty and energy, bodily and mental; of striving restlessly after the perfection of the whole, and finding in this effort after an unattainable ideal that by which man becomes like to the gods. The life of the Hellenes, like that of their Epic hero Achilles, was brief and brilliant. But they have been endowed with the gift of renewing their youth. Renan, speaking of the nations that are fitted to play a part in universal history, says ‘that they must die first that the world may live through them’; that ‘a people must choose between the prolonged life, the tranquil and obscure destiny of one who lives for himself, and the troubled stormy career of one who lives for humanity. The nation which revolves within its breast social and religious problems is always weak politically. Thus it was with the Jews, who in order to make the religious conquest of the world must needs disappear as a nation.’ ‘They lost a material city, they opened the reign of the spiritual Jerusalem.’ So too it was with Greece. As a people she ceased to be. When her freedom was overthrown at Chaeronea, the page of her history was to all appearance closed. Yet from that moment she was to enter on a larger life and on universal empire. Already during the last days of her independence it had been possible to speak of a new Hellenism, which rested not on ties of blood but on spiritual kinship. This presentiment of Isocrates was marvellously realised. As Alexander passed conquering through Asia, he restored to the East, as garnered grain, that Greek civilisation whose seeds had long ago been received from the East. Each conqueror in turn, the Macedonian and the Roman, bowed before conquered Greece and learnt lessons at her feet. [See EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization.] To the modern world too Greece has been the great civiliser, the æumenical teacher, the disturber and regenerator of slumbering societies. She is the source of most of the quickening ideas which re-make nations and renovate literature and art. If we reckon up our secular possessions, the wealth and heritage of the past, the larger share may be traced back to Greece. One half of life she has made her

domain,—all, or well-nigh all, that belongs to the present order of things and to the visible world.”—S. H. Butcher, *Some aspects of the Greek genius*, pp. 9-43.—“The part assigned to [the Greeks] in the drama of the nations was to create forms of beauty, to unfold ideas which should remain operative when the short bloom of their own existence was over, and thus to give a new impulse, a new direction, to the whole current of human life. The prediction which Thucydides puts into the mouth of the Athenian orator has been fulfilled, though not in the sense literally conveyed: ‘Assuredly we shall not be without witnesses,’ says Pericles; ‘there are mighty documents of our power, which shall make us the wonder of this age, and of ages to come.’ He was thinking of those wide-spread settlements which attested the empire of Athens. But the immortal witnesses of his race are of another kind. Like the victims of the war, whose epitaph he was pronouncing, the Hellenes have their memorial in all lands, graven, not on stone, but in the hearts of mankind. . . . Are we not warranted by what we know of Greek work, imperfect though our knowledge is, in saying that no people has yet appeared in the world whose faculty for art, in the largest sense of the term, has been so comprehensive? And there is a further point that may be noted. It has been said that the man of genius sometimes is such in virtue of combining the temperament distinctive of his nation with some gift of his own which is foreign to that temperament; as in Shakespeare the basis is English, and the individual gift a flexibility of spirit which is not normally English. But we cannot apply this remark to the greatest of ancient Greek writers. They present certainly a wide range of individual differences. Yet so distinctive and so potent is the Hellenic nature that, if any two of such writers be compared, however wide the individual differences may be,—as between Aristophanes and Plato, or Pindar and Demosthenes,—such individual differences are less significant than those common characteristics of the Hellenic mind which separate both the men compared from all who are not Hellenes. If it were possible to trace the process by which the Hellenic race was originally separated from their Aryan kinsfolk, the physiological basis of their qualities might perhaps be traced in the mingling of different tribal ingredients. As it is, there is no clue to these secrets of nature’s alchemy: the Hellenes appear in the dawn of their history with that unique temperament already distinct: we can point only to one cause, and that a subordinate cause, which must have aided its development, namely, the geographical position of Greece. No people of the ancient world were so fortunately placed. Nowhere are the aspects of external nature more beautiful, more varied, more stimulating to the energies of body and mind. A climate which, within three parallels of latitude, nourishes the beeches of Pindus and the palms of the Cyclades; mountain-barriers which at once created a framework for the growth of local federations, and encouraged a sturdy spirit of freedom; coasts abounding in natural harbors; a sea dotted with islands, and notable for the regularity of its wind-currents; ready access alike to Asia and to the western Mediterranean,—these were circumstances happily congenial to the inborn faculties of the Greek race, and admirably fitted to expand them.”—R. C. Jebb, *Growth and influence of classical Greek poetry*, pp. 27-31.—“The sense of beauty which the Greeks possessed to a greater extent than any other people could not fail to be caught by the exceptionally beautiful

natural surroundings in which they lived; and their literature, at any rate their poetry, bears abundant testimony to the fact. Small though Greece is, it contains a greater variety, both in harmony and contrast, of natural beauty than most countries, however great. Its latitude gives it a southern climate, while its mountains allow of the growth of a vegetation found in more northern climes. Within a short space occur all the degrees of transition from snow-topped hills to vine-clad fountains. And the joy with which the beauty of their country filled the Greeks may be traced through all their poetry. . . . The two leading facts in the physical aspect of Greece are the sea and the mountains. As Europe is the most indented and has relatively the longest coast-line of all the continents of the world, so of all the countries of Europe the land of Greece is the most interpenetrated with arms of the sea. . . .

‘Two voices are there: one is of the Sea,  
One of the Mountains; each a mighty voice:  
In both from age to age thou didst rejoice;  
They were thy chosen music, Liberty!’

Both voices spoke impressively to Greece, and her literature echoes their tones. So long as Greece was free and the spirit of freedom animated the Greeks, so long their literature was creative and genius marked it. When liberty perished, literature declined. The field of Charonea was fatal alike to the political liberty and to the literature of Greece. The love of liberty was indeed pushed even to an extreme in Greece; and this also was due to the physical configuration of the country. Mountains, it has been said, divide; seas unite. The rise and the long continuance in so small a country of so many cities, having their own laws, constitution, separate history, and independent existence, can only be explained by the fact that in their early growth they were protected, each by the mountains which surrounded it, so effectually, and the love of liberty in this time was developed to such an extent, that no single city was able to establish its dominion over the others. . . . Every one of the numerous states, whose separate political existence was guaranteed by the mountains, was actually or potentially a separate centre of civilisation and of literature. In some one of these states each kind of literature could find the conditions appropriate or necessary to its development. Even a state which produced no men of literary genius itself might become the centre at which poets collected and encouraged the literature it could not produce, as was the case with Sparta, to which Greece owed the development of choral lyric. . . . The eastern basin of the Mediterranean has deserved well of literature, for it brought Greece into communication with her colonies on the islands and on the surrounding coasts, and enabled the numerous Greek cities to co-operate in the production of a rich and varied literature, instead of being confined each to a one-sided and incomplete development. The process of communication began in the earliest times, as is shown by the spread of epic literature. Originating in Ionia, it was taken up in Cyprus, where the epic called the Cypria was composed, and at the beginning of the sixth century it was on the coast of Africa in the colony of Cyrene. The rapid spread of elegiac poetry is even more strikingly illustrated, for we find Solon in Athens quoting from his contemporary Minnermus of Colophon. Choral lyric, which originated in Asia Minor, was conveyed to Sparta by Alcman, and by Simonides of Ceos all over the Greek world. But although

in early times we find as much interchange and reaction in the colonies amongst themselves as between the colonies and the mother-country, with the advance of time we find the centripetal tendency becoming dominant. The mother-country becomes more and more the centre to which all literature and art gravitates. At the beginning of the sixth century Sparta attracted poets from the colonies in Asia Minor, but the only form of literature which Sparta rewarded and encouraged was choral lyric. No such narrowness characterised Athens, and when she established herself as the intellectual capital of Greece, all men of genius received a welcome there, and we find all forms of literature deserting their native homes, even their native dialects, to come to Athens. . . . As long as literature had many centres, there was no danger of all falling by a single stroke; but when it was centralised in Athens, and the blow delivered by Philip at Chæronea had fallen on Athens, classical Greek literature perished in a generation. It is somewhat difficult to distinguish race-qualities from the characteristics impressed on a people by the conditions under which it lives, since the latter by accumulation and transmission from generation to generation eventually become race-qualities. Thus the Spartans possessed qualities common to them and the Dorians, of whom they were a branch, and also qualities peculiar to themselves, which distinguished them from other Dorians. . . . The ordinary life of a Spartan citizen was that of a soldier in camp or garrison, rather than that of a member of a political community, and this system of life was highly unfavourable to literature. . . . Other Dorians, not hemmed in by such unfavourable conditions as the Spartans, did provide some contributions to the literature of Greece, and in the nature of their contributions we may detect the qualities of the race. The Dorians in Sicily sowed the seeds of rhetoric and carried comedy to considerable perfection. Of imagination the race seems destitute: it did not produce poets. On the other hand, the race is eminently practical as well as prosaic, and their humour was of a nature which corresponded to these qualities. . . . The Æolians form a contrast both to the Spartans and to the Athenians. The development of individuality is as characteristic of the Æolians as its absence is of the Spartans. But the Æolians, first of all Greeks, possessed a cavalry, and this means that they were wealthy and aristocratic. . . . This gives us the distinction between the Æolians and the Athenians: among the former, individuality was developed in the aristocracy alone; among the latter, in all the citizens. The Æolians added to the crown of Greek literature one of the brightest of its jewels—lyric poetry, as we understand lyric in modern times, that is, the expression of the poet's feelings, on any subject whatever, as his individual feeling. . . . But it was the Ionians who rendered the greatest services to Greek literature. They were a quick-witted race, full of enterprise, full of resources. In them we see reflected the character of the sea, as in the Dorians the character of the mountains. The latter partook of the narrowness and exclusiveness of their own homes, hemmed in by mountains, and by them protected from the incursion of strangers and strange innovations. The Ionians, on the other hand, were open as the sea, and had as many moods. They were eminently susceptible to beauty in all its forms, to the charm of change and to novelty. They were ever ready to put any belief or institution to the test of discussion, and were governed

as much by ideas as by sentiments. Keeness of intellect, taste in all matters of literature and art, grace in expression, and measure in everything distinguished them above all Greeks. The development of epic poetry, the origin of prose, the cultivation of philosophy, are the proud distinction of the Ionian race. In Athens we have the qualities of the Ionian race in their finest flower."—F. B. Jevons, *History of Greek literature*, pp. 485-490.—See also GREEK LITERATURE: Development of philosophical literature; DRAMA: Origin; Greek comedy.

**Hellenism and the Jews.**—"The Jewish religion . . . was, in ancient times as well as in the Graeco-Roman period, surrounded on all sides by heathen districts. Only at Jamnia and Joppa had the Jewish element advanced as far as the sea. Elsewhere even to the west, it was not the sea, but the Gentile region of the Philistine and Phœnician cities, that formed the boundary of the Jewish. These heathen lands were far more deeply penetrated by Hellenism, than the country of the Jews. No reaction like the rising of the Maccabees had here put a stop to it, besides which heathen polytheism was adapted in quite a different manner from Judaism for blending with Hellenism. While therefore the further advance of Hellenism was obstructed by religious barriers in the interior of Palestine, it had attained here, as in all other districts since its triumphant entry under Alexander the Great, its natural preponderance over Oriental culture. Hence, long before the commencement of the Roman period, the educated world, especially in the great cities in the west and east of Palestine, was, we may well say, completely Hellenized. It is only with the lower strata of the populations and the dwellers in rural districts, that this must not be equally assumed. Besides however the border lands, the Jewish districts in the interior of Palestine were occupied by Hellenism, especially Scythopolis . . . and the town of Samaria, where Macedonian colonists had already been planted by Alexander the Great, . . . while the national Samaritans had their central point at Sichem. The victorious penetration of Hellenistic culture is most plainly and comprehensively shown by the religious worship. The native religions, especially in the Philistine and Phœnician cities, did indeed in many respects maintain themselves in their essential character; but still in such wise, that they were transformed by and blended with Greek elements. But besides these the purely Greek worship also gained an entrance, and in many places entirely supplanted the former. Unfortunately our sources of information do not furnish us the means of separating the Greek period proper from the Roman; the best are afforded by coins, and these for the most part belong to the Roman. On the whole however the picture, which we obtain, holds good for the pre-Roman period also, nor are we entirely without direct notices of this age. . . . In the Jewish region proper Hellenism was in its religious aspect triumphantly repulsed by the rising of the Maccabees; it was not till after the overthrow of Jewish nationality in the wars of Vespasian and Hadrian, that an entrance for heathen rites was forcibly obtained by the Romans. In saying this however we do not assert that the Jewish people of those early times remained altogether unaffected by Hellenism. For the latter was a civilising power, which extended itself to every department of life. It fashioned in a peculiar manner the organization of the state, legislation, the administration of justice, public

arrangements, art and science, trade and industry, and the customs of daily life down to fashion and ornaments, and thus impressed upon every department of life, whatever its influence reached, the stamp of the Greek mind. It is true that Hellenistic is not identical with Hellenic culture. The importance of the former on the contrary lay in the fact, that by its reception of the available elements of all foreign cultures within its reach, it became a world-culture. But this very world-culture became in its turn a peculiar whole, in which the preponderant Greek element was the ruling keynote. Into the stream of this Hellenistic culture the Jewish people was also drawn; slowly indeed and with reluctance, but yet irresistibly, for though religious zeal was able to banish heathen worship and all connected therewith from Israel, it could not for any length of time restrain the tide of Hellenistic culture in other departments of life. Its several stages cannot indeed be any longer traced. But when we reflect that the small Jewish country was enclosed on almost every side by Hellenistic regions, with which it was compelled, even for the sake of trade, to hold continual intercourse, and when we remember, that even the rising of the Maccabees was in the main directed not against Hellenism in general, but only against the heathen religion, that the later Asmonaeans bore in every respect a Hellenistic stamp—employed foreign mercenaries, minted foreign coins, took Greek names, etc., and that some of them, e. g., Aristobulus I., were direct favourers of Hellenism,—when all this is considered, it may safely be assumed, that Hellenism had, notwithstanding the rising of the Maccabees, gained access in no inconsiderable measure into Palestine even before the commencement of the Roman period.”

—E. Schürer, *History of the Jewish people in the time of Christ*, div. 2, v. 1, pp. 29-30.—See also JEWS: B.C. 332-167.

**Hellenism and the Romans.**—“In the Alexandrian age, with all its close study and imitation of the classical models, nothing is more remarkable than the absence of any promise that the Hellenic spirit which animated those masterpieces was destined to have any abiding influence in the world. . . . And yet it is true that the vital power of the Hellenic genius was not fully revealed, until, after suffering some temporary eclipse in the superficially Greek civilizations of Asia and Egypt, it emerged in a new quality, as a source of illumination to the literature and the art of Rome. Early Roman literature was indebted to Greece for the greater part of its material; but a more important debt was in respect to the forms and moulds of composition. The Latin language of the third century B.C. was already in full possession of the qualities which always remained distinctive of it; it was clear, strong, weighty, precise, a language made to be spoken in the imperative mood, a fitting interpreter of government and law. But it was not flexible or graceful, musical or rapid; it was not suited to express delicate shades of thought or feeling; for literary purposes, it was, in comparison with Greek, a poor and rude idiom. The development of Latin into the language of Cicero and Virgil was gradually and laboriously accomplished under the constant influence of Greece. That finish of form, known as classical, which Roman writers share with Greek, was a lesson which Greece slowly impressed upon Rome. . . . A close and prolonged study of the Greek models could not end in a mere discipline of form; the beauty of the best Greek models depends too much on their vital

spirit. Not only was the Roman imagination enriched, but the Roman intellect, through literary intercourse with the Greek, gradually acquired a flexibility and a plastic power which had not been among its original gifts. Through Roman literature the Greek influence was transmitted to later times in a shape which obscured, indeed, much of its charm, but which was also fitted to extend its empire, and to win an entrance for it in regions which would have been less accessible to a purer form of its manifestation.”

—R. C. Jebb, *Growth and influence of classical Greek poetry*, ch. 8.—“Italy had been subject to the influence of Greece, ever since it had a history at all. . . . But the Hellenism of the Romans of the present period [second century B.C.] was, in its causes as well as its consequences, something essentially new. The Romans began to feel the lack of a richer intellectual life, and to be startled as it were at their own utter want of mental culture; and, if even nations of artistic gifts, such as the English and Germans, have not disdained in the pauses of their own productiveness to avail themselves of the paltry French culture for filling up the gap, it need excite no surprise that the Italian nation now flung itself with eager zeal on the glorious treasures as well as on the vile refuse of the intellectual development of Hellas. But it was an impulse still more profound and deep-rooted which carried the Romans irresistibly into the Hellenic vortex. Hellenic civilization still assumed that name, but it was Hellenic no longer; it was, in fact, humanistic and cosmopolitan. It had solved the problem of moulding a mass of different nations into one whole completely in the field of intellect, and to a certain degree in that of politics, and, now when the same task on a wider scale devolved on Rome, she entered on the possession of Hellenism along with the rest of the inheritance of Alexander the Great. Hellenism therefore was no longer a mere stimulus, or subordinate influence; it penetrated the Italian nation to the very core. Of course, the vigorous home life of Italy strove against the foreign element. It was only after a most vehement struggle that the Italian farmer abandoned the field to the cosmopolite of the capital; and, as in Germany the French coat called forth the national Germanic frock, so the reaction against Hellenism aroused in Rome a tendency, which opposed the influence of Greece on principle in a style to which earlier centuries were altogether unaccustomed, and in doing so fell not unfrequently into downright follies and absurdities. No department of human action or thought remained unaffected by this struggle between the new fashion and the old. Even political relations were largely influenced by it. The whimsical project of emancipating the Hellenes, . . . the kindred, likewise Hellenic, idea of combining republics in a common opposition to kings, and the desire of propagating Hellenic polity at the expense of eastern despotism—which were the two principles that regulated, for instance, the treatment of Macedonia—were fixed ideas of the new school, just as dread of the Carthaginians was the fixed idea of the old; and, if Cato pushed the latter to a ridiculous excess, Philhellenism now and then indulged in extravagances at least as foolish. . . . But the real struggle between Hellenism and its national antagonists during the present period was carried on in the field of faith, of manners, and of art and literature. . . . If Italy still possessed—what had long been a mere antiquarian curiosity in Hellas—a national religion, it was already visibly beginning to be ossified into

theology. The torpor creeping over faith is nowhere perhaps so distinctly apparent as in the alterations in the economy of divine service and of the priesthood. The public service of the gods became not only more tedious, but above all more and more costly. . . . An augur like Lucius Paullus, who regarded the priesthood as a science and not as a mere title, was already a rare exception; and could not but be so, when the government more and more openly and unhesitatingly employed the auspices for the accomplishment of its political designs, or, in other words, treated the national religion in accordance with the view of Polybius as a superstition useful for imposing on the public at large. Where the way was thus paved, the Hellenistic irreligious spirit found free course. In connection with the incipient taste for art the sacred images of the gods began even in Cato's time to be employed, like other furniture, to embellish the chambers of the rich. More dangerous wounds were inflicted on religion by the rising literature. . . . Thus the old national religion was visibly on the decline; and, as the great trees of the primeval forest were uprooted, the soil became covered with a rank growth of thorns and briars and with weeds that had never been seen before. Native superstitions and foreign impostures of the most various hues mingled, competed and conflicted with each other. . . . The Hellenism of that epoch, already denationalized and pervaded by Oriental mysticism, introduced not only unbelief but also superstition in its most offensive and dangerous forms to Italy; and these vagaries, moreover, had a special charm, precisely because they were foreign. . . . Rites of the most abominable character came to the knowledge of the Roman authorities: a secret nocturnal festival in honour of the god Bacchus had been first introduced into Etruria by a Greek priest, and spreading like a cancer, had rapidly reached Rome and propagated itself over all Italy, everywhere corrupting families and giving rise to the most heinous crimes, unparalleled unchastity, falsifying of testaments, and murdering by poison. More than 7,000 men were sentenced to punishment, most of them to death, on this account, and rigorous enactments were issued as to the future. . . . The ties of family life became relaxed with fearful rapidity. The evil of grisettes and boy-favourites spread like a pestilence. . . . Luxury prevailed more and more in dress, ornaments and furniture, in the buildings and on the tables. Especially after the expedition to Asia Minor, which took place in 564 [B.C. 190], Asiatic-Hellenic luxury, such as prevailed at Ephesus and Alexandria, transferred its empty refinement and its petty trifling, destructive alike of money, time, and pleasure, to Rome. . . . As a matter of course, this revolution in life and manners brought an economic revolution in its train. Residence in the capital became more and more coveted as well as more costly. Rents rose to an unexampled height. Extravagant prices were paid for the new articles of luxury. . . . The influences which stimulated the growth of Roman literature were of a character altogether peculiar and hardly paralleled in any other nation. . . . By means of the Italian slaves and freedmen, a very large portion of whom were Greek or half Greek by birth, the Greek language and Greek knowledge to a certain extent reached even the lower ranks of the population, especially in the capital. The comedies of this period indicate that even the humbler classes of the capital were familiar with a sort of Latin, which could no more be properly

understood without a knowledge of Greek than Sterne's English or Wieland's German without a knowledge of French. Men of senatorial families, however, not only addressed a Greek audience in Greek, but even published their speeches. . . . Under the influence of such circumstances Roman education developed itself. It is a mistaken opinion, that antiquity was materially inferior to our own times in the general diffusion of elementary attainments. Even among the lower classes and slaves there was considerable knowledge of reading, writing, and counting. . . . Elementary instruction, as well as instruction in Greek, must have been long ere this period imparted to a very considerable extent in Rome. But the epoch now before us initiated an education, the aim of which was to communicate not merely an outward expertness, but a real mental culture. The internal decomposition of Italian nationality had already, particularly in the aristocracy, advanced so far as to render the substitution of a broader human culture for that nationality inevitable; and the craving after a more advanced civilization was already powerfully stirring men's minds. The study of the Greek language as it were spontaneously met this craving. The classical literature of Greece, the *Iliad* and still more the *Odyssey*, had all along formed the basis of instruction; the overflowing treasures of Hellenic art and science were already by this means spread before the eyes of the Italians. Without any outward revolution, strictly speaking, in the character of instruction the natural result was, that the empirical study of the language became converted into a higher study of the literature; that the general culture connected with such literary studies was communicated in increased measure to the scholars; and that these availed themselves of the knowledge thus acquired to dive into that Greek literature which most powerfully influenced the spirit of the age—the tragedies of Euripides and the comedies of Menander. In a similar way greater importance came to be attached to the study of Latin. The higher society of Rome began to feel the need, if not of exchanging their mother-tongue for Greek, at least of refining it and adapting it to the changed state of culture. . . . But a Latin culture presupposed a literature, and no such literature existed in Rome. . . . The Romans desired a theatre, but the pieces were wanting. On these elements Roman literature was based; and its defective character was from the first and necessarily the result of such an origin. . . . Roman poetry in particular had its immediate origin not in the inward impulse of the poet, but in the outward demands of the school, which needed Latin manuals, and of the stage, which needed Latin dramas. Now both institutions—the school and the stage—were thoroughly anti-Roman and revolutionary. . . . The school and the theatre became the most effective levers in the hands of the new spirit of the age, and all the more so that they used the Latin tongue. Men might perhaps speak and write Greek, and yet not cease to be Romans; but in this case they were in the habit of speaking in the Roman language, while the whole inward being and life were Greek. It is one of the most pleasing, but it is one of the most remarkable and in a historical point of view most instructive, facts in this brilliant era of Roman conservatism, that during its course Hellenism struck root in the whole field of intellect not immediately political, and that the schoolmaster and the *maître de plaisir* of the great public in close alliance created a Roman litera-



ture."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 13.—Panætius was the founder of "that Roman Stoicism which plays so prominent a part in the history of the Empire. He came from Rhodes, and was a pupil of Diogenes at Athens. The most important part of his life was, however, spent at Rome, in the house of Scipio Æmilianus, the centre of the Scipionic circle, where he trained up a number of Roman nobles to understand and to adopt his views. He seems to have taken the place of Polybius, and to have accompanied Scipio in his tour to the East (143 B.C.). He died as head of the Stoic school in Athens about 110 B.C. This was the man who, under the influence of the age, really modified the rigid tenets of his sect to make it the practical rule of life for statesmen, politicians, magnates, who had no time to sit all day and dispute, but who required something better than effete polytheism to give them dignity in their leisure, and steadfastness in the day of trial. . . . With the pupils of Panætius begins the long roll of Roman Stoics. . . . Here then, after all the dissolute and disintegrating influences of Hellenism,—its comœdia palliata, its parasites, its panders, its minions, its chicanery, its mendacity—had produced their terrible effect, came an antidote which, above all the human influences we know, purified and ennobled the world. It affected, unfortunately, only the higher classes at Rome; and even among them, as among any of the lower classes that speculated at all, it had as a dangerous rival that cheap and vulgar Epicureanism, which puffs up common natures with the belief that their trivial and coarse reflections have some philosophic basis, and can be defended with subtle arguments. But among the best of the Romans Hellenism produced a type seldom excelled in the world's history, a type as superior to the old Roman model as the nobleman is to the burgher in most countries—a type we see in Rutilius Rufus, as compared with the elder Cato. . . . It was in this way that Hellenistic philosophy made itself a home in Italy, and acquired pupils who in the next generation became masters in their way, and showed in Cicero and Lucretius no mean rivals of the contemporary Greek. . . . Till the poem of Lucretius and the works of Cicero, we may say nothing in Latin worth reading existed on the subject. Whoever wanted to study philosophy, therefore, down to that time (60 B.C.) studied it in Greek. Nearly the same thing may be said of the arts of architecture, painting, and sculpture. There were indeed distinctly Roman features in architecture, but they were mere matters of building, and whatever was done in the way of design, in the way of adding beauty to strength, was done wholly under the advice and direction of Greeks. The subservience to Hellenism in the way of internal household ornament was even more complete. . . . And with the ornaments of the house, the proper serving of the house, especially the more delicate departments—the cooking of state dinners, the attendance upon guests, the care of the great man's intimate comfort—could only be done fashionably by Greek slaves. . . . But of course these lower sides of Hellenism had no more potent effect in civilising Rome than the employing of French cooks and valets and the purchase of French ornaments and furniture had in improving our grandfathers. Much more serious was the acknowledged supremacy of the Greeks in literature of all kinds, and still more their insistence that this superiority depended mainly upon a careful system of intellectual education. . . .

This is the point where Polybius, after his seventeen years' experience of Roman life, finds the capital flaw in the conduct of public affairs. In every Hellenistic state, he says, nothing engrosses the attention of legislators more than the question of education, whereas at Rome a most mural and serious government leaves the training of the young to the mistakes and hazards of private enterprise. That this was a grave blunder as regards the lower classes is probably true. . . . But when Rome grew from a city controlling Italy to an empire directing the world, such men as Æmilius Paullus saw plainly that they must do something more to fit their children for the splendid position they had themselves attained, and so they were obliged to keep foreign teachers of literature and art in their houses as private tutors. The highest class of these private tutors was that of the philosophers, whom we have considered, and while the State set itself against their public establishments, great men in the State openly encouraged them and kept them in their houses. . . . As regards literature, however, in the close of the second century B.C. a change was visible, which announced the new and marvellous results of the first. . . . Even in letters Roman culture began to take its place beside Greek, and the whole civilised world was divided into those who knew Greek letters and those who knew Roman only. There was no antagonism in spirit between them, for the Romans never ceased to venerate Greek letters or to prize a knowledge of that language. But of course there were great domains in the West beyond the influence of the most western Greeks, even of Massilia, where the first higher civilisation introduced was with the Roman legions and traders, and where culture assumed permanently a Latin form. In the East, though the Romans asserted themselves as conquerors, they always condescended to use Greek, and there were prætors proud to give their decisions at Roman assize courts in that language."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Greek world under Roman sway*, ch. 5.—See also EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Origins.

Hellenism and Alexandria.—Architecture.—"Let us now turn to art, and ask what was the influence of Hellenism upon the nations which it drew within its mighty influence. Of the recognised fine arts the two most subtle and subjective are lost to us—music and painting. The hand of time has been against us, and we have only stray fragments which give us not even adequate suggestions. The case is far simpler with architecture. We may say broadly that the Corinthian style is exclusively Hellenistic and Roman. All the great remains in that style, from the splendours of the Olympian temple at Athens to the colonnades at Palmyra—all are essentially the product of Hellenism. Nay more, the restorations of old buildings in that age are so artistic that in many cases—as, for example, at the temple of Eleusis—we are still in doubt whether the work is archaistic or archaic; whether it be the original execution of Mnesicles, the contemporary of Pericles, or a far later Hellenistic, nay possibly Roman-Greek restoration. . . . Recent discoveries have shed new light on the achievements of Hellenism in pure science and in practical business. The longer we study the mathematical books of the Greeks, most of them dating from this epoch, the more we are persuaded that they knew vastly more than we learn from their explicit statements. It was only of late years that Mr. Penrose discovered the delicate and complicated system of curves applied to the build-

ing of the Parthenon, which does not contain in its plan a single straight line. There must have been large mathematical knowledge in the mind of this Hellenic Wren; we know from the fragments of Pythagorean lore that the science of numbers occupied the deepest attention of that early sect. . . . The papyri deal in very large and complicated computations which range from the use of millions down to series of minute fractions, and though they do make mistakes, their counting is as accurate as average work of the present day."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, pp. 110-119.—See also EGYPT: B.C. 323-30.

**Science and invention.**—"The keen and wide-awake intelligence of this wonderful age was everywhere evident, but especially in the application of science to the work and needs of daily life. It was an age of inventions, like our own. An up-to-date man would install an automatic door opener for the doorkeeper of his house, and a washing machine which delivered water and mineral soap as needed. On his estate olive oil was produced by a press operating with screw pressure. Outside the temples the priests set up automatic dispensers of holy water, while a water sprinkler operating by water pressure reduced the danger of fire. The application of levers, cranks, screws, and cogwheels to daily work brought forth cable roads for use in lowering stone from lofty quarries, or water wheels for drawing water on a large scale. A similar endless-chain apparatus was used for quickly raising heavy stone missiles to be discharged from huge missile-hurling war machines, some of which even operated by air pressure. As we go to see the 'movies,' so the people crowded to the market place to view the automatic theater, in which a clever mechanic presented an old Greek tragedy of the Trojan War in five scenes, displaying ship-building, the launch of the fleet, the voyage, with the dolphins playing in the water about the vessels, and finally a storm at sea, with thunder and lightning, amid which the Greek heroes promptly went to the bottom. Housekeepers told stories of the simpler days of their grandmothers, when there was no running water in the house and they actually had to go out and fetch it a long way from the nearest spring. A public clock, either a shadow clock, such as the Egyptian had had in his house for over a thousand years, or a water clock of Greek invention, stood in the market place and furnished all the good townspeople with the hour of the day. [See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Measurements.] The Ptolemies or the priests under them attempted to improve the calendar by the insertion every fourth year of a leap year with an additional day, but the people could not be roused out of the rut into which usage had fallen, and everywhere they continued to use the inconvenient moon month of the Greeks. There was no system for the numbering of the years anywhere except in Syria, where the Seleucids gave each year a number reckoned from the beginning of their sway.

"The most remarkable man of science of the time was probably Archimedes. He lived in Syracuse, and one of his famous feats was the arrangement of a series of pulleys and levers, which so multiplied power that the king was able by turning a light crank to move a large three-masted ship standing fully loaded on the dock, and to launch it into the water. After witnessing such feats as this the people easily believed his proud boast, 'Give me a place to stand on and I will move the earth.' He de-

vised such powerful and dangerous war machines that he greatly aided in defending his native city from capture by the Romans. But Archimedes was far more than an inventor of practical appliances. He was a scientific investigator of the first rank. He was able to prove to the king that one of the monarch's gold crowns was not of pure metal, because he had discovered the principle of determining the proportion of loss of weight when an object is immersed in water. He was thus the discoverer of what science now calls specific gravity. Besides his skill in physics he was also the greatest of ancient mathematicians. Archimedes was in close correspondence with his friends in Alexandria, who formed the greatest body of scientists in the ancient world. They lived together at the Museum, where they were paid salaries and supported by the Ptolemies. They formed the first scientific institution founded and supported by a government. Without financial anxieties they could devote themselves to research, for which the halls, laboratories, and library of the institution were equipped. Thus the scientists of the Hellenistic Age, especially this remarkable group at Alexandria, became the founders of systematic scientific research, and their books formed the sum or body of scientific knowledge for nearly two thousand years, until the revival of science in modern times. The very first generation of scientists at the Alexandrian Museum boasted a great name in mathematics which is still famous among us—that of Euclid. His complete system of geometry was so logically built up, that in modern England Euclid's geometry is still used as a schoolbook—the oldest schoolbook in use to-day. . . . Along with mathematics much progress was also made in astronomy. The Ptolemies built an astronomical observatory at Alexandria, and although it was, of course, without telescopes, important observations and discoveries were made. An astronomer of little fame named Aristarchus, who lived on the island of Samos, made the greatest of the discoveries of this age. He demonstrated that the earth and the planets revolve around the sun. Almost no one adopted his conclusion, however, and both the Hellenistic Greeks and all ancient scientists of later days wrongly believed that the earth was the center around which the sun and the planets revolved. One Hellenistic astronomer at the cost of immense labor, made a catalogue of eight or nine hundred fixed stars, to serve as a basis for determining any future changes that might take place in the skies. Astronomy had now greatly aided in the progress of geography. Eratosthenes, a great mathematical astronomer of Alexandria, very cleverly computed the size of the earth by observing that when the summer sun, shifting steadily northward, reached its farthest north, it shone at noonday straight down to the bottom of a well at the First Cataract of the Nile. To this notion of the size of the earth, much information had been added regarding the extent and the character of the inhabited regions reached by navigation and exploration in this age. At home, in Greece, one geographer undertook to measure the heights of the mountains, though he was without a barometer. The campaigns of Alexander in the Far East had greatly extended the limits where the known world ended. Bold Alexandrian merchants had sailed to India and around its southern tip to Ceylon and the eastern coast of India, where they heard fabulous tales of the Chinese coast beyond. In the Far West as early as 500 B.C. Phœnician navigators had passed Gibraltar, and turning southward had

probably reached the coast of Guinea, whence they brought back marvelous stories of the hairy men whom the interpreters called 'Gorillas.' A trained astronomer of Marseilles named Pytheas fitted out a ship at his own expense and coasted northward from Gibraltar. He discovered the triangular shape of the island of Britannia, and penetrating far into the North Sea he was the first civilized man to hear tales of the frozen sea beyond and the mysterious island of Thule (Iceland) on its margin. He discovered the influence of the full moon on the immense spring tides, and he brought back reports of such surprising things that he was generally regarded as a sensational fable-monger. With a greater mass of facts and reports than anyone before him had ever had, Eratosthenes was able to write a very full geography. His map of the known world including Europe, Asia, and Africa, not only showed the regions grouped about the Mediterranean with fair correctness, but he was the first geographer who was able to lay out on his map a cross-net of lines indicating latitude and longitude. He thus became the founder of scientific geography."—J. H. Breasted, *Ancient times*, pp. 466-471.—See also EUROPE: Ancient: Greek civilization; SCIENCE: Ancient.

Position of women. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 600-300.

Place in modern life.—Personal religion. See RELIGION: Course of development, etc.; B.C. 600-A.D. 30: Value of Greek religion.

HELLENISTS. See CHRISTIANITY: A.D. 33-70.

HELLESPONT, ancient Greek name of what is now called the straits of the Dardanelles (q.v.), the channel which unites the Sea of Marmora with the Ægean. The name (Sea of Helle) came from the myth of Helle, who was said to have been drowned in these waters.

B.C. 479.—Control by Athens. See GREECE: B.C. 479: Persian wars: Mycale.

HELLESPONTINE SIBYL. See SIBYLS.

HELLULAND, probably Labrador, explored by Leif Ericson. See AMERICA: 10th-11th centuries.

HELMET: Use in modern warfare. See POISON GAS: First employment; TRENCH WARFARE: Defensive weapons.

HELMHOLTZ, Herman Ludwig Ferdinand von (1821-1894), German scientist and philosopher. Professor of physiology, successively at Königsberg, 1849-1855, Bonn, 1855-1858, and Heidelberg, 1858-1871; published his monograph "Sensations of tone," 1863; appointed professor of physics, University of Berlin, 1871; became director Physikalisches technisches Reichsanstalt, Charlottenberg, 1887; selected as honorary president, International Congress of Electricians, 1893. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Revolutionary experiments, etc.

HELMONT, Jan Baptista Van (c. 1577-1644), Belgian chemist and physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 16th-17th centuries.

HELOISE, French abbess, famous for her relations with Abelard. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 11th-12th centuries.

HELOTS, Spartan bondmen or serfs. See SERFDOM: Heroic Age; SPARTA: Military organization; GREECE: B.C. 477-461; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750.

HELVECONES, ancient tribe. See LYGIANS.

HELVETIAN REPUBLIC.—Switzerland is sometimes called the Helvetic republic, for no better reason than is found in the fact that

the country occupied by the Helvetii of Cæsar is embraced in the modern Swiss confederacy. But the original confederation, out of which grew the federal republic of Switzerland, did not touch Helvetic ground.—See also SWITZERLAND: Three Forest Cantons; also 1332-1460.

HELVETIC REPUBLIC OF 1798. See SWITZERLAND: 1792-1798.

HELVETII: Arrested migration.—"The Helvetii, who inhabited a great part of modern Switzerland, had grown impatient of the narrow limits in which they were crowded together, and harassed at the same time by the encroachments of the advancing German tide. The Alps and Jura formed barriers to their diffusion on the south and west, and the population thus confined outgrew the scanty means of support afforded by its mountain valleys. . . . The Helvetii determined to force their way through the country of the Allobroges, and to trust either to arms or persuasion to obtain a passage through the [Roman] province and across the Rhone into the centre of Gaul. . . . Having completed their preparations, [they] appointed the 28th day of March [58 B.C.] for the meeting of their combined forces at the western outlet of the Lake Lemanus. The whole population of the assembled tribes amounted to 368,000 souls, including the women and children; the number that bore arms was 92,000. They cut themselves off from the means of retreat by giving ruthlessly to the flames every city and village of their land; twelve of one class and four hundred of the other were thus sacrificed, and with them all their superfluous stores, their furniture, arms and implements." When the news of this portentous movement reached Rome, Cæsar, then lately appointed to the government of the two Gauls, was raising levies, but had no force ready for the field. He flew to the scene in person, making the journey from Rome to Geneva in eight days. At Geneva, the frontier town of the conquered Allobroges, the Romans had a garrison, and Cæsar quickly gathered to that point the one legion stationed in the province. Breaking down the bridge which had spanned the river and constructing with characteristic energy a ditch and rampart from the outlet of the lake to the gorge of the Jura, he held the passage of the river with his single legion and forced the migratory horde to move off by the difficult route down the right bank of the Rhone. This accomplished, Cæsar hastened back to Italy, got five legions together, led them over the Cottian Alps, crossed the Rhone above Lyons, and caught up with the Helvetii before the last of their cumbersome train had got beyond the Saone. Attacking and cutting to pieces this rear-guard (it was the tribe of the Tigurini, which the Romans had encountered disastrously half a century before), he bridged the Saone and crossed it to pursue the main body of the enemy. For many days he followed them, refusing to give battle to the great barbarian army until he saw the moment opportune. His blow was struck at last in the neighborhood of the city of Bibracte, the capital of the Ædui—modern Autun. The defeat of the Helvetii was complete, and, although a great body of them escaped, they were set upon by the Gauls of the country and were soon glad to surrender themselves unconditionally to the Roman proconsul. Cæsar compelled them—110,000 survivors, of the 368,000 who left Switzerland in the spring—to go back to their mountains and rebuild and re-occupy the homes they had destroyed.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, v. 1, ch. 6

See also BOIANS; GAUL: People; B.C. 58-51; SWITZERLAND: Celtic inhabitants.

ALSO IN: CÆsar, *Galic wars*, ch. 1-29.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 1.—Napoleon III, *History of Julius Cæsar*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 3.

**HELVII**, tribe of Gauls whose country was between the Rhone and the Cevennes, in the modern department of the Ardèche.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 17.

**HEMS**, Battle of (1290). See CRUSADES: 1290.

**HENDERSON**, Arthur (1863- ), British labor leader and member of Parliament. See LABOR PARTIES: 1868-1919; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1915; South Wales coal strike.

**HENDERSON**, Richard (1734-1785), American pioneer. See KENTUCKY: 1765-1778; TENNESSEE: 1779-1780.

**HENDRICKS**, Thomas Andrews (1819-1885), vice president of the United States. Governor of Indiana, 1873-1877; United States senator, 1863-1869; Democratic candidate for presidential nomination, 1868; for vice president, 1876; vice president, 1884-1885. See U.S.A.: 1876-1877; 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election.

**HENEQUIN**, or Sisal, plant of Central America resembling hemp. See YUCATAN: 1911-1918.

**HENEY**, Francis Joseph (1859- ), American lawyer. See FOOD REGULATION: 1921-1922; SAN FRANCISCO: 1901-1909; Struggle with political corruption.

**HENEY-WEBB LAW** (1913). See CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921.

**HENGESTEDUN**, Battle of (835), defeat of the Danes and Welsh by Ecgbert, the West Saxon king.

**HENKSTON'S FORT**, Battle of (1782). See KENTUCKY: 1775-1784.

**HENLE**, Friedrich Gustav Jakob (1809-1885), German pathologist and anatomist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Development of bacteriology; Revolutionary experiments, etc.

**HENNERSDORF**, Battle of (1745). See AUSTRIA: 1744-1745.

**HENOTICON**, or Edict of union of Zeno. See NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY.

**HENRICIANS**. See PETROBRUSIANS.

**HENRICO PLAN IN EDUCATION**. See JEANES FOUNDATION.

**HENRY I**, the Fowler (c. 876-936), Holy Roman emperor, 918-936, a title he did not claim; king of Germany, 919-936; and duke of Saxony, 912-936. He achieved control of Lorraine, 925; defeated the Hungarians, 933; defeated the Danes, 934. He was noted for fortifying and strengthening German cities, and for reorganizing the army. See GERMANY: 911-936; BRANDENBURG: 928-1142; HUNGARY: 934-955.

**Henry II** (973-1024), Holy Roman emperor and king of Germany, 1002-1024; king of Italy, 1004-1024. He defeated his greatest enemy, Boleslas Chrobry of Poland, 1005; overcame rebellions in Flanders and Meissen, 1005-1013; displaced usurper Arduin from Italian throne, 1013. See GERMANY: 973-1056.

**Henry III**, the Black (1017-1056), Holy Roman emperor, 1039-1056; king of Germany, Burgundy, and duke of Bavaria, and Swabia. Led an expedition to Italy to settle rival claims for papacy, 1046; overcome revolts in his kingdom, 1046-1056. See GERMANY: 973-1056; PAPACY: 887-1046.

**Henry IV**, of Franconia (1050-1106), Holy Roman emperor, 1056-1106; king of Germany, Italy and Burgundy. Agnes of Poitou, his mother, ruled during his infancy, when the empire lost

Swabia, Bavaria, and Carinthia. Victorious over Saxons, 1075; excommunicated by Pope Gregory VII for resisting the new law of lay investiture and then deposing the pope, 1076; humiliated himself at Canossa before Gregory and was absolved, 1077; excommunicated again, 1080; captured Rome and installed Clement III as antipope, but was driven out by Robert Guiscard, 1084; contended with his rival claimants in Germany, 1085-1088; excommunicated by Pope Paschal II, 1101; forced to abdicate, 1105. See GERMANY: 1056-1122; CANOSSA; PAPACY: 1056-1122; ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084; SAXONY: 1073-1075.

**Henry V** (1081-1125), Holy Roman emperor, 1106-1125. Second son of Henry IV, whom he succeeded. Invaded Italy, 1110, and agreed with the pope to renounce rights of investiture in exchange for church yielding feudal privileges; Pope Paschal II renounced this agreement and excommunicated him; invaded Italy again, 1116, and drove out the pope; concluded Concordat of Worms, 1122. See GERMANY: 1056-1122.

**Henry VI** (1165-1197), Holy Roman emperor and king of Germany, 1190-1197; king of Sicily, 1194-1197. Son of Frederick Barbarossa, whom he succeeded; led expedition to Sicily to attempt the rescue of his inheritance, 1191; subdued the two Sicilies, 1194, 1197. See GERMANY: 1138-1197; ITALY: 1183-1250.

**Henry VII**, of Luxemburg, (c. 1269-1313), Holy Roman emperor and king of Germany, 1308-1313. Gained control of Bohemia, 1310; crowned emperor, 1312. See GERMANY: 1308-1313; AUSTRIA: 1291-1349; ITALY: 1310-1313: Visitation of the emperor.

**Henry** (c. 1174-1216), emperor of Romania, or Constantinople, 1205-1216.

**Henry II**, king of Austria. See AUSTRIA: 805-1246.

**Henry I** (c. 1207-1217), king of Castile, 1214-1217.

**Henry II**, of Trastamara (1333-1379), king of Castile, 1369-1379. See SPAIN: 1366-1369.

**Henry III** (1379-1406), king of Castile and Leon, 1390-1406.

**Henry IV** (1425-1474), king of Castile and Leon, 1454-1474.

**Henry I**, Beauclerc (1068-1135), king of England, 1100-1135. Fourth son of William the Conqueror. Elected by the witan during the absence of his brother Robert on a crusade; restored laws of Edward the Confessor, suppressed the great feudatories; conquered Normandy, 1106. See ENGLAND: 1087-1135; 1100-1135.

**Henry II**, Plantagenet (1133-1189), king of England, 1154-1189. Succeeded Stephen of Blois. His other possessions were Normandy, Brittany, Anjou and Maine from his mother, and Poitou, Guienne and Gascony, by marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine. Compelled Malcolm of Scotland to do homage and restore certain English counties, 1157; reduced Wales, 1158-1165, and southern Ireland, 1171. Consolidated and centralized royal authority by military, monetary and judicial reforms. Reforms related to church were opposed by Thomas Becket, archbishop of Canterbury. See ENGLAND: 1154-1189; 1170-1189; 1162-1170; COMMON LAW: 1154-1189; FRANCE: 1108-1180; IRELAND: 1160-1200; ULSTER: 1171-1186.

**Henry III**, of Winchester (1207-1272), king of England, 1216-1272. William Marshall was regent during his childhood. Henry's right to the throne was disputed by Louis of France who was defeated in 1217; a rising of the barons occurred in 1258, and he was forced to accept the Provisions of Oxford; battle of Lewes, 1264, where he

was defeated by the barons and taken prisoner; rescued by his son Edward, 1265. See ENGLAND: 1216-1272; OXFORD, PROVISIONS OF; WESTMINSTER ABBEY; IRELAND: 13th-14th centuries.

**Henry IV, of Lancaster** (1367-1413), king of England, 1399-1413, son of John of Gaunt. Banished by Richard II, 1398; succeeded father as duke of Lancaster, and captured and imprisoned Richard, 1399; put down rising under Harry Percy (Hotspur), 1403. See ENGLAND: 1399-1471.

**Henry V, of Monmouth** (1387-1422), king of England, 1413-1422, son of Henry IV. Invaded France, 1415, and won the battle of Agincourt; concluded Peace of Troyes, 1420. See ENGLAND: 1413-1422; FRANCE: 1415; 1417-1422; IRELAND: 1413-1467.

**Henry VI, of Windsor** (1421-1471), king of England, 1422-1461, son of Henry V. His uncles, John, duke of Bedford, and Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, reigned during his childhood; crowned king of France, 1451; lost all French possessions but Calais, 1453; temporarily insane, 1453-1454; Wars of Roses, 1455-1461; deposed, 1461; temporarily restored, 1470. See ENGLAND: 1455.

**Henry VII, Tudor** (1457-1509), king of England, 1485-1509. Exile in France, 1471-1485; victory of Bosworth Field over Richard III and crowned king, 1485; defeated the imposter Lambert Simnel, 1487; executed Perkin Warbeck, the pretender, 1499. See ENGLAND: 1485; 1485-1509; 1485-1603; IRELAND: 1485-1509.

**Henry VIII** (1491-1547), king of England, 1509-1547, son of Henry VII. Joined Holy League against France, 1511; war in France, victory at battle of Spurs, 1513; Cardinal Wolsey made lord chancellor, 1515; met Francis I of France, at Field of Cloth of Gold, 1520; wrote article opposing Luther for which the pope praised him, 1521; alliance with France against Charles V, 1525; instituted divorce proceedings against Catherine of Aragon, 1527, and caused final break with Rome; passed Act of Supremacy, 1534; suppressed the monasteries, 1536-1539. He married six times. See ENGLAND: 1513-1529; 1527-1534; 1529-1535; 1531-1563; 1535-1539; 1536-1543; CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1534-1563; FRANCE: 1513-1515; IRELAND: 1520-1540; 1535-1553; 1541-1555; ITALY: 1527-1529; SCOTLAND: 1542; SUPREMACY, ACT OF.

**Henry I** (1008-1060), king of France, 1031-1060.

**Henry II** (1109-1159), king of France, 1147-1159, son of Francis I. Conquered bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun from Germany, 1152; captured Calais and Guines, last English possessions in France, 1158. See FRANCE: 1147-1159; IRELAND: 1140-1170.

**Henry III, of Valois** (1151-1180), king of France, 1154-1180, and of Poland, 1173-1174. Defeated Huguenots, 1169; elected king of Poland, 1173; became king of France, 1174; Holy league of Catholics formed against him, 1176; death of his brother caused succession to throne to be questioned, 1184; renewal of war with Huguenots under Henry of Navarre, and his victory at Coutras, 1187; assassinated by Dominican friar. He was the last of the House of Valois. See FRANCE: 1178-1180; 1184-1189; POLAND: 1173; 1174-1190.

**Henry IV, the Great** (1553-1610), king of France, 1589-1610, and of Navarre and Bearn. First of Bourbon kings. Head of Huguenot party, 1569; succeeded to throne of Navarre, 1572; heir presumptive to throne of France, 1584, which caused outbreak of war; defeat of Holy League, 1590; joined Catholic church, 1593; crowned

king, 1594; published Edict of Nantes, and ended wars of the Huguenots, 1598; assassinated, 1610. See FRANCE: 1589-1590; 1591-1593; 1590-1610; CANADA: 1608-1611; GERMANY: 1608-1618; NAVARRE: 1528-1563.

**Henry I** (c. 1210-1274), king of Navarre, 1270-1274.

**Henry I** (1512-1580), king of Portugal, 1578-1580.

**Henry, the Navigator** (1394-1460), prince of Portugal. Encouraged science and exploration; discovered Madeira, 1420, the Azores, 1433; explored coast of Africa, 1441-1460; rounded Cape Verde, 1445. See PORTUGAL: 1415-1460; ABYSSINIA: 15th-19th centuries; COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries; Leadership of the Portuguese.

**Henry (Friedrich Heinrich Ludwig)** (1726-1802), prince of Prussia. Served as a general in Seven Years' War, 1758-1762. See GERMANY: 1758; 1761-1762.

**Henry** (1862- ), prince of Prussia. Visited United States in 1902. See U.S.A.: 1902 (February-March).

**Henry** (1876- ), duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Married to Queen Wilhelmina of Holland, 1901. See NETHERLANDS: 1808-1903.

**Henry, the Proud** (c. 1108-1130), duke of Saxony and Bavaria, 1126-1130. Took part in warfare of Hohenstaufen brothers struggle in Germany, 1127; put down rising in Bavaria, 1133; invaded Italy, 1136; succeeded to dukedom of Saxony, 1137. See AUSTRIA: 805-1246; GUELF.

**Henry, the Lion** (1120-1195), duke of Saxony and Bavaria, 1142-1195. War against Abotrites and extended dukedom, 1147; succeeded in reclaiming Bavaria, 1156; control of Lubeck, 1158; aid to Frederick I against Poles and Italians, 1158-1159; coalition formed against him, led by Albert the Bear of Brandenburg, 1166-1168; rupture of friendship with Frederick, 1175-1176; defeated by Frederick, 1181; temporary exile in England, 1189; peace of Fulda, 1190; unsuccessful revolt, 1193. See AUSTRIA: 805-1246; ITALY: 1174-1183; SAXONY: 1178-1183.

**Henry** (d. 1114), count of Burgundy and ruler of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: 1095-1325.

**Henry** (d. 1197), count of Champagne, and ruler of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 1187-1229.

**HENRY, Guy V.** (1839-1890), American general. See PORTO RICO: 1898-1899 (October-November).

**HENRY, John** (fl. 1793), Irish adventurer. See U. S. A.: 1810-1812.

**HENRY, Joseph** (1799-1878), American physicist, and experimenter in telegraphy. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

**HENRY, Patrick** (1736-1799), American orator and statesman. Studied law and granted a license, 1760; won fame in the defense of the "Parson's Cause," 1763; elected member of the House of Burgesses, Virginia, 1765-1775; author of the "Virginia Resolutions," 1765; chosen delegate to the Continental Congress, and served on three of its most important committees, 1774-1775; presented resolutions for arming the Virginia militia and supported them with his famous speech, 1775; governor of Virginia, 1776-1778; 1784-1786; member of state legislature, 1780-1784; 1787-1790; attended constitutional convention at Philadelphia, 1787.

**Parson's Cause.** See VIRGINIA: 1763.

**American Revolution.** See U. S. A.: 1765: Reception of the news of the Stamp Act, 1774 (Sep-

tember); 1775 (April-June); 1778-1779: Clarke's conquest; VIRGINIA: 1776.

Opposition to Federal constitution. See U. S. A.: 1787-1789; Virginia: 1788.

HENRY, William (1729-1786), American inventor. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

HENRY, Fort: Captured by Grant. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-February; Kentucky-Tennessee).

HENRY OF CARINTHIA (d. 1335), king of Bohemia, 1307-1310.

HENRY OF FRANCONIA. See HENRY IV, Holy Roman emperor.

HENRY OF LUXEMBURG. See HENRY VII, OF LUXEMBURG, Holy Roman emperor.

HENRY OF NAVARRE. See HENRY IV, THE GREAT, king of France.

HENRY OF TRASTAMARA. See HENRY II, OF TRASTAMARA, king of Castile.

HENRY OF VALOIS. See HENRY III, OF FRANCE.

HENRY RASPE, rival of Frederic II, Holy Roman emperor, 1246.

HENRYS, War of the Three. See FRANCE: 1584-1589.

HENSON, William Samuel, English inventor. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes, etc.: 1800-1874.

HEPBURN VS. GRISWOLD (1867-1870). See SUPREME COURT: 1867-1884.

HEPBURN ACT (1906): Strengthens Interstate Commerce Act. See RAILROADS: 1887-1906.

Commodity clause. See COMMODITY CLAUSE OF THE HEPBURN ACT; RAILROADS: 1908-1909.

HEPHÆSTION, Alexandrian grammarian of the age of the Antonines. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 3rd-A.D. 3rd centuries.

HEPTANOMIS, northern district of upper Egypt, embracing seven provinces, or nomes; whence its name.

HEPTARCHY, so-called Saxon, period of English history between the coming of the Anglo-Saxons in 449, and the union of the kingdoms under Ecgbert in 828. See ENGLAND: 7th century.

HERA, Greek goddess. See ARGOS, ACROPOLIS OF.

HERACLEA, town in southwestern Anatolia. Subject of negotiations between Turkey and Italy. See TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

HERACLEA, ancient town in Lucania, Italy, near the gulf of Tarentum.

Battle of (280 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B.C. 281-272.

HERACLEA LYNCESTIS, ancient Greek city. See MONASTIR.

HERACLEA PONTICA: Siege of.—Heraclea, a flourishing town of Greek origin on the Phrygian coast, called Heraclea Pontica to distinguish it from other towns of like name, was besieged for some two years by the Romans in the Third Mithradatic War. It was surrendered through treachery, 70 B.C., and suffered so greatly from the ensuing pillage and massacre that it never recovered. The Roman commander, Cotta, was afterwards prosecuted at Rome for appropriating the plunder of Heraclea, which included a famous statue of Hercules, with a golden club.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 3, ch. 5.

Battle of (313). See ROME: Empire: 305-323.

HERACLEIDÆ, or Herakleids.—Among the ancient Greeks the reputed descendants of the demi-god hero, Herakles, or Hercules, were very numerous. "Distinguished families are everywhere to be traced who bear his patronymic and glory in the belief that they are his descendants.

Among Achæans, Kadmeians, and Dorians, Hēraklēs is venerated: the latter especially treat him as their principal hero—the Patron Hero-God of the race: the Hērakleids form among all Dorians a privileged gens, in which at Sparta the special lineage of the two kings was included."

—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 1, pt. 1, ch. 4. —"The most important, and the most fertile in consequences, of all the migrations of Grecian races, and which continued even to the latest periods to exert its influence upon the Greek character, was the expedition of the Dorians into Peloponnesus. . . . The traditionary name of this expedition is 'the Return of the Descendants of Hercules' [or 'the Return of the Heraclidæ']. Hercules, the son of Zeus, is (even in the Iliad), both by birth and destiny, the hereditary prince of Tiryns and Mycenæ, and ruler of the surrounding nations. But through some evil chance Eurystheus obtained the precedence and the son of Zeus was compelled to serve him. Nevertheless he is represented as having bequeathed to his descendants his claims to the dominion of Peloponnesus, which they afterwards made good in conjunction with the Dorians; Hercules having also performed such actions in behalf of this race that his descendants were always entitled to the possession of one-third of the territory. The heroic life of Hercules was therefore the mythical title, through which the Dorians were made to appear, not as unjustly invading, but merely as reconquering, a country which had belonged to their princes in former times."—C. O. Müller, *History and antiquity of the Doric race*, bk. 1, ch. 3.—See also DORIANS AND IONIANS.

HERACLEIDÆ OF LYDIA, second dynasty of the kings of Lydia—so-called by the Greeks as reputed descendants of the sun-god. The dynasty is represented as ending with Candaules. —M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 4, ch. 17.—See also LYDIANS.

HERACLEONAS (born c. 614), Roman emperor (Eastern), 641.

HERACLEOPOLIS, Grecian name of an ancient Egyptian city. See HANES.

HERACLES, or Hercules, Greek legendary hero. See HERACLEIDÆ.

HERACLIUS I (c. 575-642), Roman emperor in the East, 610-641. See MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY; JERUSALEM: 628-637; JEWS: Spain: 7th century; ROME: Medieval city: 565-628; PERSIA: 226-627.

HERALD, The New York, a morning journal. Founded in 1835 by James Gordon Bennett, who died in 1872. His son, also James Gordon Bennett, continued the publication until his death in 1918. During their ownership the *Herald* was famous for its news and for spectacular undertakings, such as sending Stanley to Africa. In 1920 it became the property of Frank A. Munsey, and was merged with the *Sun*.

HERAT, city of Afghanistan, capital of the province of the same name. It was formerly regarded as the key to India. In 1922 the population was about 20,000.

B.C. 330.—Founding of the city. See MACEDONIA: B.C. 330-323.

1221.—Destruction by the Mongols. See KHORASSAN: 1220-1221.

1837.—Siege. See INDIA: 1836-1845.

1857.—Persian claims renounced. See AFGHANISTAN: 1842-1869.

See also COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.

HERAULT DE SEHELLES, Marie Jean (1759-1794), French revolutionist. Appointed

judge of the court of the first arrondissement in the department of Paris, 1789; elected to the Legislative Assembly, 1791; supported Danton in the revolution of August and September, 1792; appointed president of the Legislative Assembly, September, 1792; was author of the constitution drawn up, 1793; employed on a military mission in Alsace, October-December, 1793; guillotined as a Dantonist, 1794.

**HERBART, Johann Friedrich** (1776-1841), German philosopher and educator. "An independent critical thinker who opposes the entire idealistic movement, as it had developed in Germany after Kant. . . . Herbart opposes the rationalistic method, apriorism, monism, pantheism, subjective idealism, and free will, and substitutes for these doctrines empiricism, pluralism, realism, and determinism. . . . [He] exercised his greatest influence through his theory of education. Pedagogy he regarded as applied psychology, and its ends as determined by ethics. His mechanical conception of mental life as the result of the interplay of ideas accounts for the emphasis he places on instruction, the importance of interest, and the value of apperception."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 478, 479, 484-485.—Among the works of Herbart are: "Einleitung in die Philosophie"; "Psychologie als Wissenschaft"; "Allgemeine pädagogik"; "Allgemeine Metaphysik." See **EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Herbart, etc.**; **MUSIC: Modern: 1800-1908.**

**HERBERT I**, Count of Vermandois (d. 902). See **CHAMPAGNE**.

**HERBERT, Arthur**. See **TORRINGTON, ARTHUR**.

**HERBERT, EARL OF**.

**HERBERT, Victor** (1859- ), Irish-American composer and conductor. See **MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908.**

**HERBERT OF CHERBURY, Edward**, Baron (c. 1581-1648), English diplomat, soldier, and religious philosopher. See **DEISM: English deism.**

**HERBOIS, J. M. Collot d'**. See **COLLOT D' HERBOIS, JEAN MARIE**.

**HERBS, Medical: Ancient use**. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: Greece.**

**HERCTE, Mount, Sicily**. See **PUNIC WARS: First.**

**HERCULAINS AND JOVIANS**. See **PRÆTORIAN GUARDS: 312.**

**HERCULANEUM**, ancient city of Italy, five miles east of Naples, buried with Pompeii, in 79 A.D., by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius. See **POMPEII**; **LIBRARIES: Ancient: Herculaneum.**

**HERCULANO DE CARVALHO E ARANJO, Alexander** (1810-1877), Portuguese historian and poet. See **HISTORY: 29.**

**HERCULES, or Heracles**, Greek legendary hero. See **HERACLEIDEÆ**.

**HERCYNIAN FOREST**.—"The Hercynian Forest was known by report to Eratosthenes and some other Greeks, under the name Oreyntia. The width of this forest, as Caesar says (B. G. vi. 25), was nine days' journey to a man without any incumbrance. It commenced at the territory of the Helvetii [Switzerland] . . . and following the straight course of the Danube reached to the country of the Daci and the Anartes. Here it turned to the left in different directions from the river, and extended to the territory of many nations. No man of western Germany could affirm that he had reached the eastern termination of the forest even after a journey of six days, nor that he had heard where it did terminate. This is all that Caesar knew of this great forest. . . . The nine days' journey, which measures the width of

the Hercynian forest, is the width from south to north; and if we assume this width to be estimated at the western end of the Hercynia, which part would be the best known, it would correspond to the Schwarzwald and Odenwald, which extend on the east side of the Rhine from the neighbourhood of Bâle nearly as far north as Frankfort on the Main. The eastern parts of the forest would extend on the north side of the Danube along the Rauhe Alp and the Boehmerwald and still farther east. Caesar mentions another German forest named Bacenis (B. G. vi. 10), but all that he could say of it is this: it was a forest of boundless extent, and it separated the Suevi and the Cherusci; from which we may conclude that it is represented by the Thüringerwald, Erzgebirge, Riesengebirge, and the mountain ranges farther east, which separate the basin of the Danube from the basins of the Oder and the Vistula."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 2.

**HERDER, Johann Gottfried von** (1744-1803), German philosopher and critic. See **GERMAN LITERATURE: 1700-1832**; **HISTORY: 25**; **PHILOLOGY: 1.**

**HEREDIA, José de** (1842-1905), French poet. See **FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885.**

**HEREDITY**. See **EUGENICS: Evolution.**

**HEREENING CONGRESS, South Africa** (1920). See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.**

**HEREROS**, Bantu race in Southwest Africa. See **SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1905; 1919**; **PHILOLOGY: 24.**

**HERESIES**.—The following are some of the important heresies:

**Albigenses**. See **ALBIGENSES**.

**Anabaptists**. See **ANABAPTISTS**.

**Arians**. See **ARIANISM**.

**Bogomiles**. See **BOSNIA: 12th century.**

**Donatists**. See **DONATISTS**.

**Febronians**. See **FEBRONIUS**.

**Hussites**. See **BOHEMIA: 1405-1415; 1419-1434.**

**Jansenists**. See **PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS**.

**Lollards**. See **LOLLARDS; ENGLAND: 1360-1414.**

**Manicheans**. See **MANICHEANS**.

**Monophysites**. See **NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY**.

**Monothelites**. See **MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY**.

**Nestorians**. See **NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY**.

**Pelagians**. See **PELAGIANISM**.

**Priscillians**. See **PRISCILLIANISM**.

**Waldenses**. See **WALDENSES, OR VAUDOIS**.

See also **INQUISITION: 1203-1525; 1487-1567.**

**HERETOGA**, title of chiefs in early Britain. See **EALDORMAN**.

**HERIBANN**, name of a fine, in Gaul. See **SERFDOM: 5th-18th centuries.**

**HERKIMER, Nicholas** (c. 1715-1777), American soldier. See **U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October)**.

**HERLWIN, or Herlouin** (fl. 11th century), knight and founder of abbey of Bec. See **BEAC, ABBEY OF**.

**HERM ISLAND**. See **CHANNEL ISLANDS**.

**HERMÆAN PROMONTORY**, ancient name of the northeastern horn of the gulf of Tunis, now called Cape Bon. It was the limit fixed by the old treaties between Carthage and Rome, beyond which Roman ships must not go—R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 5.

**HERMANRIC**. See **ERMANARIC**.

**HERMANDAD**. See **HOLY BROTHERHOOD**.

**HERMANN, Binger** (1843- ), American lawyer. Involved in land frauds, 1903. See **U. S. A.: 1903-1906.**

**HERMANNSTADT**, town in Transylvania, Hungary, captured by the Rumanians in 1916 of

the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 6, 1.

**HERMANNSTADT**, or Schellenberg, Battle of (1442). See **RUMANIA**: 13th-18th centuries; **TURKEY**: 1402-1451.

**HERMES**, Greek god identified with the Roman god, Mercury. See **RELIGION**: B.C. 750-A.D. 30.

**HERMES TRISMEGISTUS**, later name for Hermes identified with the Egyptian god, Thoth. Reputed author of several magical and religious texts. See **SCIENCE**: Ancient: Arabian science.

**HERMETIC PHILOSOPHERS**, followers of Hermes. See **SCIENCE**: Ancient: Arabian science.

**HERMIES**, village in France, figured in the battle of Guise. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: II. Western front: c, 11.

**HERMINONES**, Teutonic tribe. See **GERMANY**: As known to Tacitus.

**HERMINSAULE**, Saxon idol. See **SAXONS**: 772-804.

**HERMITAGE**, Petrograd, Russia, museum erected by Catherine II in 1765, called at first the "Small Winter Palace," and connected with the Winter Palace by a flying bridge. The reconstruction and enlargement of the building was begun in 1840 under the direction of Nicholas I and completed in 1852. Among its principal collections are the Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities; Greek and Roman sculptures; the Kertch room, containing works of art; the picture gallery, containing numerous masterpieces of the best period of the various schools of art.

**HERMITS**. See **ANCHORITES**; **CHRISTIANITY**: 312-337.

**HERMOGENES** (fl. 161-180), Greek rhetorician. See **CODES**: 117-533.

**HERMON**, Mount, highest mountain in Syria, nearly 9,200 feet high. A number of ruins of temples built in ancient times, when the mountain was regarded as sacred, are found on its sides.

**HERMOTYBIES**, foot soldiers of ancient Egypt. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 2.

**HERMUNDURI**.—Among the German tribes of the time of Tacitus, "a people loyal to Rome. Consequently they, alone of the Germans, trade not merely on the banks of the river, but far inland, and in the most flourishing colony of the province of Rætia. Everywhere they are allowed to pass without a guard; and while to the other tribes we display only our arms and our camps, to them we have thrown open our houses and country-seats, which they do not covet."—Tacitus, *Minor works* (tr. by Church and Brodribb): *Germany*.—"The settlements of the Hermunduri must have been in Bavaria, and seem to have stretched from Ratisbon, northwards, as far as Bohemia and Saxony."—*Ibid.*, *Geographical notes*.

**HERNANDEZ**, General José Manuel (1853-1921), revolutionary leader of Venezuela, in the revolt against Crespo, 1898. See **VENEZUELA**: 1898-1900.

**HERNICANS**.—A Sabine tribe, who anciently occupied a valley in the Lower Apennines, between the Anio and the Tretus, and who were leagued with the Romans and the Latins against the Volscians and the Æquians.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 6.

**HERO FUNDS**. See **CARNEGIE HERO FUNDS**.

**HERO OF ALEXANDRIA** (fl. 150 B.C.), Greek mathematician and inventor. See **INVENTIONS**: Ancient and medieval: Wind instruments.

**HEROD I**, the Great (c. 73-4 B.C.), king of Judea, 40-4 B.C. See **JEWES**: B.C. 166-40; B.C. 40-A.D. 44.

**HEROD**, Temple of. See **TEMPLES**: Ancient examples.

**HEROD AGRIPPA**. See **AGRIPPA**, **HEROD**.

**HERODES ATTICUS**, Tiberius Claudius (c. 101-177 A.D.), Greek rhetorician, teacher and benefactor. See **GREECE**: B.C. 146-A.D. 180.

**HERODIANS**, ruling dynasty of Judea under Romans from 40 B.C. to the death of Herod Agrippa I, 44 A.D. Also a name given to a political party which supported the dynasty of Herod the Great. See **JEWES**: B.C. 40-A.D. 44.

**HERODOTUS** (c. 484-425 B.C.), Greek historian, called "The Father of History." See **HISTORY**: 16; **Babylonia**: Historical sources; **DANUBE**: B.C. 5th-A.D. 15th centuries.

**HEROIC AGE OF GREECE**. See **GREECE**: Heroes and their age.

**HEROPHILUS** (c. 335-280 B.C.), Alexandrian surgeon. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Ancient: B.C. 4th-A.D. 2nd centuries.

**HERRERA**, Carlos (c. 1865- ), Guatemalan statesman. Member of Pan-American financial congress, 1915; president of Guatemala, April, 1920, to December, 1921. See **GUATEMALA**: 1920; **CENTRAL AMERICA**: 1921 (December).

**HERRERA**, Francisco (surnamed el Viejo) (1576-1656), Spanish painter. Accused of coining base money, he took refuge in the Jesuit college of San Hermenegildo; pardoned by Philip IV, 1624; best work, easel-picture of "Last Judgment," and fresco in the dome of San Buenaventura in his native city of Seville.

**HERRERA**, José Joaquin de (1792-1854), Mexican general and statesman. Served as minister of war and president of the Supreme Court; president of Mexico, September-December, 1845, 1848-1851. See **MEXICO**: 1848.

**HERRERA**, Juan de (fl. 15th-16th centuries), Spanish architect. See **ARCHITECTURE**: Renaissance: Spain.

**HERRERA**, Rodolfo, Mexican revolutionary leader. See **MEXICO**: 1920 (May).

**HERRICK**, Myron Timothy (1854- ), American statesman. Governor of Ohio, 1903-1906; ambassador to France, 1912-1914, 1921.

**HERRING**, Augustus M., French inventor, pioneer in aeronautics. See **AVIATION**: Development of airplanes and air service: 1889-1900.

**HERRINGS**, Battle of the (1429).—In February, 1429, while the English still held their ground in France, and while the duke of Bedford was besieging Orleans [see **FRANCE**: 1429-1431], a large convoy of Lenten provisions, salted herring in the main, was sent away from Paris for the English army. It was under the escort of Sir John Fastolf, with 1,500 men. At Rouvray en Beausse the convoy was attacked by 5,000 French cavalry, including the best knights and warriors of the kingdom. The English entrenched themselves behind their wagons and repelled the attack, with great slaughter and humiliation of the French chivalry; but in the mêlée the red-herrings were scattered thickly over the field. This caused the encounter to be named the Battle of the Herrings.—C. M. Yonge, *Cameos from English history*, 2d series, cameo 35.

**HERRIOT**, Edouard (1872- ), mayor of Lyons, France. First to propose vocational training for disabled soldiers. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Reëducation.

**HERRNHUT**, village in Saxony, founded in 1722 by the Moravian or Bohemian Brethren. See **MORAVIAN**, OR **BOHEMIAN**, **BRETHREN**.

**HERSCHEL**, Sir William (1738-1822), English astronomer, of German birth. See **ASTRON-**



OMY: 1781-1846; INVENTIONS: 19th century: Instruments.

**HERTLING, George F., Count von** (1843-1919), German statesman. Appointed imperial chancellor, November 1, 1917; served until the capitulation of Bulgaria, September, 1918. See GERMANY: 1917 (November-December); WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: e; 1918: X. Statement of war aims: d; e; f.

**HERTZ, Heinrich** (1857-1894), German physicist. Experimented with and made some important discoveries regarding electro-magnetic waves. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless or radio: 1864-1903.

**HERTZOG, James Barry Munnik** (1866- ), Dutch South African statesman and general. With De Wet and other Boers, led a short-lived rebellion against British rule, 1914; recognized leader of the Nationalist party in the Union of South Africa, 1917-1921. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1910-1913; 1914; 1920-1921; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British Imperial defense conference; WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b, 1.

**HERULI.**—The Heruli were a people closely associated with the Goths in their history and undoubtedly akin to them in blood. The great piratical expedition of 267 from the Crimea, which struck Athens, was made up of Herules as well as Goths. The Heruli passed with the Goths under the yoke of the Huns. After the breaking up of the empire of Attila, they were found occupying the region of modern Hungary which is between the Carpathians, the upper Theiss, and the Danube. The Herules were numerous among the barbarian auxiliaries of the Roman army in the last days of the empire.—H. Bradley, *Story of the Goths.*—See also THURINGIA; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map; GOTHs: Origin.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders.*

**HERVE, town of Belgium**, situated about ten miles east of Liège. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 2.

**HERVEY ISLANDS.** See COOK, OR HERVEY, ISLANDS.

**HERZEGOVINA**, formerly in the extreme southern part of Austria-Hungary. Originally a Turkish possession, the administration of it was granted to Austria-Hungary in 1878 by the Congress of Berlin; annexed by Austria-Hungary in 1908 and administered with Bosnia as the province of Bosnia-Herzegovina; incorporated in the new kingdom of Jugo-Slavia, 1918. See BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA; BALKAN STATES: Geographical position; Map showing distribution of nationalities.

**HERZEN, or Hertzén, Alexander Ivanovitch** (1812-1870), Russian writer and political agitator, a precursor of Nihilism. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1836-1859; NIHILISM.

**HERZL, Theodor** (1860-1904), Hungarian author. Founder of political Zionism. See JEWS: Zionism: Definition.

**HERZOGENBUCHSEE, Battle of** (1653). See SWITZERLAND: 1562-1780.

**HESILRIGL, Heselrig, or Hazlerigg, Sir Arthur** (d. 1661), English statesman. Member of Cromwell's Parliament, and of the Long Parliament; impeached by King Charles, 1642. See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**HESIOD** (fl. 8th century B.C.), Greek poet. See GREEK LITERATURE: Period of the epic; HISTORY: 13.

**HESPERIAN, Canadian steamship**, torpedoed by the Germans off Fastnet, Ireland, September,

1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: XI. Politics and diplomacy: d.

**HESSE**, state of the German republic, formerly a grand-duchy and known as Hesse-Darmstadt until 1866. (See GERMANY: Map.) The line of Hesse-Darmstadt was founded by George I, the youngest son of Philip the Magnanimous. During the revolutionary year of 1848 many reforms were introduced. Hesse shared the fate of the rest of Europe in the period of repression that followed, which lasted until 1871. It played an important part in the Franco-Prussian War, and finally became a part of the German empire. Ernest Ludwig succeeded to the grand-ducal throne in 1914. Hesse was proclaimed a republic early in November, 1918.

1801.—Given control of Westphalia by Treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1812.—Extent of dominions. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1815.—Embraced in Germanic confederation. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1833.—Member of Prussian Zollverein. See TARIFF: 1833.

1862-1866.—Allied with Austria in war against Prussia.—Extinction of the electorate.—Absorption by Prussia. See GERMANY: 1861-1866; AUSTRIA: 1862-1866.

1870.—Treaty and union with Germanic confederation. See GERMANY: 1866-1870; 1870 (September-December).

**HESSE-CASSEL**, or Electoral Hesse, district of Cassel in Hesse-Nassau, formerly a landgraviate and electorate of Germany.

1803.—Gains by the Treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1806.—Occupied by the king of Holland.—Seized by the French. See GERMANY: 1806 (October); (October-December).

1807.—Included in the duchy of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1807 (June-July).

1815.—Embraced in Germanic confederation. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1833.—Member of the Zollverein. See TARIFF: 1833.

1850-1851.—Problem of government.—Quarrel between Austria and Prussia.—Humiliation of Olmütz. See GERMANY: 1850-1851.

1866.—Allied with Austria in struggle with Prussia.—Extinction of the electorate.—Absorption by Prussia. See GERMANY: 1861-1866; 1866.

**HESSIANS**, German soldiers from Hesse hired to reinforce British troops during the American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1776 (January-June): Engagement of hiring Hessians.

1871.—Embraced in new German empire. See GERMANY: 1871 (January).

1920.—Occupied by the French. See GERMANY: 1920 (March-April).

**HESTIASIS**, feasting of the tribes at Athens. See LITURGIES.

**HESYCHASTS**, or Quietists of Mt. Athos, religious fanatics of the 14th century. See MYSTICISM.

**HET VOLK**, Boer organization formed in 1905. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

**HETÆRIES, Ancient.**—Political clubs "which were habitual and notorious at Athens; associations, bound together by oath, among the wealthy citizens, partly for purposes of amusement, but chiefly pledging the members to stand by each other in objects of political ambition, in judicial trials, in accusation or defence of official men after the period of office had expired, in carrying points through the public assembly, &c. . . . They furnished, when taken together, a formidable anti-

popular force."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 7, pt. 2, ch. 62.

ALSO IN: G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 3, ch. 3.

**HETAIRIA**, Hetairists, Modern, Greek secret society formed in 1814 for the overthrow of Turkish rule in Greece. See GREECE: 1821-1829.

**HETCH HETCHY WATER DAM**.—The dam built in the Hetch Hetchy valley by the city of San Francisco, to create a reservoir for the city water supply, was the object of almost nation-wide opposition. National interest centered on the flooding of the floor of the beautiful valley, which is part of the Yosemite National Park, and the destruction of Lake Eleanor. This also was a ground of opposition in California. In addition the proposed monopolization, by the city, of water which could be made available for irrigation purposes, created a strong feeling of antagonism to the scheme. The question first came up about 1901 when the city engineer, after examination of various possible sources of water supply, reported in favor of the Hetch Hetchy and Tuolumne river supply, which was accordingly selected. The site of the projected reservoir was described by F. H. Clark, of San Francisco as "one of the most widely known regions of the high Sierras, second only to Yosemite in scenic interest. It is formed by a widening of the gorge of the Tuolumne River, about 30 miles westerly from the crest of the Sierras. It is thus described in the United States Geological Survey, 21st Annual Report. 'The valley proper is about three and one-half miles long and of a width varying from one-quarter to three-quarters of a mile. The rugged granite walls, crowned with spires and upon battlements, seem to rise almost perpendicular upon all sides to a height of 2500 feet above this beautiful emerald meadow. The Tuolumne River leaves this valley in a very narrow granite gorge, the sides of which rise precipitously for 800 or more feet, thus providing naturally a most favorable site for a masonry dam.' As the result of exhaustive investigations, in 1901, having reference to the procuring of an adequate water supply for the City of San Francisco, that city, through its proper officers, selected, surveyed, filed upon and made application for the reservoir rights of way in the Hetch Hetchy Valley and Lake Eleanor, which lie within the reservation known as Yosemite National Park. These reservoir sites were recognized and surveyed as such by the United States Geological Survey, in 1891, and the survey filings and application were made in conformity with the act of Congress of February 15, 1901, relating to rights of way through certain parks, reservations and other public lands. Lake Eleanor is situated 136 miles east of San Francisco on the west slope of the Sierra Nevada Mountains. It is about 300 acres in extent and lies in a broad, flat valley enclosed by precipitous walls of granite, narrowing at the lower end of the valley. It is 4,700 feet above sea level and receives the direct drainage from 83 square miles, and by a diverting canal 6 miles long from 103 square miles additional of uninhabitable mountain slopes which reach an altitude of 11,000 feet, and receive a mean annual precipitation of from 40 to 50 inches, most of which is snow. About a mile and a quarter below the lake, the valley closes into a granite walled gorge and offers an excellent site and material for a dam. . . . Hetch Hetchy reservoir [site] is about 140 miles from San Francisco on the main fork of the Tuolumne River and is about 3,700 feet above sea level. It receives the drainage from 452 square miles of the

uninhabitable slopes of the Sierra Nevada, reaching to elevations of over 13,000 feet. . . . The Hetch Hetchy project proposes to conduct the water liberated from these reservoirs by way of the gorge of the Tuolumne River 16 miles and thence by canals, tunnels and pipes." At the hearing before the Committee of Public Lands, in 1913, the city attorney stated that Hetch Hetchy Valley "was not in the national park until 1905, and even then not by express dedication. . . . As far back as 1870 the State geologist of California made a report to the State in which he suggested Hetch Hetchy Valley and Lake Eleanor as possible sources of water supply for domestic purposes for the city of San Francisco. . . . Application was made in 1903 to the Secretary of the Interior to grant to the city and county of San Francisco a revocable permit to build a dam to impound the waters of the Tuolumne River flowing through the Hetch Hetchy Valley and Lake Eleanor and to bring the same to San Francisco. That application was denied, Secretary Hitchcock basing his denial upon the ground that he was without power to grant it." He directed the city to buy out the Spring Valley Water Co. which was furnishing most of the city water. No agreement could be reached with the company, however. Negotiations resulted in bitter controversy, and the problem remained unsettled for years. The cities around San Francisco joined in asking for the relief, which would be afforded by the proposed reservoir, as the State law permitted the necessary organization of a metropolitan water district, and furthermore engineers reported to the department of the interior that in creating the new water system, the city agreed to supply water at cost to irrigationists, and electric energy at cost to landowners in the Turlock-Modesto district. The power potentiality of the stream was estimated at 115,000 horsepower in its ultimate development. It was proposed to develop this energy in 10,000 horsepower units, and use the power for public purposes in San Francisco and adjoining cities. "On May 11, 1908, the Secretary of the Interior, the Hon. James R. Garfield, authorized the city of San Francisco to use the Hetch Hetchy Valley of the Tuolumne River as a reservoir site in connection with other works on branches of this river. . . . In that grant, briefly, Secretary Garfield gave to the city of San Francisco a permit to store the waters of Lake Eleanor and what is known as Cherry Creek, which is outside the reservation, develop them to their highest capacity, and then, when their combined output was insufficient for San Francisco's needs, she was to be permitted to store water in the Hetch Hetchy Valley."—*Hetch Hetchy Dam Site, Hearing before Committee on Public Lands; House of Representatives, 63rd Congress, 1st session on H. R. 6281, 1913, p. 103.*—In the decision rendered by the Secretary, the considerations for and against the proposed use of these famous seats of natural beauty and sublimity were discussed at length and concluded to have the greater weight in favor of the application. One stipulation made by Secretary Garfield was that within two years the city should submit the question of water supply to the vote of its citizens, as contemplated in its charter. This was done on November 11, 1908, and the voters of San Francisco, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts of the private water company, recorded their approval of the Hetch Hetchy project by the overwhelming vote of 34,950 for, to 5708 against the proposition. At the same election a sale of municipal bonds to the amount of \$600,000 was authorized in or-

der to enable the city to proceed to perfect its titles. Almost passionate protests and pleadings against this use of the beautiful Hetch Hetchy valley were uttered by John Muir, the word-painter of "The Mountains of California," and many earnest voices from all parts of the country joined him in expostulation. "It is impossible [he wrote] to overestimate the value of wild mountains and mountain temples. They are the greatest of our natural resources, God's best gifts; but none, however high and holy, is beyond reach of the spoiler. . . . Excepting only Yosemite, Hetch Hetchy is the most attractive and wonderful valley within the bounds of the great Yosemite National Park and the best of all the camp-grounds. . . . Though the walls are less sublime in height than those of Yosemite, its groves, gardens, and broad spacious meadows are more beautiful and picturesque."—"In 1909 the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Ballinger, . . . deemed it advisable to again submit the matter to the people in an amount sufficient to provide for this scheme. Acting upon that suggestion, in January, 1910, the proposition was again submitted to the people. . . . So that the people of San Francisco have twice committed themselves to this plan and have authorized the issuance of bonds in the amount of \$45,000,000. . . . [At the request of the president] the Secretary of War, by Special Order . . . [detailed three army engineers] as a board to pass on those questions and scrutinize and review all data regarding same, and report to the Secretary of the Interior. In November, 1912, an exhaustive hearing was held at Washington before the Secretary of the Interior, Hon. Walter L. Fisher, and the Army board, at which all elements of this proposition were exhaustively discussed. On February 19, 1913, the above Army board filed a report . . . in which their conclusions . . . amply sustain the contentions of the city. The time was too short, however, for the Secretary of the Interior to pass on the permit for the use of the Hetch Hetchy before he left office March 4, 1913."—*Hetch Hetchy Dam Site, Hearing before the Committee on the Public Lands, House of Representatives, 63rd Congress, 1st session on H. R. 6281, 1913, pp. 106, 132.*—The question was taken up by the new Congress without delay, and the bill necessary to permit the project to be put into effect was passed in December, 1913, and signed by the president. In 1917 a municipally owned railroad was completed which was a necessary preliminary to the actual work on the dam. A \$5,400,000 contract for the building of the dam was awarded in 1919, the work to be finished in about three years. The Lake Eleanor dam, and the lower Cherry power system were completed, July, 1922. This included the 4,000 h.p. plant and transmission lines. Ten miles of main aqueduct tunnel were excavated, and the Hetch Hetchy dam two-thirds finished. Up to that time the total expenditure on the project was \$18,000,000. The ultimate capacity fixed for the works is 400,000,000 gallons daily, the intention being to supply the whole region round San Francisco bay before the end of the twentieth century.

ALSO IN: *Engineering News, June 1, 1922, p. 905.*—*Scientific American, July, 1922, p. 18.*

**HETMAN**, or **Ataman**, military title used both in Poland and in Russia. See **POLAND**: 1668-1696; **COSSACKS**.

**HEUREAUX**, Ulysse (1846-1890), general of the Dominican republic, president of Santo Domingo, 1882-1883, 1887-1899. See **SANTO DOMINGO**: 1882-1899.

**HEWES**, Joseph (1730-1770), American patriot. Member of Continental Congress, 1774-1779; one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See **U. S. A.**: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

**HEXHAM**, Battle of (1464). See **ENGLAND**: 1455-1471.

**HEYDUCS**. See **HAIDUKS**.

**HEYN**, Pieter Pieterzoon (1578-1629), Dutch admiral. Defeated the Portuguese in All Saints bay, Brazil, 1624; captured Spanish silver flotilla in Bay of Matanzas, 1626. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1625-1647.

**HEYNE**, Christian Gottlob (1729-1812), German classical scholar. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**: 1094-1906.

**HEYSE**, Paul Johann Ludwig (1830-1914), German novelist, dramatist and poet. Received the Nobel prize for literature in 1910. See **GERMAN LITERATURE**: 1798-1896.

**HEYWARD**, Thomas, Jr. (1746-1809), American jurist. Member of Continental Congress, 1775-1778; one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See **U. S. A.**: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

**HEYWOOD**, Thomas (c. 1575-c. 1650), English dramatist and miscellaneous writer. See **DRAMA**: 1592-1648.

**HEZEKIAH** (fl. 8th-7th centuries B.C.), one of the greatest kings of Judah, the son of Ahaz. See **JEW**: B.C. 724-604.

**HIANG-KIANG**. See **HONG KONG**.

**HIAWATHA**.—A legendary North American Indian chief, credited with the organization of the Five Nations of Iroquois stock. "The region of the Great Lakes was a border land between the great warring Indian families—the Iroquois, the Hurons, and the Algonquins. But at length the Hurons were practically exterminated by the Iroquois and but two were left to battle for the supremacy. There was evidence that there had been a long and bloody war just before the coming of the white man to the shores of Lake Ontario. The most remarkable of these barbarous peoples were the Iroquois or Five Nations constituting the most powerful Indian confederation north of Mexico. [The league was at first composed of the Mohawks, Onandagas, Oneidas, Cayugas, and Senecas. The Tuscaroras were admitted later, and the league is sometimes called the Six Nations.] They occupied a great section of Northern New York and a portion of North-eastern Pennsylvania and were further advanced in the direction of civilization than the great majority of Indian tribes found in the New World. Many were the legends of the early history of the Iroquois, one of which we reproduce here: Many ages ago a white canoe was seen on Lake Ontario approaching the mouth of the Oswego River. When it landed, there stepped from it a venerable person who announced himself as the spirit man come to rescue the people from their troubles. Ascending the Oswego River, he removed the falls so that canoes could pass without portage. (It should be stated that this cataract was afterward replaced owing to the wickedness of later generations.) The strange visitor next proceeded up the river into the interior, cut in two a mighty serpent several miles in length and performed other feats to which the labors of Hercules were as child's play. Finally he laid aside his spiritual character and remained for many years as a mere man, the father and adviser of the Iroquois, under the name of Hiawatha, a name that has become world-famous through the poem of Longfellow."—H. W. Elson,

*Lake Ontario in history (New York State Historical Association Proceedings, 1914, pp. 144-145).*—"Hiawatha had long beheld with grief the evils which afflicted not only his own nation, but all the other tribes about them, through the continual wars in which they were engaged, and the misgovernment and miseries at home which these wars produced. With much meditation he had elaborated in his mind the scheme of a vast confederation which would ensure universal peace. In the mere plan of a confederation there was nothing new. There are probably few, if any, Indian tribes which have not, at one time or another, been members of a league or confederacy. It may almost be said to be their normal condition. But the plan which Hiawatha had evolved differed from all others in two particulars. The system which he devised was to be not a loose and transitory league, but a permanent government. While each nation was to retain its own council and its management of local affairs, the general control was to be lodged in a federal senate, composed of representatives elected by each nation, holding office during good behavior, and acknowledged as ruling chiefs throughout the whole confederacy. Still further, and more remarkably, the confederation was not to be a limited one. It was to be indefinitely expandible. The avowed design of its proposer was to abolish war altogether. He wished the federation to extend until all the tribes of men should be included in it, and peace should everywhere reign. Such is the positive testimony of the Iroquois themselves: and their statement, as will be seen, is supported by historical evidence. . . . His conceptions were beyond his time, and beyond ours; but their effect, within a limited sphere, was very great. For more than three centuries the bond which he devised held together the Iroquois nations in perfect amity. It proved, moreover, as he intended, elastic. The territory of the Iroquois, constantly extending as their united strength made itself felt, became the 'Great Asylum' of the Indian tribes. . . . Among the interminable stories with which the common people [of the Five Nations] beguile their winter nights, the traditions of Atotarho and Hiawatha became intermingled with the legends of their mythology. An accidental similarity, in the Onondaga dialect, between the name of Hiawatha and that of one of their ancient divinities, led to a confusion between the two, which has misled some investigators. This deity bears, in the sonorous Canienga tongue, the name of Taronhiawagon, meaning 'the Holder of the Heavens.' The Jesuit missionaries style him 'the great god of the Iroquois.' Among the Onondagas of the present day, the name is abridged to Taonhiawagi, or Tahiwagi. The confusion between this name and that of Hiawatha (which, in another form, is pronounced Tahionwatha) seems to have begun more than a century ago. . . . Mr. J. V. H. Clark, in his interesting *History of Onondaga*, makes the name to have been originally Ta-own-ya-wat-ba, and describes the bearer as 'the deity who presides over fisheries and hunting-grounds.' He came down from heaven in a white canoe, and after sundry adventures, which remind one of the labors of Hercules, assumed the name of Hiawatha (signifying, we are told, 'a very wise man'), and dwelt for a time as an ordinary mortal among men, occupied in works of benevolence. Finally, after founding the confederacy and bestowing many prudent counsels upon the people, he returned to the skies by the same conveyance in which he had descended. This legend, or, rather,

congeries of intermingled legends, was communicated by Clark to Schoolcraft, when the latter was compiling his 'Notes on the Iroquois.' Mr. Schoolcraft, pleased with the poetical cast of the story, and the euphonious name, made confusion worse confounded by transferring the hero to a distant region and identifying him with Manabozho, a fantastic divinity of the Ojibways. Schoolcraft's volume, which he chose to entitle 'The Hiawatha Legends,' has not in it a single fact or fiction relating either to Hiawatha himself or to the Iroquois deity Taronhiawagon. Wild Ojibway stories concerning Manabozho and his comrades form the staple of its contents. But it is to this collection that we owe the charming poem of Longfellow; and thus, by an extraordinary fortune, a grave Iroquois lawgiver of the fifteenth century has become, in modern literature, an Ojibway demigod, son of the West Wind, and companion of the tricky Paupukkeewis, the boastful Iagoo, and the strong Kwasind. If a Chinese traveler, during the middle ages, inquiring into the history and religion of the western nations, had confounded King Alfred with King Arthur, and both with Odin, he would not have made a more preposterous confusion of names and characters than that which has hitherto disguised the genuine personality of the great Onondaga reformer."—H. Hale, ed., *Iroquois book of rites (Brinton's library of aboriginal American literature, no. 2, pp. 21-36)*.

**HIBERNIA**, Iverna, Juverna, or Ierne, classical name for Ireland. See IRELAND: Geographical description; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

**HIBERNIANS, Ancient Order of**.—"The Ancient Order of Hibernians, as its name indicates, is a society composed exclusively of Irishmen by birth or descent, . . . organized in Ireland for the preservation of the Catholic Church and the protection of the priest and schoolmaster. . . . There has been a great deal said as to when and where the Ancient Order of the Hibernians was first organized. Some authorities place it at 1642, where Pope Urban the Eighth sent his blessing to the Irish people and encouraged them in their fight for God and country. Again, it is given as 1651, in Connaught. . . . The history of the Ancient Order of Hibernians is practically the history of Ireland, as its members took an active part in all the struggles and efforts of the old Celtic chiefs to throw off the hated Saxon yoke."—T. F. McGrath, *History of the Ancient Order of Hibernians*, pp. 27-28.

**HICKEY'S LANDING**, or Port Hudson, Siege and capture of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (May-July: On the Mississippi).

**HICKMAN VS. JONES**, United States Supreme Court case. See U. S. A.: 1869-1872.

**HICKORY GROUND, Battle at** (1814). See U. S. A.: 1813-1814 (August-April).

**HICKS, Elias** (1748-1830), American Quaker, founder of the denomination of Hicksites. See FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF: 1827-1920.

**HICKS, Thomas Holliday** (1798-1865), governor of Maryland, 1857-1861. See MARYLAND: 1860-1864; U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

**HICKS, William (Hicks Pasha)** (1830-1883), British officer. His expedition against the Mahdi in 1883 resulted in his defeat and the complete extermination of his forces in the Kasgil passes. See EGYPT: 1870-1883.

**HICKS-BEACH, Michael Edward, Viscount St. Aldwyn** (1837-1916), English statesman. Represented East Gloucestershire in Parliament, 1864,

and West Bristol, 1885-1906; chief secretary for Ireland, 1874-1878 and 1886-1887; secretary of state for the colonies, 1878-1880; chancellor of the exchequer, 1885, 1895-1902; president of the Board of Trade, 1888-1902; raised to the peerage in 1906. See ENGLAND: 1894-1895; 1902 (July).

**HIDALGO**, central state of Mexico, bounded on the north by San Luis Potosi, on the east by Vera Cruz and Puebla, on the south by Tlaxcala and Mexico, and on the west by Querétaro.

**HIDALGO**.—"Originally written 'ñijodalgo,' son of something. Later applied to gentlemen, country gentlemen perhaps more particularly. . . . In the Dic. Univ. authorities are quoted showing that the word 'hidalgo' originated with the Roman colonists of Spain, called 'Italicos,' who were exempt from imposts. Hence those enjoying similar benefits were called 'Italicos,' which word in lapse of time became 'hidalgo.'"—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 1, p. 252, *foot-note*.

**HIDALGO Y COSTILLA**, Miguel (1753-1811), Mexican patriot. First leader in the Mexican War of Independence; captured Guanajuato and Valladolid, 1810; advanced against Mexico City but was forced to retreat owing to lack of ammunition; captured by the Spaniards and shot. See MEXICO: 1810-1810.

**HIDATSA**, Minnetaree, or Grosventres.—One of the three tribes which inhabit the reservation at Fort Berthold, North Dakota. "The history of this tribe is . . . intimately connected with that of the politically allied tribes of the Aricarees and Mandans." The name, Grosventres, was given to the people of this tribe "by the early French and Canadian adventurers. The same name was applied also to a tribe, totally distinct from these in language and origin, which lives some hundreds of miles west of Fort Berthold; and the two nations are now distinguished from one another as Grosventres of the Missouri and Grosventres of the Prairie. . . . Edward Umfreville, who traded on the Saskatchewan River from 1784 to 1787, . . . remarks: . . . 'They [the Canadian French] call them Grosventres, or Big-Bellies; and without any reason, as they are as comely and as well made as any tribe whatever.' . . . In the works of many travellers they are called Minnetarees, a name which is spelled in various ways. . . . This, although a Hidatsa word, is the name applied to them, not by themselves, but by the Mandans; it signifies 'to cross the water,' or 'they crossed the water.' . . . Hidatsa was the name of the village on Knife River farthest from the Missouri, the village of those whom Lewis and Clarke considered the Minnetarees proper." It is the name "now generally used by this people to designate themselves."—W. Matthews, *Ethnography and philology of the Hidatsa Indians*, pt. 1-2 (*United States geological and geographical survey*, F. V. Hayden, *Miscellaneous publication*, no. 7).—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; Plains area; SIQUAN FAMILY.

**HIDE OF LAND, CARUCATE, VIRGATE**.—"In the [Hundred] rolls for Huntingdonshire [England] a series of entries occurs, describing, contrary to the usual practice of the compilers, the number of acres in a virgate, and the number of virgates in a hide, in several manors. . . . They show clearly—(1) That the bundle of scattered strips called a virgate did not always contain the same number of acres. (2) That the hide did not always contain the same number of virgates. But at the same time it is evident that the hide in Huntingdonshire most often contained 120 acres or thereabouts. . . . We may gather from the in-

stances given in the Hundred Rolls for Huntingdonshire, that the 'normal' hide consisted as a rule of four virgates of about thirty acres each. The really important consequence resulting from this is the recognition of the fact that as the virgate was a bundle of so many scattered strips in the open fields, the hide, so far as it consisted of actual virgates in villenage, was also a bundle—a compound and fourfold bundle—of scattered strips in the open fields. . . . A trace at least of the original reason of the varying contents and relations of the hide and virgate is to be found in the Hundred Rolls, as, indeed, almost everywhere else, in the use of another word in the place of hide, when, instead of the anciently assessed hidage of a manor, its modern actual taxable value is examined into and expressed. This new word is 'carucate'—'the land of a plough or plough team,'—'caruca' being the mediæval Latin term for both plough and plough team. . . . In some cases the carucate seems to be identical with the normal hide of 120 acres, but other instances show that the carucate varied in area. It is the land cultivated by a plough team; varying in acreage, therefore, according to the lightness or heaviness of the soil, and according to the strength of the team. . . . In pastoral districts of England and Wales the Roman tribute may possibly have been, if not a hide from each plough team, a hide from every family holding cattle. . . . The supposition of such an origin of the connexion of the word 'hide' with the 'land of a family,' or of a plough team, is mere conjecture; but the fact of the connexion is clear."—F. Seebohm, *English village community*, ch. 2, sect. 4, ch. 10, sec. 6.

ALSO IN: J. M. Kemble, *Saxons in England*, bk. 1, ch. 4.

**HIDEYOSHI**, Toyotomi, the Taiko (1536-1598), Japanese soldier and statesman. Regent of Japan, 1581-1591. See JAPAN: B.C. 600-A.D. 1853; 1542-1593; 1549-1605; 1593-1625; KOREA: Early history.

**HIERATIC WRITING**. See HIEROGLYPHICS.  
**HIERO**, or Hieron, I (d. 467 B.C.), tyrant of Syracuse, c. 478-467 B.C. Noted patron of literature. See BALANCE OF POWER: Ancient Greece and Rome.

**Hiero II** (c. 307-216 B.C.), tyrant of Syracuse, 270-216 B.C. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 264-241.

**HIERODULI**.—In some of the early Greek communities, the Hieroduli, or ministers of the gods, "formed a class of persons bound to certain services, duties, or contributions to the temple of some god, and . . . sometimes dwelt in the position of serfs on the sacred ground. They appear in considerable numbers, and as an integral part of the population only in Asia, as, e. g., at Comana in Cappadocia, where in Strabo's time there were more than 6,000 of them attached to the temple of the goddess Ma, who was named by the Greeks Enyo, and by the Romans Bellona. In Sicily too the Erycinian Aphrodite had numerous ministers, whom Cicero calls Venerii, and classes with the ministers of Mars (Martiales) at Larinum in South Italy. In Greece we may consider the Craugallidæ as Hieroduli of the Delphian Apollo. They belonged apparently to the race of Dryopes, who are said to have been at some former time conquered by Heracles, and dedicated by him to the god. The greater part of them, we are told, were sent at the command of Apollo to the Peloponnese, whilst the Craugallidæ remained behind. . . . At Corinth too there were numerous Hieroduli attached to Aphrodite, some of whom were women, who lived as Iletæreæ and paid a certain tax from their earnings to the god-

dess."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state, pt. 2, ch. 4.*—See also DORIS AND DRYOPIS.

**HIEROGLYPHICS:** Cretan. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION; Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area; Minoan Age: B.C. 2200-1600.

**Egyptian.**—"The Greeks gave the name of Hieroglyphics, that is, 'Sacred Sculpture,' to the national writing of the Egyptians, composed entirely of pictures of natural objects. Although very inapplicable, this name has been adopted by modern writers, and has been so completely accepted and used that it cannot now be replaced by a more appropriate appellation. . . . For a long series of ages the decipherment of the hieroglyphics, for which the classical writers furnish no assistance, remained a hopeless mystery. The acute genius of a Frenchman at last succeeded, not fifty years since, in lifting the veil. By a prodigious effort of induction, and almost divination, Jean Francois Champollion, who was born at Figeac (Lot) on the 23d of December, 1790, and died at Paris on the 4th of March, 1832, made the greatest discovery of the nineteenth century in the domain of historical science, and succeeded in fixing on a solid basis the principle of reading hieroglyphics. Numerous scholars have followed the path opened by him. . . . It would . . . be very far from the truth to regard hieroglyphics as always, or even generally, symbolical. No doubt there are symbolical characters among them, generally easy to understand; as also there are, and in very great number, figurative characters directly representing the object to be designated; but the majority of the signs found in every hieroglyphic text are characters purely phonetic; that it, representing either syllables (and these are so varied as to offer sometimes serious difficulties) or the letters of an only moderately complicated alphabet. These letters are also pictures of objects, but of objects or animals whose Egyptian name commenced with the letter in question, while also the syllabic characters (true rebusses) represented objects designated by that syllable."—F. Lenormant and E. Chevallier, *Manual of the ancient history of the East, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 5.*—"The system of writing employed by the people called Egyptians was probably entirely pictorial either at the time when they first arrived in Egypt, or during the time that they still lived in their original home. We, however, know of no inscription in which pictorial characters alone are used, for the earliest specimens of their writing known to us contain alphabetical characters. The Egyptians had three kinds of writing—Hieroglyphic, Hieratic, and Demotic. . . . Hieroglyphics . . . were commonly employed for inscriptions upon temples, tombs, coffins, statues, and stelæ, and many copies of the Book of the Dead were written in them. The earliest hieroglyphic inscription at present known is found on the monument of SHERA, parts of which are preserved in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford and in the Gizeh Museum; it dates from the IIInd dynasty. Hieroglyphics were used in Egypt for writing the names of Roman Emperors and for religious purposes until the third century after Christ, at least. Hieratic . . . was a style of cursive writing much used by the priests in copying literary compositions on papyrus; during the XIth or XIIth dynasty wooden coffins were inscribed in hieratic with religious texts. The oldest document in hieratic is the famous Prisse papyrus, which records the counsels of Ptah-hetep to his son; the composition itself is about a thousand years older than this papyrus, which was probably inscribed about the XIth dy-

nasty. Drafts of inscriptions were written upon flakes of calcareous stone in hieratic, and at a comparatively early date hieratic was used in writing copies of the Book of the Dead. Hieratic was used until about the fourth century after Christ. Demotic . . . is a purely conventional modification of hieratic characters, which preserve little of their original form, and was used for social and business purposes; in the early days of Egyptian decipherment it was called enchorial. . . . The Demotic writing appears to have come into use about B.C. 900, and it survived until about the fourth century after Christ. In the time of the Ptolemies three kinds of writing were inscribed side by side upon documents of public importance, hieroglyphic, Greek, and Demotic; examples are the stele of Canopus, set up in the ninth year of the reign of Ptolemy III. Euergetes I., B.C. 247-222, at Canopus, to record the benefits which this king had conferred upon his country, and the famous Rosetta Stone, set up at Rosetta in the eighth year of the reign of Ptolemy V. Epiphanes (B.C. 205-182), likewise to commemorate the benefits conferred upon Egypt by himself and his family. . . . A century or two after the Christian era Greek had obtained such a hold upon the inhabitants of Egypt, that the native Christian population, the disciples and followers of Saint Mark, were obliged to use the Greek alphabet to write down the Egyptian, that is to say Coptic, translation of the books of the Old and New Testament, but they borrowed six signs from the demotic forms of ancient Egyptian characters to express the sounds which they found unrepresented in Greek."—E. A. W. Budge, *Mummy, pp. 353-354.*—See also ALPHABET: Earliest stages; Deciphering the hieroglyphs; PHILOLOGY: 12; Rosetta stone.

**Mexican (so-called).** See AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING; MAYAS; ALPHABET: Earliest stages.

**HIERONYMITES.**—"A number of solitaries residing among the mountains of Spain, Portugal, and Italy, gradually formed into a community, and called themselves Hieronymites, either because they had compiled their Rule from the writings of St. Jerome, or because, adopting the rule of St. Augustine, they had taken St. Jerome for their patron. . . . The community was approved by Gregory XI., in 1374. The famous monastery of Our Lady of Guadalupe, in Estremadura; the magnificent Escorial, with its wealth of literary treasures, and the monastery of St. Just, where Charles V. sought an asylum in the decline of his life, attest their wonderful energy and zeal."—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history, v. 3, p. 149.*

**HIGH CHURCH, English.** See ENGLAND: 1689 (April-August).

**HIGH COMMISSION, Court of,** created by English Act of Supremacy, 1559. See ENGLAND: 1559; 1686.

**HIGH COMMISSIONER,** an official title given to the British representative of the crown in Egypt and, formerly, in South Africa. Lord Cromer was "agent-general" in Egypt; Lord Al-lenby in 1921 received the title of "high commissioner," while the British representative in South Africa is now known as "governor-general." Commercial and semi-diplomatic agents of the British self-governing dominions are stationed in London and bear the style of "high commissioner" or "agent-general." "Unlike the Crown Agents for the Colonies, the high commissioners of the self-governing dominions are not by any means exclusively business agents. In their con-

tribution to the agenda for the Imperial Conference of 1911, the Government of New Zealand went so far as to propose that the high commissioners should be the sole channel of communication between imperial and dominion governments, and that they should have direct access to the Foreign Secretary; in other words, that they should be placed in much the same position as ambassadors. These proposals were not entertained, but it is clear that the high commissioners are the recognized representatives and spokesmen in this country of the younger nations of the Empire. It would be difficult, if not impossible, at the present moment further to define their status, for two reasons. The first reason is that the office and duties of a high commissioner, like every other fact and factor, past or present, in the British Empire, are undergoing a process of evolution. As the people represented grows, so the status of the representative of the people grows also. The second reason is that, apart from the extent of recognition which may be accorded by the Imperial Government to a high commissioner, his powers and position depend upon the views of those by whom he is appointed; and the views of one dominion or the particular government of one dominion at a particular time do not necessarily accord with the views of another. When the relations between the mother country and the self-governing dominions are talked of or discussed in writing, it is commonly assumed that there are two parties only concerned, the mother country being one and the self-governing dominions, taken as a whole, being the other; as though the self-governing dominions formed one homogeneous whole. The young peoples of the Empire are, on the contrary, as distinct from one another as each of them is from the mother country. They regard imperial questions each from their own standpoint; and the value of the Imperial Conference consists in eliciting different points of view, enabling the differences to be appreciated and finding out their common measure."

—A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Oxford survey of the British empire*, pp. 48-49.—See also PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.—"Previous to 1880 Canada had been represented in the United Kingdom by . . . [an] agent, Sir John Rose. Early in that year, Sir John Macdonald resolved to put the office of agent for Canada in London on a more satisfactory footing. An act was, therefore, passed constituting the office of High Commissioner. In appointing Sir Alexander Galt to the post certain definite instructions were formulated and approved by the Governor-General. He was also appointed chief emigration agent for Canada, and he was informed that it was the Government's intention to transfer the entire management of the public debt and correspondence relating to the finances of the Dominion in London to the High Commissioner. After a brief tenure of office, Sir Alexander Galt was succeeded by Sir Charles Tupper in 1884. With all Sir Charles's qualities of manner and knowledge which made him so capital a representative of the country abroad, he was, it must be avowed, far too keen a politician and followed far too ardently his instincts of combat to be quite acceptable to both political parties in Canada."—B. Willson, *Life of Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal*, v. 2, p. 216.

**HIGH COURT OF JUSTICE:** English. See CURIA REGIS; COURTS: England: Supreme Court of Judicature Act.

**German.** See COURTS: Germany: Under Republican constitution.

**HIGH GERMANY, Old League of, union of**

German cantons of Switzerland most powerful during the 13th and 14th centuries. See SWITZERLAND: 1332-1460.

**HIGH KINGS, Ardri, or supreme kings of Erin.** See IRELAND: 1014; TUATH.

**HIGH MIGHTINESSES.** See NETHERLANDS: 1651-1660.

**HIGH PRIESTS, Hebrew.** See JEWS: B.C. 413-332; PRIESTHOOD: Hebrew priesthood from 3000 B.C.

**HIGH SEAS.** See FREEDOM OF THE SEAS.

**HIGHBINDER ASSOCIATIONS,** organizations formed among the Chinese population of San Francisco, California, under the semblance of benefit societies for the purpose of blackmail and violation of the immigration laws of the United States. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1902.

**HIGHER LAW DOCTRINE.**—William H. Seward, speaking in the Senate of the United States, March 11, 1850, on the question of the admission of California into the Union as a free state, used the following language: "The Constitution," he said, "regulates our stewardship; the Constitution devotes the domain to union, to justice, to defence, to welfare, and to liberty. But there is a higher law than the Constitution, which regulates our authority over the domain, and devotes it to the same noble purposes. The territory is a part, no inconsiderable part, of the common heritage of mankind, bestowed upon them by the Creator of the universe. We are His stewards, and must so discharge our trust as to secure in the highest attainable degree their happiness." This public recognition by a Senator of the United States that the laws of the Creator were 'higher' than those of human enactment excited much astonishment and indignation, and called forth, in Congress and out of it, measureless abuse upon its author."—H. Wilson, *History of the rise and fall of the slave power in America*, v. 2, pp. 262-263.—In the agitations that followed upon the adoption of the fugitive slave law, and the other compromise measures, this Higher Law Doctrine was much talked about.—See also U. S. A.: 1850 (March).

**HIGHLAND AND AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY, Scotland.** See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Scotland.

**HIGHLAND CLANS.** See CLANS: Highland.

**HIGHLANDERS, Georgia.** See GEORGIA: 1735-1740; 1738-1743.

**HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND.** See SCOTLAND: Land; SCOTCH HIGHLAND AND LOWLAND.

**HIGHWAY, Lincoln.** See LINCOLN HIGHWAY.

**HIGHWAYS, United States.** See CUMBERLAND, OR NATIONAL, ROAD; LINCOLN HIGHWAY; OREGON: 1916 (July).

**HIKENILDE-STRETE,** Roman road in England in the time of Edward the Confessor. See ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN.

**HILDA, or Hild, Saint (614-680), founder and abbess of Whitby.** See ABBOT.

**HILDEBRAND.** See GREGORY VII.

**HILDEGARD, Saint (c. 1098-1179), German Benedictine abbess.** See ABBOT; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 10th-12th centuries; MONASTICISM: Women and monasticism.

**HILL, David Bennett (1843-1910), American statesman.** Member New York legislature, 1871-1872; lieutenant-governor of New York, 1882-1885; governor, 1885-1891; United States senator, 1891-1897. See AUSTRALIAN BALLOT: 1882-1916.

**HILL, David Jayne (1850- ), American diplomat and historian.** Minister to Switzerland, 1903-1905; to Netherlands, 1905-1907; ambassador to Germany, 1908-1911; delegate to second

peace conference at The Hague, 1907 (see HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907); member American Academy of Arts and Letters; author of numerous historical books and articles.

**HILL, Isaac** (1788-1851), American politician. Member of the "Kitchen Cabinet" under Andrew Jackson. See U. S. A.: 1829.

**HILL, James Jerome** (1838-1916), American railway magnate, head of extensive system of railroads including the Great Northern, 1889-1912. See RAILROADS: 1901-1905.

**HILL, Sir Rowland** (1795-1879), English administrator. His agitations led to the introduction of the penny-postage in England, 1840; secretary to the post office, 1854-1864; knighted, 1860. See ENGLAND: 1840: Adoption of penny-postage.

**HILLER, or Hüller, Johann Adam** (1728-1804), German composer of operettas and church music. See MUSIC: Modern: 1630-1800.

**HILLQUIT, Morris** (1869- ), American lawyer. Prominent member of the Socialist party in America. See U. S. A.: 1920 (May-November).

**HILLS OF ROME.** See SEVEN HILLS OF ROME.

**HILMI PASHA, Hussein** (d. 1923), Turkish statesman. Governor-general of Adana and later, of the Yemen; inspector-general of Macedonia, 1903; minister of the interior, 1908; minister of justice, 1912; ambassador to Austria, 1912; grand vizier, 1909, 1914; vigorously opposed German influence in Turkey and favored the British in Mesopotamia. See TURKEY: 1909 (May-December).

**HILTON HEAD**, site of a fort in South Carolina. Surrendered by the Confederates to the Federals after a severe bombardment November 7, 1861, during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1861 (October-December: South Carolina-Georgia).

**HIMALAYAS**, ranges of mountains forming the northern boundary of India. Greatest and highest mountain system in the world. See INDIA: Geographical description.

**HIMATION**, an article of dress in the nature of a cloak, worn by both men and women among the ancient Greeks. It "was arranged so that the one corner was thrown over the left shoulder in front, so as to be attached to the body by means of the left arm. On the back the dress was pulled toward the right side, so as to cover it completely up to the right shoulder, or, at least, to the armpit, in which latter case the right shoulder remained uncovered. Finally, the himation was again thrown over the left shoulder, so that the ends fell over the back. . . . A second way of arranging the himation, which left the right arm free, was more picturesque, and is therefore usually found in pictures."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans* (tr. by Hueffer), sect. 42.

**HIMERA**, town on the northern coast of Sicily. It was the scene of the defeat of the Carthaginians by Gelon in 480 B.C., and of Agathokles by the Carthaginians in 310 B.C.; destroyed by Hannibal in 408 B.C. See SICILY: B.C. 480; B.C. 409-405; SYRACUSE: B.C. 317-289.

**HIMYARITES**, an ancient tribe of southwestern Arabia. See ARABIA: Ancient succession and fusion of races; 6th-16th centuries.

**HIN**, unit of measurement used by the ancient Egyptians. See EPHAH.

**HINDENBURG, Paul von Beneckendorff und von** (1847- ), German field marshal. Won a brilliant victory during the World War at Tannenberg against the Russians, September 12, 1914; drove the Russians out of Poland the following summer; was appointed chief of general staff in

1916 (see WORLD WAR: 1916: I. Military situation: d, 3); directed the retreat of the Teuton armies from the Somme battlefield, 1917; with Ludendorff was practically the generalissimo of the armies of Germany and her allies during the last two years of the war.

**Recapture of East Prussia.—Battle of Tannenberg.—Campaign in Galicia.** See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 2; c, 3; d, 1; d, 2; 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 6; h.

**Invasion of Courland.—Attack on Narev river.—Strategic retreat behind the Arras and Soissons regions.—Battle of Picardy.** See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: b, 1; i; 1917: I. Summary: b, 1; 1918: II. Western front: b.

**Belgian deportations.—Policy of devastation in France.** See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: b; 1917: II. Western front: a, 2.

**Report of offensive in St. Quentin region.—Summary of second battle of the Marne.** See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 32; g, 13; y, 1.

**HINDENBURG LINE.**—"The German preparation for a renewal of the Somme battle in 1917 was a 'strategic retreat' to the 'Hindenburg line,' a new and carefully prepared line of defense which had supposedly been rendered impregnable. The line . . . ran through Laon, La Fère, St Quentin, Cambrai, and Lille, joining the old line at Vimy Ridge north of Arras. The retreat on a front extending from Arras to the Aisne was intended to frustrate the Allied plans for their spring offensive, and was carried out with an orgy of destruction in March, 1917. The Allied pursuit overtook the retreat. La Fère was rendered useless by French successes. St. Quentin was eliminated from the line in April, and the Germans . . . failed to establish their impregnable defense."—*War cyclopaedia*, p. 130.—See also WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: e, 7; 1917: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 7; c, 8; c, 11; g, 2; g, 3; g, 16; 1918: II. Western front: l, 1; l, 3; 1918: II. Western front: o; o, 2; v, 4.

**HINDI LANGUAGE**, chief vernacular of northern India. See PHILOLOGY: 16.

**HINDMAN**, fort in Arkansas, commonly known as "Arkansas Post," situated on the Arkansas river. Bombarded and captured by Federal troops in the Civil War. See U.S.A.: 1863 (January: Arkansas).

**HINDOSTANI**, dialect of the Hindi language; current over nearly all India.

**Its relation to the gypsy.** See PHILOLOGY: 26.

**HINDU ARCHITECTURE.** See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: India: Hindu architecture.

**HINDU ARMY ORGANIZATION.** See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.

**HINDU CHRONOLOGY.** See CHRONOLOGY: Eras in Hindu chronology.

**HINDU COSTUME.** See COSTUME: Oriental: India.

**HINDU EDUCATION.** See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 15th-5th centuries: India.

**HINDU ETHICS.** See ETHICS: India.

**HINDU KUSH**, mountain range, situated chiefly in Afghanistan. See AFGHANISTAN: Geographic description; BACTRIA; CAUCASUS, INDIAN.

**HINDU LAWS.** See MANU, LAWS OF; HINDU LITERATURE: Legal writings.

**HINDU LITERATURE.**—"Nearly all the most valuable works of the Vedic, as well as the later period, have within the last fifty years [written in 1900] been made accessible in thoroughly trustworthy editions. . . . The literature



of the Vedas at least equals in extent what survives of the writings of ancient Greece. Thus in the course of a century the whole range of Sanskrit literature, which in quantity exceeds that of Greece and Rome put together, has been explored. . . . [Sanskrit is still spoken as the tongue of the learned by thousands of Brahmans. Many books and journals are written in it and copying of manuscripts goes on as in the time of Alexander.] The study of Sanskrit literature deserves far more attention than it had yet received. . . . For in that ancient heritage the languages, the religious and intellectual life and thought, in short, the whole civilisation of the Hindus, who form the vast majority of the inhabitants of our Indian Empire, have their roots. Among all the ancient literatures, that of India is, moreover, undoubtedly in intrinsic value and æsthetic merit second only to that of Greece. To the latter it is, as a source for the study of human evolution, even superior. Its earliest period, being much older than any product of Greek literature, presents a more primitive form of belief, and therefore gives a clearer picture of the development of religious ideas than any other literary monument of the world. Hence it came about that, just as the discovery of the Sanskrit language led to the foundation of the science of Comparative Philology, an acquaintance with the literature of the Vedas resulted in the foundation of the science of Comparative Mythology by Adalbert Kuhn and Max Müller. Though it has touched excellence in most of its branches, Sanskrit literature has mainly achieved greatness in religion and philosophy. The Indians are the only division of the Indo-European family which has created a great national religion—Brahmanism—and a great world-religion—Buddhism; while all the rest, far from displaying originality in this sphere, have long since adopted a foreign faith. The intellectual life of the Indians has, in fact, all along been more dominated by religious thought than that of any other race. The Indians, moreover, developed independently several systems of philosophy which bear evidence of high speculative powers. The great interest, however, which these two subjects must have for us lies, not so much in the results they attained, as in the fact that every step in the evolution of religion and philosophy can be traced in Sanskrit literature. The history of ancient Indian literature naturally falls into two main periods. The first is the Vedic, which beginning perhaps as early as 1500 B.C., extends in its latest phase to about 200 B.C. In the former half of the Vedic age the character of its literature was creative and poetical, while the centre of culture lay in the territory of the Indus and its tributaries, the modern Punjab; in the latter half, literature was theologically speculative in matter and prosaic in form, while the centre of intellectual life had shifted to the valley of the Ganges. The second period, concurrent with the final offshoots of Vedic literature and closing with the Muhammadan conquest after 1000 A.D., is the Sanskrit period strictly speaking. In a certain sense, owing to the continued literary use of Sanskrit, mainly for the composition of commentaries, this period may be regarded as coming down to the present day. During this second epoch Brahmanic culture was introduced into and overspread the southern portion of the continent called the Dekhan or 'the South.' In the course of these two periods taken together, Indian literature attained noteworthy results in nearly every department. The Vedic age, which, unlike the earlier epoch of Greece, produced only religious

works, reached a high standard of merit in lyric poetry, and later made some advance towards the formation of a prose style. The Sanskrit period embracing in general secular subjects achieved distinction in many branches of literature, in national as well as court epic, in lyric and especially didactic poetry, in the drama, in fairy tales, fables, and romances. Everywhere we find much true poetry, the beauty of which is, however, marred by obscurity of style and the ever-increasing taint of artificiality. But this period produced few works which, regarded as a whole, are dominated by a sense of harmony and proportion. Such considerations have had little influence on the æsthetic notions of India. The tendency has been rather towards exaggeration, manifesting itself in all directions. The almost incredible development of detail in ritual observance; the extraordinary excesses of asceticism; the grotesque representations of mythology in art; the frequent employment of vast numbers in description; the immense bulk of the epics; the unparalleled conciseness of one of the forms of prose; the huge compounds habitually employed in the later style, are among the more striking manifestations of this defect of the Indian mind. In various branches of scientific literature, in phonetics, grammar, mathematics, astronomy, medicine, and law, the Indians also achieved notable results. In some of these subjects their attainments are, indeed, far in advance of what was accomplished by the Greeks. History is the one weak spot in Indian literature. It is, in fact, non-existent. The total lack of the historical sense is so characteristic, that the whole course of Sanskrit literature is darkened by the shadow of this defect, suffering as it does from an entire absence of exact chronology. So true is this, that the very date of Kalidasa, the greatest of Indian poets, was long a matter of controversy within the limits of a thousand years, and is even now doubtful to the extent of a century or two. In the Vedic period three well-defined literary strata are to be distinguished. The first is that of the four Vedas, the outcome of a creative and poetic age, in which hymns and prayers were composed chiefly to accompany the pressing and offering of the Soma juice or the oblation of melted butter (*ghrita*) to the gods. The four Vedas are 'collections,' called *samhita*, of hymns and prayers made for different ritual purposes. They are of varying age and significance. By far the most important as well as the oldest—for it is the very foundation of all Vedic literature—is the Rigveda, the 'Veda of verses' (from *rich*, 'a laudatory stanza'), consisting entirely of lyrics, mainly in praise of different gods. It may, therefore, be described as the book of hymns or psalms. The *Sama-veda* has practically no independent value, for it consists entirely of stanzas (excepting only 75) taken from the *Rigveda* and arranged solely with reference to their place in the Soma sacrifice. Being meant to be sung to certain fixed melodies, it may be called the book of chants (*saman*). [See also RELIGION: B.C. 1000.] The *Fajur-veda* differs in one essential respect from the *Sama-veda*. It consists not only of stanzas (*rich*), mostly borrowed from the *Rigveda*, but also of original prose formulas. It resembles the *Sama-veda*, however, in having its contents arranged in the order in which it was actually employed in various sacrifices. It is, therefore, a book of sacrificial prayers (*yajus*). The matter of this Veda has been handed down in two forms. In the one, the sacrificial formulas only are given; in the other, these are

to a certain extent intermingled with their explanations. These three Vedas alone were at first recognised as canonical scriptures, being in the next stage of Vedic literature comprehensively spoken of as 'the threefold knowledge' (*trayi vidya*). The fourth collection, the *Atharva-veda*, attained to this position only after a long struggle. Judged both by its language and by that portion of its matter which is analogous to the contents of the *Rigveda*, the *Atharva-veda* came into existence considerably later than that Veda. In form it is similar to the *Rigveda*, consisting for the most part of metrical hymns, many of which are taken from the last book of the older collection. In spirit, however, it is not only entirely different from the *Rigveda*, but represents a much more primitive stage of thought. While the *Rigveda* deals almost exclusively with the higher gods as conceived by a comparatively advanced and refined sacerdotal class, the *Atharva-veda* is, in the main, a book of spells and incantations appealing to the demon world, and teems with notions about witchcraft current among the lower grades of the population, and derived from an immemorial antiquity. These two, thus complementary to each other in contents, are obviously the most important of the four Vedas. As representing religious ideas at an earlier stage than any other literary monuments of the ancient world, they are of inestimable value to those who study the evolution of religious beliefs. [See also *VEDAS*.] The creative period of the Vedas at length came to an end. It was followed by an epoch in which there no longer seemed any need to offer up new prayers to the gods, but it appeared more meritorious to repeat those made by the holy seers of bygone generations, and handed down from father to son in various priestly families. The old hymns thus came to be successively gathered together in the Vedic collections already mentioned, and in this form acquired an ever-increasing sanctity. Having ceased to produce poetry, the priesthood transferred their creative energies to the elaboration of the sacrificial ceremonial. The result was a ritual system far surpassing in complexity of detail anything the world has elsewhere known. The main importance of the old Vedic hymns and formulas now came to be their application to the innumerable details of the sacrifice. Around this combination of sacred verse and rite a new body of doctrine grew up in sacerdotal tradition, and finally assumed definite shape in the guise of distinct theological treatises entitled *Brahmanas*, 'books dealing with devotion or prayer' (*brahman*). They evidently did not come into being till a time when the hymns were already deemed ancient and sacred revelations, the priestly custodians of which no longer fully understood their meaning owing to the change undergone by the language. They are written in prose throughout and are in some cases accented, like the Vedas themselves. They are thus notable as representing the oldest prose writing of the Indo-European family. Their style is, indeed, cumbersome, rambling, and disjointed, but distinct progress towards greater facility is observable within this literary period. . . . We have now arrived at the third and last stage of Vedic literature, that of the *Sutras*. These are compendious treatises dealing with Vedic ritual on the one hand, and with customary law on the other. The rise of this class of writings was due to the need of reducing the vast and growing mass of details in ritual and custom, preserved in the *Brahmanas* and in floating tradition, to a systematic shape, and of

compressing them within a compass which did not impose too great a burden on the memory, the vehicle of all teaching and learning. The main object of the *Sutras* is, therefore, to supply a short survey of the sum of these scattered details. They are not concerned with the interpretation of ceremonial or custom, but aim at giving a plain and methodical account of the whole course of the rites or practices with which they deal. . . . Though the Upanishads generally form a part of the *Brahmanas*, being a continuation of their speculative side (*jnana-kanda*), they really represent a new religion, which is in virtual opposition to the ritual or practical side (*karma-kanda*). Their aim is no longer the obtainment of 'earthly happiness and afterwards bliss in the abode of Yama by sacrificing correctly to the gods, but release from mundane existence by the absorption of the individual soul in the world-soul through correct knowledge. Here, therefore, the sacrificial ceremonial has become useless and speculative knowledge all-important. The essential theme of the Upanishads is the nature of the world-soul. Their conception of it represents the final stage in the development from the world-man, Purusha, of the *Rigveda* to the world-soul, Atman; from the personal creator, Prajapati, to the impersonal source of all being, Brahma. [See also *UPANISHADS*.] . . . The best productions of the Indian drama are nearly a dozen in number, and date from a period embracing something like four hundred years, from about the beginning of the fifth to the end of the eighth century A.D. These plays are the compositions of the great dramatists Kalidasa and Bhavavhuti, or have come down under the names of the royal patrons Cudraka and Cribharsha, to whom their real authors attributed them. The greatest of all is Kalidasa, already known to us as the author of several of the best *Kavyas*. Three of his plays have been preserved, *Cakuntala*, *Vikramorvasi*, and *Malavikagnimitra*. The richness of creative fancy which he displays in these, and his skill in the expression of tender feeling, assign him a high place among the dramatists of the world."—A. A. Macdonell, *History of Sanskrit literature*, pp. 5-10, 20-32, 35, 218, 353.—See also *BHAGAVAD-GITA*; *COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 2000*; *INDIA: B.C. 2000-600*.

**Epic poetry.**—*Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*.—"In few departments of literary activity is there a greater chasm between Greece and India than in epic poetry. The *Iliad*, as we look back to it, remains for us the one stately structure that closes the vista of Greek literature. In India, on the other hand, the *epos* is a relatively modern building, placed late and midway down the avenue that leads us to the first temple built by the Hindus, the Vedic edifice of hymns to the gods. Between these two, the Veda and the *Mahabharata* (the elder of the epics) stand other buildings, representing centuries of verse and prose, a whole civilization in various stages of slow development. The very metres with which epic poetry is adorned. . . —I do not mean the metres of the mass, but occasional embellishments—are late forms of versification. There is much that is primitive in this poetry, but, taken as a whole, it reflects ages of culture, philosophy, and religion. If comparable with any western form of epic, that of India should then be set beside the Rhodian and Roman epic, or perhaps more fittingly beside the mediæval romances of France and Germany. As was to be expected in poetry such as this, the wisdom of antiquity is engrafted upon it. But we find more than this,

for in the Mahabharata—the Ramayana has something of the same sort, but it is too clearly a modern addition to discuss—there are interpolated tedious sermons, tractates on morality, philosophical essays, religious discussions, interminable laudations of the supreme gods, all set into the poem as distinct pieces, having nothing to do with the action, some of them clearly differentiated by metre from the poem itself. We must, then, if we would get at the original epic, discard this alien mass, and in many cases it is easy to see how the first poem has been distorted by it. In fact, the greater epic, as it stands to-day, is so heterogeneous that only the most unhistorical type of mind could view all this heap of goods and rubbish as the product of one uniform source. Such a theory has indeed actually been suggested, but it was too fantastic to find support, and has awakened only a passing interest. If we compare the two epics, we shall find quite a difference between them. The huge Mahabharata is seven times as long as the Iliad and Odyssey put together; the Ramayana is but a quarter as long as the Mahabharata. The Ramayana is more symmetrical, more homogeneous, and lastly it is more refined, both in its visibly polished metre and in its social atmosphere. A further distinction is to be noticed. The Bharata poem belongs to the west, the region about Delhi; the Ramayana, to the east, to Oudh, the region north of Benares. Nevertheless, the style of the two epics is in so far related as to be formed to a great extent on identical phraseology. Both epics have the same proverbs and know the same stories. All of this shows that the ancient tale of the north-west has been transplanted into the new seat of culture about Benares, and that the Mahabharata was completed where the Ramayana began. In the course of this brief survey I cannot go into the further reasons for this assumption, but I may add that all the literary indications point to this explanation, such, for example, as that the tales woven into the later epic are almost always set about the lower Ganges. To turn from the finished product to the origin of these two poems, which arose far apart but ended in the same literary environment, or the source of the Ramayana there is little to say, for it is attributed as definitely and regularly to Valmiki as is the *Aeneid* to Vergil, whom the Hindu author preceded by several centuries. Now, tradition ascribes the great epic also—that is, the Mahabharata (which means the great Bharata story and so may be called simply the Bharata)—to a certain Vyasa; but this Vyasa is a very shadowy person, to whom is ascribed also the arrangement of the Vedas and other works, his name meaning merely arranger or disposer. In fact, his name probably covers a guild of revisers and retellers of the tale. Moreover, there is internal evidence that the poem has been rewritten. There is, in a word, no one author of the great epic. It was handed down piece-meal at first in ancient lays. These became recitations and, united with heterogeneous material of all sorts, were at last bound together as one loosely connected whole."—E. W. Hopkins, *India old and new*, pp. 67-69.—See also INDIA: B.C. 600-327.

**Legal writings.**—"In connexion with the subject of the evolution of caste, the famous law-book commonly called the 'Laws,' or 'Code,' or 'Institutes of Manu' (*Manava-dharmasāstra* in Sanskrit) demands notice. The treatise, written in lucid Sanskrit verse of the 'classical' type, comprises 2,634 couplets (*sloka*) arranged in

twelve chapters; and is the earliest of the metrical law-books. It professes to be the composition of a sage named Bhrigu, who used the works of predecessors. The date of composition may lie between 200 B.C. and A.D. 200. About one-tenth of the verses is found in the *Mahabharata*. The *Laws of Manu* form the foundation of the queer medley of inconsistent systems of jurisprudence administered by the Privy Council and the High Courts of India under the name of Hindu Law. The prevalent error concerning the supposed 'four original castes' rests partly, as proved above, on erroneous interpretation of the text, and partly on fictitious explanations of the facts of caste offered by the author. The early Sanskritists unduly exalted the authority of the *Laws of Manu*, which they regarded as veritable laws instead of mere rulings of a textbook writer, which they actually are. "The fuller knowledge of the present day sees the book in truer perspective, but the old errors still exert a baneful influence in many directions."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, p. 42.—See also MANU, LAWS OF; INDIA: People.

**Lyric poetry.**—"The lyrical branch of Sanskrit poetry divides itself, according to its subject, into the Religious and the Erotic Lyric. With respect to the former, we have already seen, when treating of the Atharva-Samhitā, that the hymns of this collection are no longer the expression of direct religious emotion, but are rather to be looked upon as the utterance of superstitious terror and uneasy apprehension, and that in part they bear the direct character of magic spells and incantations. This same character is found faithfully preserved in the later religious lyrics, throughout the Epic, the Puranas, and the Upanishads, wherever prayers of the sort occur; and it has finally, within the last few centuries, found its classical expression in the Tantra literature. It is in particular by the heaping up of titles under which the several deities are invoked that their favour is thought to be won; and the 'thousand-name-prayers' form quite a special class by themselves. To this category belong also the prayers in amulet-form, to which a prodigious virtue is ascribed, and which enjoy the very highest repute even in the present day. Besides these, we also meet with prayers, to Siva especially, which for religious fervour and child-like trust will bear comparison with the best hymns of the Christian Church, though, it must be admitted, their number is very small. The Erotic Lyric commences, for us, with certain of the poems attributed to Kalidasa. . . . Of the Ethico-Didactic Poetry—the so-called *Niti-Sastras*—but little has survived in a complete form (some pieces also in the Tibetan Tadjur), no doubt because the great epic, the Maha-Bharata, in consequence of the character of universality which was gradually stamped upon it, is itself to be regarded as such a *Niti-Sastra*. Still, relics enough of the aphoristic ethical poetry have been preserved to enable us to judge that it was a very favourite form, and achieved very excellent results. Closely allied to it is the literature of the 'Beast-Fable,' which has a very special interest for us, as it forms a substantial link of connection with the West."—A. F. Weber, *History of Indian literature*, pp. 208-210.—See also MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 2000-A.D. 1200.

**HINDU MUSIC.** See MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 2000-A.D. 1200.

**HINDUISM**, general term for religion and social system of the Hindus. See RELIGION: B.C. 1000; BRAHMANISM: Essential features; INDIA:

People; B.C. 2000-600; MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: Before 16th century; VEDANTISM.

**HINDUS**, generally speaking, natives of India. Hindu now means a person of the Hindu religion as distinct from Mohammedan, Sikh, Parsee and other religions of India. They form the great majority of the population. See INDIA: People.

Their influence in the Philippines and in Java. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Language; Previous to 1525; Java. Early history.

**HINDUSTAN**, name widely applied to India proper. See INDIA.

**HINDUSTANI**, or Hindostani, dialect of the Hindi language, current over nearly all India. See PHILOLOGY: 16; 26.

**HINES**, Walker Downer (1870- ), American lawyer and railway official. Director-general of railroads, January, 1910-May, 1920. See RAILROADS: 1916-1920; U.S.A.: 1919 (August-November).

**HINGSTON DOWN**, Battle of (838). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 8th-9th centuries.

**HINKSTON'S FORK**, Battle of (1782). See KENTUCKY: 1775-1784.

**HINTERLAND**, German word which has come into general use to describe unnamed and poorly defined regions lying behind, or on the inland side, of coast districts, in Africa more especially, which have been occupied or claimed by European powers.

**HIONG-NU**, or Hiung-Nu, a people who formed a powerful empire toward the end of the 3rd century B.C., which extended from the Great Wall of China to the Caspian sea. See TURKEY: 6th century.

**HIPPARCH**, commander of cavalry in the military organization of the ancient Athenians.—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, pt. 3, ch. 3.

**HIPPARCHUS** (fl. 146-126 B.C.), Greek astronomer and mathematician. See SCIENCE: Ancient: Greek science.

**HIPPEIS**.—Among the Spartans, the honorary title of Hippeis, or "Knights," was given to the members of a chosen body of three hundred young men, the flower of the Spartan youth, who had not reached thirty years of age. "Their three leaders were called Hippagretæ, although in war they served not as cavalry but as hoplites. The name may possibly have survived from times in which they actually served on horseback." At Athens the term Hippeis was applied to the second of the four property classes into which Solon divided the population,—their property obliging them to serve as cavalry.—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, pt. 3, ch. 1, 3.

**HIPPER**, Admiral von, German naval commander at battle of Dogger Bank, January 24, 1915. Commanded the German battle-cruiser squadron under Scheer at Jutland, May 31, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IX. Naval operations: a; 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 8; a, 9.

**HIPPIAS** (died c. 490 B.C.), tyrant of Athens. Succeeded Pisistratus, 527 B.C. See ATHENS: B.C. 509-506; GREECE: B.C. 8th-5th centuries: Political evolution of the leading states.

**HIPPIS**, Battle of (550), fought, in what was known as the Lazic War, between the Persians on one side and the Romans and the Lazis on the other. The latter were the victors.

**HIPPO**, or Hippo Regius, ancient city of north Africa, on the Numidian coast. It was besieged and captured by the Vandals in 431. See NUMIDIANS; CARTHAGE: Dominions; VANDALS: 429-439.

**HIPPOBOTÆ**. See EUBÆA.

**HIPPOCRATES** (c. 460-377 B.C.), Greek physician and philosopher, called the "Father of Medicine." See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient Greece.

**HIPPOCRATIC OATH**, an oath embodying a code of medical ethics, sworn by those entering upon the practice of medicine. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient Greece.

**HIPPODROME**, **STADION**, **THEATER**.—"The arts practised in the gymnasia were publicly displayed at the festivals. The buildings in which these displays took place were modified according to their varieties. The races both on horseback and in chariots took place in the hippodrome; for the gymnastic games of the pentathlon served the stadion; while for the acme of the festivals, the musical and dramatic performances, theatres were erected."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans* (tr. by Hueffer), sect. 28-30.

**HIPPOLYTUS** (fl. 3rd century), teacher and writer of the early church. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300; Church in Gaul and Spain.

**HIPPOTOXOTÆ**, body of mounted archers in the service of the Athenian state.

**HIRA**.—"The historians of the age of Justinian represent the state of the independent Arabs, who were divided by interest or affection in the long quarrel of the East [between the Romans and Persians—third to seventh century]: the tribe of Gassan was allowed to encamp on the Syrian territory; the princes of Hira were permitted to form a city about 40 miles to the southward of the ruins of Babylon. Their service in the field was speedy and vigorous; but their friendship was venal, their faith inconstant, their enmity capricious: it was an easier task to excite than to disarm these roving barbarians; and, in the familiar intercourse of war, they learned to see and to despise the splendid weakness both of Rome and of Persia."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, v. 5, ch. 50.—"The dynasty of Palmyra and the western tribes embraced Christianity in the time of Constantine; to the east of the desert the religion was later in gaining ground, and indeed was not adopted by the court of Hira till near the end of the 6th century. Early in the 7th, Hira fell from its dignity as an independent power, and became a satrapy of Persia."—W. Muir, *Life of Mahomet, introduction*, ch. 1.—In 633 Hira was overwhelmed by the Mahometan conquest, and the greater city of Kufa was built only three miles distant from it.—See also CALIPHATE: 632-651; COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.

**HIRAGANA**, style of Japanese writing. See JAPAN: Language.

**HIRPENIANS**, or *hirpini*, Samnite tribe of southern Italy. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 90-88.

**HIRSCH**, Maurice, Baron de (Maurice de Hirsch de Gereuth) (1831-1806), Austrian financier. Bequeathed a large fortune for the amelioration of the conditions of the Jews. See JEWS: Zionism: Definition, etc.

**HIRSCHBEIN**, Peretz (1878- ), Jewish dramatist. See JEWS: Drama and theater.

**HIRSON**, town of northeastern France, near the Belgian border. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: x, 3.

**HISGEN**, Thomas Louis (1858- ), American manufacturer. Candidate of the National Independence party for the presidency of the United States, 1908. See U.S.A.: 1908 (April-November).

**HISHAM IBN AL-KALBI** (Abu-l Mundhir Hisham ibn Mahommed ibn us-Sa'ih ul-Kalb) (died c. 810), Arabic historian. See HISTORY: 21.

**HISPALIS**, name of Seville under the Romans. See SEVILLE; Early history.

**HISPANIA**, ancient Latin name for modern Spain and Portugal. See SPAIN; PORTUGAL;

EUROPE; Ethnology; Migrations: Map.

Citerior and Ulterior. See SPAIN: B.C. 218-25.

**HISPANIOLA**, name given by Columbus to the island now divided between the repub-

lic of Haiti and Santo Domingo. See AMERICA: 1492; 1493-1496; HAITI, ISLAND OF; HAITI, REPUBLIC OF; SANTO DOMINGO; REPARTIMIEN-TOS.

**HISSARLIK**, site of ancient Troy, as identified by the excavations of Schliemann. See AEGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities; Mycenaean area; ASIA MINOR: B.C. 1100; TROY; HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS.

## HISTORY

1. **Definitions.**—"With us the word 'history,' like its equivalents in all modern languages, signifies either a form of literary composition or the appropriate subject or matter of such composition—either a narrative of events, or events which may be narrated. It is impossible to free the term from this doubleness and ambiguity of meaning. Nor is it, on the whole, to be desired. The advantages of having one term which may, with ordinary caution, be innocuously applied to two things so related, more than counterbalances the dangers involved in two things so distinct having the same name. . . . Since the word history has two very different meanings, it obviously cannot have merely one definition. To define an order of facts and a form of literature in the same terms—to suppose that when either of them is defined the other is defined—is so absurd that one would probably not believe it could be seriously done were it not so often done. But to do so has been the rule rather than the exception. The majority of so-called definitions of history are definitions only of the records of history. They relate to history as narrated and written, not to history as evolved and acted; in other words, although given as the only definitions of history needed, they do not apply to history itself, but merely to accounts of history. They may tell us what constitutes a book of history, but they cannot tell us what the history is with which all books of history are occupied. It is, however, with history in this latter sense that a student of the science or philosophy of history is mainly concerned. . . . If by history be meant history in its widest sense, the best definition of history as a form of literature is, perhaps, either the very old one, 'the narration of events,' or W. von Humboldt's, 'the exhibition of what has happened' (*die Darstellung des Geschehenen*). The excellence of these definitions lies in their clear and explicit indication of what history as effectuated or transacted is. It consists of events; it is *das Geschehene*. It is the entire course of events in time. It is all that has happened precisely as it happened. Whatever happens is history. . . . Probably Droysen has found a neater and terser formula for it in German than any which the English language could supply. Nature he describes as '*das Nebeneinander des Seienden*,' and history as '*das Nacheinander des Gewordenen*.' . . . The only kind of history with which we have here directly to deal is that kind of it to which the name is generally restricted, history par excellence, human history, what has happened within the sphere of human agency and interests, the actions and creations of men, events which have affected the lives and destinies of men, or which have been produced by men. This is the ordinary sense of the word history. . . . The definition given in the Dictionary of the French Academy—"l'histoire est le récit des choses dignes de mémoire"—is a specimen of a very numerous species. According to such definitions

history consists of exceptional things, of celebrated or notorious events, of the lives and actions of great and exalted men, of conspicuous achievements in war and politics, in science and art, in religion and literature. But this is a narrow and superficial conception of history. History is made up of what is little as well as of what is great, of what is common as well as of what is strange, of what is counted mean as well as of what is counted noble. . . . Dr. Arnold's definition—"history is the biography of a society"—has been often praised. Nor altogether undeservedly. For it directs attention to the fact that all history accords with biography in supposing in its subject a certain unity of life, work, and end. . . . It does not follow, however, that biography is a more general notion than history, and history only a species of biography. In fact, it is not only as true and intelligible to say that biography is the history of an individual as to say that history is the biography of a society, but more so. It is the word biography in the latter case which is used in a secondary and analogical sense, not the word history in the former case. . . . According to Mr. Freeman, 'history is past politics and politics are present history.' This is not a mode of definition which any logician will be found to sanction. It is equivalent to saying that politics and history are the same, and may both be divided into past and present; but it does not tell us what either is. To affirm that this was that and that this is not a definition of this or that, but only an assertion that something may be called either this or that. Besides, the identification of history with politics proceeds, as has been already indicated, on a view of history which is at once narrow and arbitrary. Further, it is just as true that mathematical history is past mathematics and mathematics are present history, as that political history is past politics and politics are present history. . . . The whole of man's past was once present thought, feeling, and action. There is nothing peculiar to politics in this respect."—R. Flint, *History of the philosophy of history*, pp. 5-10.—The following view is one that is very generally held but is rapidly being superseded:—"History is a man's record of the self-consciousness of the race in concrete process, producing what we call events, and viewed with reference to his environment and actual relations. . . . Its phenomena are conditioned by space as well as time. A phenomenon outside of human consciousness has no place in history. . . . Man is the first postulate of history. He is the beginning and the end of it. He enacts it, he tells it; he accepts it as a message or a gospel for guidance and self-realization. Man, mind, phenomena, memory, narrative—and history is born. But while we should recognize that the phenomena belonging to history are conditioned by space as well as time and are organic in man, we must keep constantly in view that the material universe, which we call nature, except in its rela-

tion to the sentient spirit of man, does not belong to the province of history. Science is the register of nature; history the record of man. . . . The realm of nature belongs to science, not history."—W. P. Johnston, *Definition of history* (*American Historical Association Annual Report*, 1893, pp. 47-48).—As a definition of history involves the whole history of the subject, the following article is an attempt to reconstruct the varying definitions which the different ages and different schools of thinkers have evolved. That history meant to the early tribes a "tale that is told" and that it meant to Freeman and the nationalist school "past politics" are historical facts in the evolution of the subject. According to the modern view, history stands in the same relation to the present as man's memory does to man. In the words of J. T. Shotwell, history includes "all that has happened, not merely all the phenomena of human life, but those of the natural world as well. It includes everything that undergoes change; and as modern science has shown that there is nothing absolutely static, therefore the whole universe, and every part of it, has its history." F. J. Teggart states the problem of history as "how man everywhere has come to be as he is," which involves the story of the natural world. "The question, 'What is History?' is closely connected with that deepest of all questions, 'What is Human Life?'. For, whatever in reality human life may be, history is the record of its development, its progress and its manifestations. I have said 'the record' rather than the historical process itself, because that is the phase of the subject with which the historian has primarily to deal. What this process really is, what is its inherent principle of change, what are the categories of its manifestations—these are questions for the philosopher rather than the historian to discuss. But, in truth, the historian cannot separate himself from some conception—general or specific, positive or negative, real or ideal—of the process whose transmutations he describes. Even if he were able to do so, language has already settled that question for him; for he cannot tell the simplest story without some implications regarding the nature of the process which forms the substance of his narrative."—D. J. Hill, *Ethical function of the historian* (*American Historical Review*, Oct., 1908).—Henry Adams states the modern concept of history in his "Education" in these words: "To historians the single interest is the law of reaction between force and force—between mind and nature—the law of progress." "The word 'history' has two meanings. It may mean either the record of events or events themselves. We call Cromwell a 'maker of history' although he never wrote a line of it. We even say that the historian merely records the history which kings and statesmen produce. History in such instances is obviously not the narrative but the thing that awaits narration. The same name is given to both the objects of the study and to the study itself. . . . Of the two meanings, the larger one is comparatively recent. The idea that events and people are historic by reason of any quality of their own, even if no one has studied or written upon them, did not occur to the ancients. . . . It was not until modern times that the phenomena themselves were termed history. The history of a people originally meant the research and narrative of a historian, not the evolution of the nation. It meant a work dealing with the subject, not the subject itself. And this is logically as well as historically the more accurate use of the word. Things are never historic

in themselves. They can be perpetuated out of the dead past only in two ways: either as part of the ever-moving present,—as institutions, art, science, etc.—things timeless or universal; or in that imaginative reconstruction which it is the special office of the historian to provide. This distinction must be insisted upon if we are to have any clear thinking upon the history of History."—J. T. Shotwell, *Introduction to the history of history*, pp. 2-3.

ALSO IN: F. Harrison, *Meaning of history*.—J. E. D. Daiberg-Acton, *Inaugural lecture as Regius professor of modern history at Cambridge*.—K. Lamprecht, *What is history?*—E. Bernheim, *Lehrbuch der historischen methode*, ch. 1.

2. *Philosophy of history*.—"The philosophy of history is not a something separate from the facts of history, but a something contained in them. The more a man gets into the meaning of them, the more he gets into it, and it into him; for it is simply the meaning, the rational interpretation, the knowledge of the true nature and essential relations of the facts. And this is true of whatever species or order the facts may be. Their philosophy is not something separate and distinct from, something over and above, their interpretation, but simply their interpretation. He who knows about any people, or epoch, or special development of human nature, how it has come to be what it is and what it tends to, what causes have given it the character it has, and what its relation is to the general development of humanity, has attained to the philosophy of the history of that people, epoch, or development. Philosophical history is sometimes spoken of as a kind of history, but the language is most inaccurate. Every kind of history is philosophical which is true and thorough; which goes closely and deeply enough to work; which shows the what, how, and why of events as far as reason and research can ascertain. History always participates in some measure of philosophy, for events are always connected according to some real or supposed principle either of efficient or final causation."—R. Flint, *Philosophy of history in Europe, introduction*.

ALSO IN: G. B. Adams, *History and the philosophy of history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1909).—J. Delvaile, *Essai sur l'histoire de l'idée de progrès*.

*Influence of geography on history*. See EUROPE: Geography; AFRICA: Geographic description; ASIA: Influence of geography; AMERICA: Politico-geographical survey; U.S.A.: Historical geography; also under names of countries, subdivision Geographical description.

3. *Possibility of a science of history*.—Buckle's theory.—"The believer in the possibility of a science of history is not called upon to hold either the doctrine of predestined events, or that of freedom of the will; and the only positions which, in this stage of the inquiry, I shall expect him to concede are the following: That when we perform an action, we perform it in consequence of some motive or motives; that those motives are the results of some antecedents; and that, therefore, if we were acquainted with the whole of the antecedents, and with all the laws of their movements, we could with unerring certainty predict the whole of their immediate results. This, unless I am greatly mistaken, is the view which must be held by every man whose mind is unbiased by system, and who forms his opinions according to the evidence actually before him. . . . Rejecting, then, the metaphysical dogma of free will and, the theo-

logical dogma of predestined events, we are driven to the conclusion that the actions of men, being determined solely by their antecedents, must have a character of uniformity, that is to say, must, under precisely the same circumstances, always issue in precisely the same results. And as all antecedents are either in the mind or out of it, we clearly see that all the variations in the results—in other words, all the changes of which history is full, all the vicissitudes of the human race, their progress or their decay, their happiness or their misery—must be the fruit of a double action; an action of external phenomena upon the mind, and another action of the mind upon the phenomena. These are the materials out of which a philosophic history can alone be constructed. On the one hand, we have the human mind obeying the laws of its own existence, and, when uncontrolled by external agents, developing itself according to the conditions of its organization. On the other hand, we have what is called Nature, obeying likewise its laws; but incessantly coming into contact with the minds of men, exciting their passions, stimulating their intellect, and therefore giving to their actions a direction which they would not have taken without such disturbance. Thus we have man modifying nature, and nature modifying man; while out of this reciprocal modification all events must necessarily spring. The problem immediately before us is to ascertain the method of discovering the laws of this double modification.”—H. T. Buckle, *History of civilization in England*, ch. 1.—“Buckle is not the first who has attempted to treat the unscientific character of History, the ‘methodless matter,’ as an ancient writer names it, by the method of exhibiting vital phenomena under points of view analogous to those which are the starting-point of the exact sciences. But a notion which others have incidentally broached under some formula about ‘natural growth,’ or carried out in the very inadequate and merely figurative idea of the inorganic; what still others, as Comte in his attractive ‘Philosophie Positive,’ have developed speculatively, Buckle undertakes to ground in a comprehensive historical exposition. . . . He purposes to raise History to a science by showing how to demonstrate historical facts out of general laws. He paves the way for this by setting forth that the earliest and rudest conceptions touching the course of human destiny were those indicated by the ideas of chance and necessity, that ‘in all probability’ out of these grew later the ‘dogmas’ of free-will and predestination, that both are in a great degree ‘mistakes,’ or that, as he adds, ‘we at least have no adequate proof of their truth.’ He finds that all the changes of which History is full, all the vicissitudes which have come upon the human race, its advance and its decline, its happiness and its misery, must be the fruit of a double agency, the working of outer phenomena upon our nature, and the working of our nature upon outer phenomena. He has confidence that he has discovered the ‘laws’ of this double influence, and that he has therefore elevated the History of mankind to a science. . . . Buckle does not so much leave the freedom of the will, in connection with divine providence, out of view, but rather declares it an illusion and throws it overboard. Within the precincts of philosophy also something similar has recently been taught. A thinker whom I regard with personal esteem says: ‘If we call all that an individual man is, has and performs A, then this A arises out of  $a + x$ ,  $a$  embracing all that comes to the man from his outer circum-

stances: from his country, people, age, etc., while the vanishingly little  $x$  is his own contribution, the work of his free will.’ However vanishingly small this  $x$  may be, it is of infinite value. Morally and humanly considered it alone has value. The colors, the brush, the canvas which Raphael used were of materials which he had not created. He had learned from one and another master to apply these materials in drawing and painting. The idea of the Holy Virgin and of the saints and angels, he met with in church tradition. Various cloisters ordered pictures from him at given prices. That this incitement alone, these material and technical conditions and such traditions and contemplations, should ‘explain’ the Sistine Madonna, would be, in the formula  $A = a + x$ , the service of the vanishing little  $x$ . Similarly everywhere. Let statistics go on showing that in a certain country so and so many illegitimate births occur. Suppose that in the formula  $A = a + x$  this  $a$  includes all the elements which ‘explain’ the fact that among a thousand mothers twenty, thirty, or whatever the number is, are unmarried; each individual case of the kind has its history, how often a touching and affecting one. Of those twenty or thirty who have fallen is there a single one who will be consoled by knowing that the statistical law ‘explains’ her case? Amid the tortures of conscience through nights of weeping, many a one of them will be profoundly convinced that in the formula  $A = a + x$  the vanishing little  $x$  is of immeasurable weight, that in fact it embraces the entire moral worth of the human being, his total and exclusive value. No intelligent man will think of denying that the statistical method of considering human affairs has its great worth; but we must not forget how little, relatively, it can accomplish and is meant to accomplish. Many and perhaps all human relations have a legal side; yet no one will on that account bid us seek for the understanding of the *Eroica* or of Faust among jurists’ definitions concerning intellectual property.”—J. G. Droysen, *Outline of the principles of history*, pp. 62-64, 77-79.

Also in: C. V. Langlois and C. Seignobos, *Introduction to the study of history*.—A. H. Huth, *Life and writings of Buckle*.—J. B. Bury, *Science of history (Inaugural lecture as Regius professor of modern history at Cambridge)*.

4. History as root of all science.—Lost history.—“History, as it lies at the root of all science, is also the first distinct product of man’s spiritual nature; his earliest expression of what can be called Thought. It is a looking both before and after; as, indeed, the coming Time already waits, unseen, yet definitely shaped, predetermined and inevitable, in the Time come; and only by the combination of both is the meaning of either completed. The Sibile Books, thought old, are not the oldest. Some nations have prophecy, some have not: but of all mankind, there is no tribe so rude that it has not attempted History, though several have not arithmetic enough to count Five. History has been written with quipo-threads, with feather-pictures, with wampum-belts; still oftener with earth-mounds and monumental stone-heaps, whether as pyramid or cairn; for the Celt and the Copt, the Red man as well as the White, lives between two eternities, and warring against Oblivion, he would fain unite himself in clear conscious relation, as in dim unconscious relation he is already united, with the whole Future and the whole Past. A talent for History may be said to be born with us, as our chief inheritance. In a certain sense all men are historians. Is not

every memory written quite full with Annals, wherein joy and mourning, conquest and loss manifoldly alternate; and, with or without philosophy, the whole fortunes of one little inward Kingdom, and all its politics, foreign and domestic, stand ineffaceably recorded? Our very speech is curiously historical. Most men, you may observe, speak only to narrate; not in imparting what they have thought, which indeed were often a very small matter, but in exhibiting what they have undergone or seen, which is a quite unlimited one, do talkers dilate. Cut us off from Narrative, how would the stream of conversation, even among the wisest, languish into detached handfuls, and among the foolish utterly evaporate! Thus, as we do nothing but enact History, we say little but recite it: nay rather, in that widest sense, our whole spiritual life is built thereon. For, strictly considered, what is all Knowledge too but recorded Experience, and a product of History; of which, therefore, Reasoning and Belief, no less than Action and Passion, are essential materials? . . . Social Life is the aggregate of all the individual men's Lives who constitute society; History is the essence of innumerable Biographies. But if one Biography, nay our own Biography, study and recapitulate it as we may, remains in so many points unintelligible to us; how much more must these million, the very facts of which, to say nothing of the purport of them, we know not, and cannot know! . . . Which was the greatest innovator, which was the more important personage in man's history, he who first led armies over the Alps, and gained the victories of Carnæ and Thrasymene; or the nameless boor who first hammered out for himself an iron spade? When the oak-tree is felled, the whole forest echoes with it; but a hundred acorns are planted silently by some unnoticed breeze. Battles and war-tumults, which for the time din every ear, and with joy or terror intoxicate every heart, pass away like tavern-brawls; and, except some few Marathons and Morgartens, are remembered by accident, not by desert. Laws themselves, political Constitutions, are not our Life, but only the house wherein our Life is led: nay they are but the bare walls of the house; all whose essential furniture, the inventions and traditions, and daily habits that regulate and support our existence, are the work not of Dracos and Hampdens, but of Phœnician mariners, of Italian masons and Saxon metallurgists, of philosophers, alchymists, prophets, and all the long-forgotten train of artists and artisans; who from the first have been jointly teaching us how to think and how to act, how to rule over spiritual and over physical Nature. Well may we say that of our History the more important part is lost without recovery."—T. Carlyle, *On history (Critical and miscellaneous essays, v. 2)*.

5. Interpretation of the past by the present.—“But how, it may be asked, are we to interpret the Past from the Present, if there are no institutions in the present answering to those in the past? We have no serfs, for example, in England at the present time, how then are we to understand a state of Society of which they were a component element? The answer is—by analogy, by looking at the essence of the relation. Between a modern master and his lackeys and dependents, the same essential relation subsists as between the lord and serf of feudal times. If we realise to ourselves the full round of this relationship, deepen the shades to correspond with the more absolute power possessed by a lord in early times, allow for a more aristocratic state of opinion

and belief, the result will be the solution desired. This method of interpreting the Past from the Present has been followed by Shakespeare in his great historical dramas, with such success as we all know. He wishes, for example, to give us a picture of old Roman times. He gets from Plutarch and other sources the broad historical facts, the form of Government and Religion, the distribution of Power and Authority; this is the skeleton to which he has to give life and reality. How does he proceed? He simply takes his stand on the times in which he himself lived; notes the effects existing institutions have on his own and other minds; allows for the differences in custom, mode of life, and political and religious forms; and the result is a drama or dramas more real and lifelike, more true and believable, an insight into the working of Roman life more subtle and profound, than all the husks with which the historians have furnished us.”—J. B. Crozier, *Civilization and progress, p. 35*.

ALSO IN: H. B. Adams, *Methods of historical study*.

6. Moral lessons of history.—“Gibbon believed that the era of conquerors was at an end. Had he lived out the full life of man, he would have seen Europe at the feet of Napoleon. But a few years ago we believed the world had grown too civilized for war, and the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park was to be the inauguration of a new era. Battles bloody as Napoleon's are now the familiar tale of every day; and the arts which have made greatest progress are the arts of destruction. . . . What, then, is the use of History, and what are its lessons? If it can tell us little of the past, and nothing of the future, why waste our time over so barren a study? First, it is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong. Opinions alter, manners change, creeds rise and fall, but the moral law is written on the tablets of eternity. For every false word or unrighteous deed, for cruelty and oppression, for lust or vanity, the price has to be paid at last; not always by the chief offenders, but paid by some one. Justice and truth alone endure and live. Injustice and falsehood may be long-lived, but doomsday comes at last to them, in French revolutions and other terrible ways. That is one lesson of History. Another is that we should draw no horoscopes; that we should expect little, for what we expect will not come to pass.”—J. A. Froude, *Short studies on great subjects, pp. 27-28*.

7. Educational and practical value of history.—“It is, I think, one of the best schools for that kind of reasoning which is most useful in practical life. It teaches men to weigh conflicting probabilities, to estimate degrees of evidence, to form a sound judgment of the value of authorities. Reasoning is taught by actual practice much more than by any a priori methods. Many good judges—and I own I am inclined to agree with them—doubt much whether a study of formal logic ever yet made a good reasoner. Mathematics are no doubt invaluable in this respect, but they only deal with demonstrations; and it has often been observed how many excellent mathematicians are somewhat peculiarly destitute of the power of measuring degrees of probability. But History is largely concerned with the kind of probabilities on which the conduct of life mainly depends. There is one hint about historical reasoning which I think may not be unworthy of your notice. When studying some great historical controversy, place yourself by an effort of the imagination alternately on each side of the battle; try to realise



as fully as you can the point of view of the best men on either side, and then draw up upon paper the arguments of each in the strongest form you can give them. You will find that few practices do more to elucidate the past, or form a better mental discipline."—W. E. H. Lecky, *Political value of history*, pp. 47-49.—"He who demands certainties alone as the sphere of his action must retire from the activities of life, and confine himself to the domain of mathematical computation. He who is unwilling to investigate and weigh probabilities can have no good reason to hope for any practical success whatever. It is strictly accurate to say that the highest successes in life, whether in statesmanship, in legislation, in war, in the civic professions, or in the industrial pursuits, are attained by those who possess the greatest skill in the weighing of probabilities and the estimating of them at their true value. This is the essential reason why the study of history is so important an element in the work of improving the judgment, and in the work of fitting men to conduct properly the larger interests of communities and states. It is a study of humanity, not in an ideal condition, but as humanity exists. The student of history surveys the relations of life in essentially the same manner as the man of business surveys them. Perhaps it ought rather to be said that the historical method is the method that must be used in the common affairs of every-day life. The premises from which the man of business has to draw his conclusions are always more or less involved and uncertain. The gift which insures success, therefore, is not so much the endowment of a powerful reasoning faculty as that other quality of intelligence, which we call good judgment. It is the ability to grasp what may be called the strategic points of a situation by instinctive or intuitive methods. It reaches its conclusions not by any very clearly defined or definable process, but rather by the method of conjecturing the value and importance of contingent elements. It is the ability to reach correct conclusions when the conditions of a strictly logical process are wanting. To a man of affairs this is the most valuable of all gifts; and it is acquired, so far as it comes by effort, not by studying the rigid processes of necessary reasoning, but by a large observance and contemplation of human affairs. And it is precisely this method of studying men that the historical student has to use. His premises are always more or less uncertain, and his conclusions, therefore, like the conclusions of every day life, are the product of his judgment rather than the product of pure reason. It is in the light of this fact that we are to explain the force of Guizot's remark, that nothing tortures history more than logic. Herein also is found the reason why the study of history is so necessary a part of a good preparation for the affairs of politics and statesmanship. . . . The kind of involved and contingent reasoning necessary for the successful formation of political judgments is unquestionably the kind of reasoning which, of all studies, history is best adapted to give. It may also be said that the most important elements of success are the same in all practical vocations. The conditions, whether those of statesmanship or those of industry and commerce, have been essentially the same in all ages. Society is, and has been, from its first existence, a more or less complicated organism. It is a machine with a great number of wheels and springs. No part is independent. Hence it is that no man can be completely useful if he is out of gear with his age, however perfect he may be in himself."—

C. K. Adams, *Manual of historical literature*, pp. 15-16.—"To turn for a moment to the general question. I should not like to be thought to be advocating my study on the mere grounds of utility; although I believe that utility, both as regards the training of the study and the information attained in it, to be the highest, humanly speaking, of all utilities; it helps to qualify a man to act in his character of a politician as a Christian man should. But this is not all; beyond the educational purpose, beyond the political purpose, beyond the philosophical use of history and its training, it has something of the preciousness of everything that is clearly true. In common with Natural Philosophy it has its value, I will not say as Science, for that would be to use a term which has now become equivocal, but it has a value analogous to the value of science; a value as something that is worth knowing and retaining in the knowledge for its own and for the truth's sake. And in this consists its especial attraction for its own votaries. It is not the pleasure of knowing something that the world does not know,—that doubtless is a motive that weighs with many minds, a motive to be accepted as a fact, though it may not be worth analysis. It is not the mere pleasure of investigating and finding with every step of investigation new points of view open out, and new fields of labour, new characters of interest;—that investigating instinct of human nature is not one to be ignored, and the exercise of it on such inexhaustible materials as are before us now is a most healthy exercise, one that cannot but strengthen and develop the whole mind of the man who uses it, urging him on to new studies, new languages, new discoveries in geography and science. But even this is not all. There is, I speak humbly, in common with Natural Science, in the study of living History, a gradual approximation to a consciousness that we are growing into a perception of the workings of the Almighty Ruler of the world. . . . The study of History is in this respect, as Coleridge said of Poetry, its own great reward, a thing to be loved and cultivated for its own sake. . . . If man is not, as we believe, the greatest and most wonderful of God's works, he is at least the most wonderful that comes within our contemplation; if the human will, which is the motive cause of all historical events, is not the freest agent in the universe, it is at least the freest agency of which we have any knowledge; if its variations are not absolutely innumerable and irreducible to classification, on the generalisations of which we may formulate laws and rules, and maxims and prophecies, they are far more diversified and less reducible than any other phenomena in those regions of the universe that we have power to penetrate. For one great insoluble problem of astronomy or geology there are a thousand insoluble problems in the life, in the character, in the face of every man that meets you in the street. Thus, whether we look at the dignity of the subject-matter, or at the nature of the mental exercise which it requires, or at the inexhaustible field over which the pursuit ranges, History, the knowledge of the adventures, the development, the changeful career, the varied growths, the ambitions, aspirations, and, if you like, the approximating destinies of mankind, claims a place second to none in the roll of sciences"—W. Stubbs, *Seventeen lectures on the study of medieval and modern history*, lecture 1, 4.—"There is a passage in Lord Bacon so much to this purpose that I cannot forbear quoting it. 'Although' (he says) 'we are deeply indebted to the light, because by

means of it we can find our way, ply our tasks, read, distinguish one another; and yet for all that the vision of the light itself is more excellent and more beautiful than all these various uses of it; so the contemplation and sight of things as they are, without superstition, without imposture, without error, and without confusion, is in itself worth more than all the harvest and profit of inventions put together.' And so may I say of History; that useful as it may be to the statesman, to the lawyer, to the schoolmaster, or the annalist, so far as it enables us to look at facts as they are, and to cultivate that habit within us, the importance of History is far beyond all mere amusement or even information that we may gather from it."—J. S. Brewer, *English studies*, p. 382.—"To know History is impossible; not even Mr. Freeman, not Professor Ranke himself, can be said to know History. . . . No one, therefore, should be discouraged from studying History. Its greatest service is not so much to increase our knowledge as to stimulate thought and broaden our intellectual horizon, and for this purpose no study is its equal."—W. P. Atkinson, *On history and the study of history*, p. 107.

ALSO IN: M. S. Nordau, *Interpretation of history*.—R. Altamira, *La Enseñanza de la historia*.—H. B. Adams, *Study of history in American colleges and universities*.

8. Writing of history.—Macaulay's view.—"A history in which every particular incident may be true may on the whole be false. The circumstances which have most influence on the happiness of mankind, the changes of manners and morals, the transition of communities from poverty to wealth, from knowledge to ignorance, from ferocity to humanity—these are, for the most part, noiseless revolutions. Their progress is rarely indicated by what historians are pleased to call important events. They are not achieved by armies, or enacted by senates. They are sanctioned by no treaties and recorded in no archives. They are carried on in every school, in every church, behind ten thousand counters, at ten thousand firesides. The upper current of society presents no certain criterion by which we can judge of the direction in which the under current flows. We read of defeats and victories. But we know that nations may be miserable amidst victories and prosperous amidst defeats. We read of the fall of wise ministers and of the rise of profligate favourites. But we must remember how small a proportion the good or evil effected by a single statesman can bear to the good or evil of a great social system. . . . The effect of historical reading is analogous, in many respects, to that produced by foreign travel. The student, like the tourist, is transported into a new state of society. He sees new fashions. He hears new modes of expression. His mind is enlarged by contemplating the wide diversities of laws, of morals, and of manners. But men may travel far and return with minds as contracted as if they had never stirred from their own market-town. In the same manner, men may know the dates of many battles and the genealogies of many royal houses, and yet be no wiser. . . . The perfect historian is he in whose work the character and spirit of an age is exhibited in miniature. He relates no fact, he attributes no expression to his characters, which is not authenticated by sufficient testimony. But, by judicious selection, rejection, and arrangement, he gives to truth those attractions which have been usurped by fiction. In his narrative a due subordination is observed: some transactions are prominent; others retire. But the

scale on which he represents them is increased or diminished, not according to the dignity of the persons concerned in them, but according to the degree in which they elucidate the condition of society and the nature of man. He shows us the court, the camp, and the senate. But he shows us also the nation. He considers no anecdote, no peculiarity of manner, no familiar saying, as too insignificant for his notice which is not too insignificant to illustrate the operation of laws, of religion, and of education, and to mark the progress of the human mind. Men will not merely be described, but will be made intimately known to us."—T. B. Macaulay, *History (Essays, v. 1)*.

ALSO IN: F. M. Fling, *Writing of history: An introduction to historical method*.

9. Pre-literary history.—It is inherent in the ambiguity of the meanings of the word "history" that we find ourselves the possessors of a vast amount of history of times before history was written, of "prehistoric times." The development of archaeological research opens to us records of history that are sources equally valuable as those which have come to us since the origin of writing. For this reason the term "pre-literary history" is being adopted. The age of the earth as a solid body offers a problem which astronomer, geologist and biologist answer with figures varying as their standpoints, from 25,000,000 to 1,600,000,000 years. H. F. Osborn in "Origin and Evolution of Life" (1917) gives the estimate of 100,000,000 years, and, in "Men of the Old Stone Age," says that "Man emerges from the vast geologic history of the earth in the period known as the Pleistocene, or Glacial, and Postglacial, the Diluvium of the older geologists." The Pleistocene period is dated at approximately 550,000 years ago. "Geology first gives us an adequate conception of time. The limitations which shut our fathers into the narrow close of six thousand years [4004 B.C.—estimates based on the biblical theory of creation] are taken down . . . and we are turned out into the open of unnumbered millions of years. Upon the background of geologic time our chronological time shows no more than a speck upon the sky. The whole of human history is but a mere fraction of a degree of this mighty arc. . . . Archean time in geologic history answers to prehistoric time in human history."—J. Burroughs, *Time and change*, pp. 90, 100.—See also ARCHAEOLOGY; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Earliest remains, etc.

ALSO IN: F. Boas, *Mind of primitive man*, ch. 6-7.

10. Origin of writing.—Palæography.—Epi-graphy.—Diplomatic.—The first step in the gradual evolution of a system of writing was taken probably by cave men of the latter half of the palæolithic period. This earliest step was the conventionalization of a picture to represent one thing, a story, an object or an idea. The second step was the representation by a picture or symbol of a sound,—at first a whole word, then broken into syllables. Through the analysis of these sounds an alphabet was constructed. The Phœnician alphabet is the earliest known, appearing about 1000 B.C. and made up of symbols borrowed from the civilizations of Egypt, Assyria and Babylonia. "An examination of the civilizations of the Near East shows clearly that (excluding monumental documents) there were two physical processes of writing in the eastern Mediterranean world. One, which grew up on the Nile, consisted in applying a colored fluid to a vegetable membrane; the other, which arose in the Tigris-Euphrates world, incised or impressed its signs on a yielding or plastic surface which later hardened. Both of these

methods reached the classical world: in the wax tablet for the Greek or Roman gentleman's memoranda, and in the pen, ink and paper (papyrus) which have descended to our own day. The early geographical line to be drawn between these two methods of writing may be indicated in the shortest terms by saying that the practice of incision on a plastic surface was Asiatic; the process employing pen, ink, and vegetable paper was Egyptian."—J. H. Breasted, *Physical processes of writing* (*American Journal of Semitic Languages*, July, 1916).—Epigraphy deals with the inscriptions found on stone, metal or any other enduring material. "The rules for deciphering the old handwritings that one encounters in documents of an earlier date than the seventeenth century, are embodied in two distinct though related and interacting sciences. The first of these is the science of Palæography, which has for its province the mere deciphering of the writings, as well as questions concerning the nature of the material upon which it is imposed, of the implements by which it was produced, and of the medium through which the thought and intention of the writer are recorded. Diplomatic, on the other hand, the second of the sciences, is chiefly concerned with the style of the documents, and even the individuals who produced them. In the words of M. Léon Gauthier . . . 'Palæography studies the body, while Diplomatic studies the soul of the document!'"—W. Saunders, *Ancient handwritings*, p. 3.—See also AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING; CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTIONS; ALPHABET; EUROPE: Prehistoric: Iron Age; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750; ASSYRIA: Art and archaeological remains: ROSETTA STONE; PHIL-  
OLOGY: 12; 13.

11. Development of a chronology.—"Neither calendar nor chronology was worked out in the first place to discover Time or keep track of it. They have to do with events and the problem of tracing their relationships, not with what lies between them. . . . Our knowledge of 'the past,' is, therefore, really a knowledge of things in the past. It seems at first glance as though, by giving each day and year a number we bring them all within the field of knowledge. But the numbers mean nothing by themselves. Only those dates upon which memorable things have taken place really stand for anything. . . . Dates do not matter in primitive stories. Myths need no arithmetic. All the child's story requires for a proper beginning is 'once upon a time.' So with the childhood of the race. Poetry, the universal vehicle for the saga, cannot well risk marking its marvellous events with exact days and years. The calendar, and the chronology which the calendar made possible, are not only the basis of scientific history, but of far more than we suspect in the structure of civilization. . . . We have erected a civilization based on dates, in which the mathematics of Time is as fundamental to human relationships as that of Space is in the conquest of the material world. . . . As for the sun, while it furnished the divisions of day and night, it offered no ready multiple for their grouping. Its yearly circuit served for no more than the framework of the calendar; in a sense, it merely offered the cycle that needed calendaring. And yet, in those parts of the world where the seasons are marked off from each other with any degree of distinctness, a rough solar year could be appreciated without any detailed divisions by stellar or lunar periods. This is especially true outside the tropics, in the northern or southern temperate zones, where the farmer can grow but one crop of grain in the year, so that from a practical standpoint, he divides his time into two main

seasons, winter and summer. . . . Time was not discovered by counting days, like knots on a string, but by observing their virtues. We have already seen this in the practical farming calendar, where the signs of the seasons are observed to make sure that the right thing shall be done in its time, and the vintage be begun under the star that is associated with it, and the like."—J. T. Shotwell, *Discovery of time* (*Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods*, Apr. 15, 1915).—"The reckoning of time reflects everywhere the outlook and habits of society, as those in turn reflect the environment and conditions of life of early peoples. In no other country is this more evident than in ancient Egypt. There it was almost inevitable that the solar year should triumph, for the land itself forced along the adjustment. Nowhere else does nature provide such a chronometer as in the valley of the Nile."—*Ibid.*, June 10, 1915.—See also CHRONOLOGY.

ALSO IN: J. C. Macdonald, *Chronologies and calendars*.

12. Early interpretation of history: Mythological.—Myth has long played a momentous "rôle in the history of the human intelligence—by far the largest of any one element in our whole history. Science was born but yesterday. Myths are milleniums old. And they are as young to-day as in the glacial period. Heroes and victims share the stage of the drama of history with those uncanny Powers that mock at effort or exalt the weak, and trick with sudden turns the stately progress of society. Wherever the marvellous event is explained by causes more marvellous still, where the belief is heightened by basing it upon deeper mysteries, we are following the world-old method of explaining by the inexplicable. Now myths are unsatisfactory as explanations for various reasons, but the main one is that human events are subordinated to the supernatural in which they are set. This means that normal events of daily life are generally passed unnoticed, and attention is concentrated upon the unusual and abnormal. It is in these that the divine or diabolic intervenes. They are pre-eminently—as we still say of railway accidents—acts of God. So the myth neither tells a full story, with all the human data involved, nor directs to any natural sequence of events. . . . Pontiffs and medicine men elaborate the mythology which explains and justifies the taboos. That is not to say that myths are creations of priests. The creation is the work of the society itself. . . . Men first tell stories. Then they think about them. So from mythology, the ancients proceeded to philosophy."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history* (*American Historical Review*, July, 1913).—See also MYTHOLOGY: Meaning of the word, etc.

ALSO IN: F. C. Conybeare, *Myth, magic and morals*.

13. Origins of history in myths, tribal songs and race epics.—"As in the contemplation of nature, so in the first estimate of human deeds, wonder rather than exact comprehension was undoubtedly the chief source of inspiration. The unusual, the extraordinary in every sense, most attracted attention, impressed memory and stimulated phantasy. The earliest traditions were, therefore, of great heroes and great occasions, while the phenomena of ordinary life, like the habitual course of nature, passed without observation and left no trace behind. Depending entirely upon the accidents of memory, modified from generation to generation by unconscious imaginative accretions, the saga and the legend for long ages satisfied the needs of primitive men in relation to the past."—D. J. Hill, *Ethical function of the historian* (*Amer-*

*ican Historical Review*, Oct., 1908).—"The earliest historical narrative is the myth. It is at the same time an explanation. It is no mere product of imagination, of the play of art with the wayward fancies of childlike men. Myths, real genuine myths—not Homeric epics composed for sophisticated, critical audiences—are statements of 'facts' to the believer. They are social outputs, built up out of experience and fitted to new experiences. The long canoes are swept to sea by the northeast hurricane, and year by year in the winter nights at the camp-fires of those who go by long canoes the story is repeated, over and over again, until the sea is left behind or a new race brings triremes with machinery in the inside."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history* (*American Historical Review*, July, 1913).—"The amount of historical material contained in tribal songs and epics can be tested by the more permanent traces of the past and estimated by comparative criticism. The natural growth of legend distorts the truth in the description of events, but the social customs and attitude of mind of savage races can be deduced from primitive songs and poems. Sometimes the early tribal songs have been preserved, as in the Norse Eddas, sometimes they have been worked up into race epics, as in the Homeric poems, the Kalevala, and the Chanson de Roland."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus)*, pp. 5-6.—See also MYTHOLOGY: Meaning of the word; BALLAD: Definition; Development; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-16th centuries; FRENCH LITERATURE: 1050-1350; GERMAN LITERATURE: 1050-1350; SAGA; ARTHURIAN LEGEND; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 9th-13th centuries.—"The greatest of these [Hellenic] bards was Homer, who lived in Asia Minor perhaps in the ninth or in the eighth century. He incorporated nothing, but created his great poems afresh, making use, however, of much traditional subject matter. The *Odyssey* was composed after the *Iliad*; yet both may have been the product of one genius. After their completion by Homer the poems were to some extent interpolated. No analysis of the subject matter for historical purposes will satisfy every scholar. Much of the material civilization is clearly Minoan, and may be distinguished by archaeological study, although important elements are later than that period. In the political sphere the vast pretensions of king and nobles and their contempt for the commons seem Minoan, whereas the actualities of political life are largely those of Homer's time and place. The same principle holds for society. The religion, too, is composite; earlier and contemporary elements are mingled. In a word, each detail of Homeric life requires individual consideration, and on many points, because of a lack of determinative facts, it will be impossible for scholars to agree."—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, p. 5.—"In Hesiod we come down to an actuality which moves no longer among gods and men of might; but in his work the common and commonplace are mirrored, we may say, with photographic fidelity. . . . The poet's time has been computed for about 700 B.C. or perhaps somewhat later. In his personality there are reflected thoughtfulness and meditation rather than imagination and enthusiasm. His *Theogony* was the first effort of the Hellenic world to construct through a system of genealogies and pedigrees a unity of Heaven and Earth and their history. The epic of the *Heroines* . . . continued this constructive process and dove-tailed it into the ancestral legends of the chief families associated with the principal communities or states of Greece. . . . So far as we know, it was Hesiod who made the first attempt to divide the past into periods;

and far from conceiving a development, he assumed a succession of declines. He calls his own time the Iron age, before which have come and passed the Golden, the Silver, and the Bronze. Curiously enough, this process of recession and decline was for an epoch stopped or inhibited,—that is, the Fourth age was an heroic age, the period of the Seven against Thebes and of the Trojan war, but now there is no intimation of any survival of that heroic spirit. Socially the horizon of the Ascran farmer is narrow, morally it is large and wide. If we look at the abundant data of material living, there is here a detail of the year and of the husbandman's changing task, of house and home, of summer and winter, of wife and children and fire-side, of servants and slaves, of crops and harvests and vintage, of seafaring and of a form of trade, which, in part, may still have been barter. No other piece of ancient literature brings us into so close and realistic touch with country people and rural conditions."—*Ibid.*, pp. 8-10.—See also GREEK LITERATURE: Period of the epic.

ALSO IN: G. Murray, *Rise of the Greek epic*.

14. Early oriental historiography.—"Egyptian chronology is full of difficulties, and without more materials than we possess at present can be little else than a system of guess-work. We must be content to date the period preceding the seventh century B.C. by dynasties rather than by years. All we can state with certainty is that the chronology, historically considered, is an enormously long one, and that the earlier dynasties must be placed at least 6000 years ago. Our authorities are partly classical, partly monumental. The most important is Manetho (in Egyptian Mei en-Tahuti—"Beloved of Thoth"), a priest of Sebennytos, who was entrusted by Ptolemy Philadelphus (B.C. 284-246) with the task of translating into Greek the historical works contained in the Egyptian temples. Unfortunately Manetho's work is lost, and we have to depend for our knowledge of it upon the meagre and sometimes contradictory extracts made by Josephus, Eusebius, Julius Africanus, and George Syncellus. . . . Manetho's list has come to us in a very corrupt condition, and . . . the numbers contained in it must be received with extreme caution. . . . His statements, notwithstanding the imperfect state in which they have reached us, are in the main correct. The monumental names can generally be detected under their Greek disguises, the scheme of dynasties has received full confirmation, and the chronology of the Sebennyti priest seems rather to err on the side of defect than of excess."—A. H. Sayce, *Ancient empires of the East*, pp. 14-16.—"It is possible that the sources from which Manetho composed his history may yet be recovered. What they were we may gather from the famous Turin papyrus, written in the time of Ramses II., and found probably in a tomb at Thebes. . . . In spite of the horribly mutilated condition, the papyrus is nevertheless of the highest value. A considerable number of royal names are preserved, many of them otherwise unknown as well as the years and months each king reigned."—*Ibid.*, p. 20.—See also MANETHO, LIST OF; EGYPT: Historical antiquity.—"Until the decipherment of the cuneiform inscriptions our knowledge of Babylonian and Assyrian history was at once meagre and uncertain. With the exception of Herodotos, whose notices were scanty and of doubtful value, we had to depend almost entirely on the copyists and excerptists of Ktesias and Berossos. Ktesias was a native of Knidos, and the physician of Artaxerxes Mnemon, but he seems to have been devoid of critical power. . . . In the later Persian period, however, Ktesias becomes more trustworthy.

The work of Berossos was of a far different character. He was a priest of the temple of Bel at Babylon, and is said by Eusebios and Tatian to have been a contemporary of Alexander the Great, and to have lived into the reign of Antiokhos Soter. He had, therefore, special opportunities of knowing the history and astronomy of his country, upon which he wrote in Greek. Recent discoveries have abundantly established the truthworthiness of this Manetho of Babylonia, whose works, unfortunately, are known to us only through quotations at second and third hand. Since a cylinder of Antiokhos, the son of Seleukos, has been found inscribed in Babylonian cuneiform, while bilingual fragments in cuneiform and cursive Greek of the Seleukid age have also been discovered; and a contract tablet in Babylonian cuneiform, dated in the fifth year of the Parthian king, Pakoros, the contemporary of Domitian, exists in the Museum of Zurich, there is no reason why Berossos should not have been equally well acquainted with both the Greek language and the old literature of his native country. And in spite of the fragmentary and corrupt state in which his fragments have come down to us, we now know that he was so. His account of the Deluge, for instance, agrees even in its details with that of the cuneiform texts. . . . We can put no confidence in the numbers attached to the dynasties in which Berossos, like his contemporary, Manetho, arranged the list of Babylonian kings. . . . Berossos confined his attention to Babylonian history; the history of Assyria seems to have been compiled by Megasthenes in the time of Seleukos Nikator (B.C. 290), from whom (as Professor Schrader has shown) it was extracted by Abydenos (B.C. 260). Abydenos in turn survives only in the quotations of the Christian writers. But as Nineveh and its monuments had long been destroyed, the only sources Abydenos could have had for his history must have been the records of Babylonia; and it is not surprising, therefore, that the extracts we possess from his work all relate to the period of the Second Assyrian Empire, when Babylonia was brought into close contact with the northern kingdom. The earlier period must have been for the most part a mere blank, or else filled up with myth and legend. One more classical authority for Babylonian history remains. This is the valuable Canon of Ptolemy, preserved in the *Almagest*, and giving the chronology of Babylon from B.C. 747 downwards. It probably came from Berossos. Other classical notices of Assyro-Babylonian history may be passed over; like those of Diodoros, they are little more than echoes of Ktesias. It is only the Old Testament which gives us fuller and more trustworthy information. It is, therefore, to the native texts that we have mainly to look for the history of Assyria and Babylonia. These are partly contemporaneous with the events they record, partly more recent compilations. The statements of those that are contemporaneous may be frankly accepted, due allowance being made for oriental exaggeration and tendency to self-praise. The Assyrian historical documents, however, are singularly free from these faults. They were intended to be read by a large and well-educated public, and the practical character of the Assyrians made them realistic in style. The historical inscriptions are scrupulous in recording the names, and if possible the parentage, of the foreign princes whom they mention; every small town is carefully noted by name, and the numbers, whether of conquered populations and spoil, or of the Assyrian armies, are seldom round and never excessive. Even the disaster which befell Sennacherib—the least trustworthy of all the royal authors—in Palestine is not

denied or glossed over; it is simply omitted, leaving a break which presupposes it. Of course, the same accuracy or trustworthiness cannot be expected in later compilations, and many of these, like the legend of Sargon of Agade, merely embody popular tales. But such legends belong rather to Babylonia than to Assyria, where the historical sense was really remarkably developed, and the extreme faithfulness with which old documents were copied inspires us with confidence in the statements made regarding them. The Assyrians early possessed a fixed chronology, reckoned by the names of officers called *limni*, who were changed every year, and, like the eponymous archons at Athens, gave their name to their year of office. The chief events of each year were added to the name of its eponym, and in the earlier period of the empire the king himself assumed the office in his year of accession. We possess fragments of several editions of the Canon in which the names of the eponyms were recorded in order, and thus have an exact chronology of the empire from B.C. 913 to B.C. 650. . . . The system of eponyms . . . seems to have been confined to Assyria, and the early Chaldeans do not appear to have had any settled system of chronology. Their inscriptions, if dated at all, are dated by such events as the capture of a city or an inundation of the river. Still they must have had some more definite mode of counting time, since Assur-bani-pal affirms that Cudur-Nank-hundi, the Elamite, had oppressed Accad 1635 years before his own conquest of Shushan; while the table of Babylonian dynasties, first discovered by Mr. Smith, assigns to each king the length of his reign in years, months, and days. It must have been some such table as this which was used by Berossos. . . . It is only with the era of Nabonassar (B.C. 747), and the mutual help afforded by the Assyrian inscriptions and the Canon of Ptolemy, that an exact chronology of Babylonia begins. For the empire of Nebuchadrezzar the records of the Egibi banking firm are invaluable—dated deeds extending, year by year, from the reign of Nebuchadrezzar to the close of that of Darius Hystaspis."—*Ibid.*, pp. 90-105.—See also BABYLONIA: Historical sources.—"The honor of having first produced a true historical narrative of considerable scope and high relative veracity," writes Professor Barnes, "must be accorded to the Hebrews of ancient Palestine." "History, in the modern sense of the term, cannot be looked for in the Old Testament, at least only to a limited degree. The narrators of past events did not, as a rule, consider it their duty to criticise the historicity of the traditions which had been handed down to them, and to distinguish between what was true and what was false, to separate the legendary from the historical. If they did criticise at all, they only did so in the sense that they quietly ignored what seemed to be untrue. The finer differences between popular legends and strict history were unknown to most of them. Where they, or rather the compilers, do exercise criticism, it is, as we shall point out later, in a different sense. Therefore, what we find in the historical writings of the Old Testament generally, is a compilation of narratives, describing the nation's past, its great men, and its religious traditions, which were current among the Israelites and had been gradually collected."—R. Kittel. *Scientific study of the Old Testament*, pp. 93-94.—"The first to conceive the really epoch-making idea that the Pentateuch is a compilation of different records, which had at one time an independent existence, was, strange to say, a layman in the world of Biblical research, namely, Jean Astruc, physician-in-ordi-

nary to his Majesty Louis XIV. of France (1753). His clever conclusion is now almost universally accepted, in spite of all that has justly or unjustly been brought against it. He observed that in the narratives of the book of Genesis—to which book he confined himself—the name of the Deity changed, in what seemed an arbitrary and inexplicable manner, from 'God' (Heb. Elohim) to 'the Lord' (Heb. Jahwe), and *vice versa*, and he concluded that two independent records must have been compiled to form the present book. He therefore distinguished between an Elohist and a Jahwist document. . . . This theory of two records or 'sources' was later developed by Ilgen (1798). He believed that he could perceive two separate sources within the Elohist document, an older and a younger. Later scholars recognized one of these Elohist sources as a priestly document or Priestly Code, and so we have a triad of narrative and legal writings, which the editor (R) compiled—a Jahwist (J), an Elohist (E), and a second Elohist which was also a Priestly Code (P or PC).—*Ibid.*, pp. 71-72.—"Among the authentic results of Pentateuch criticism the most important is the existence of several records, historical and legislative, from which the present Pentateuch has been compiled; further, that the chief sources of antediluvian as well as patriarchal and Mosaic histories are J, E, and P, and that J and E represent an older tradition than P. . . . Of the legal writings, as we have already heard, the Book of the Covenant forms the oldest part and belongs to a very early period; then comes the book of Deuteronomy (D) and the Law of Holiness (H); whilst P, at least, taken as a whole represents the latest addition to this class of literature. As another authentic conclusion, I maintain that J and E, in respect of their authorship, at least as regards their real authors, belong to the ninth and eighth centuries B.C. respectively. . . . "The present books of Judges, Samuel, and Kings . . . are the products of a thorough compilation and revision. . . . Deuteronomic editors did not regard their subject-matter from the purely historical standpoint, but rather from that of their own characteristic principles, which, in their view, history as a whole is to exemplify. The end they had in view was not the compilation of historical facts, but history is consciously and deliberately made a teacher of life. Past events are not related merely in order to make known what the condition of things was in days gone by, but to show how the future could be made better, and how the errors of the past may be avoided. On this account the selection of the material is naturally biased. A redaction influenced by such ideals as those of the Deuteronomic school, could not make use of everything at hand, but was compelled to select only what seemed to be suitable, and to reject what did not conform to their ideas. . . . Only a few words need be added concerning the *later historical writings*. In the books of Chronicles we have a parallel to a large part of the earlier historical books. But the value of Chronicles is much less than that of the latter. Where the Chronicles go their own way, they often follow a very late tradition, which is not always unbiassed. The chroniclers either omitted the displeasing or disturbing features in the traditions at their disposal, or altered them and thus presented quite a different picture from that conveyed in the original. Above all, the Chronicles have been strongly influenced by very pronounced priestly ideals, so that on this account the older traditions have undergone changes to harmonize with the priestly teaching. Although this book can, therefore, only be accepted with great reservation as a record of history,

the books of Ezra and Nehemiah, which are probably from . . . the same hand as the book of Chronicles, are, however, of a different type. It is true that we must regard certain parts of these books with distrust, but in this case the books relate the history of a much later period than the Chronicles, and the narrator therefore is in a much better position, in that he speaks of events which were nearer to him in time than the events described in the Chronicles.—*Ibid.*, pp. 78, 101, 105-106, 114-115.—For Hebrew history, from the conquest of Palestine by Alexander the Great to the accession of John Hyrcanus, the first Book of Maccabees, although highly colored and partisan, is a trustworthy source of information. It gives a stirring account of the struggle of Judas Maccabæus and his successors against the Syrian domination of Palestine, and takes a high place in Hebrew historiography. Flavius Josephus (c. 37-105 A.D.) was the last great Hebrew historian. "In Rome he wrote a 'History of the Jewish War' in the tongue commonly spoken among Jews in the East, for he intended it for the instruction of his countrymen beyond the Euphrates. He afterwards translated it into Greek. Both Titus and Agrippa bore testimony to its accuracy; though its bias is unquestionably in favor of his patrons in Rome. Titus ordered a copy to be placed in the public library, and signed it with his own hand, in testimony of its being an authentic memorial of his own times. About the year A.D. 93, Josephus published his great work on the 'Antiquities of the Jews.' This book is the Bible History, presented in such a way as to make a favorable impression upon Greek and Roman readers."—E. W. Latimer, *Judea from Cyrus to Titus*, p. 368.—See also JEWS.

"The Chinese have undoubtedly surpassed all other great oriental peoples in the department of historical literature. . . . No people can boast of so lengthened and strictly continuous a series of historical writers; since for upwards, apparently, of 2600 years a tribunal has been established in the capital expressly for the recording of events supposed to be of national importance. The mass of Chinese literature is immense. It includes the histories of particular dynasties, annals or chronological summaries, complete records or general histories, memoirs of many kinds, biographies innumerable, vast historical dictionaries and compilations. It exhibits all ages and aspects of the national life, and much of it is written in a style which commends itself to Chinese taste as admirable. But even Chinese historiography scarcely rises above the stage of annals. . . . The two most celebrated historians of China, although separated by twelve centuries, bear the same family name. Szema-Thsian (born about B.C. 145) wrote 'Historical Records' (Sze Ke), a kind of encyclopædia of all that appeared historically noteworthy in the annals of China from the reign of Hwang-te to that of Wo-te—*i.e.*, from about 2697 before the Christian era to the age in which the author lived. He distributed his materials into three divisions, and various subdivisions, yet presented them as far as possible chronologically. . . . It has served as a model to many subsequent Chinese historians, is regarded with admiration by native critics, and has been highly commended by such eminent European authorities as Schott and Remusat. Szema-Kwang, often styled the 'Prince of Literature,' flourished in the eleventh century of our era, and produced the 'Universal Mirror for Rulers' (Tsze Che Tung Këen). It describes a period of 1362 years, and flows on, in the main, as a single continuous stream of narrative. It has been the most popular of Chinese histories. It has been often

added to, and with the additions bringing the record onwards to the eighteenth century, it was translated into French by Father Mailla, and published by Grosier and Le Roux in 12 vols., 1777-83."—R. Flint, *Philosophy of history in Europe*, pp. 44-45.—See also CHINESE LITERATURE: Confucius, the founder.

ALSO IN: H. R. Hall, *Ancient history of the Near East*, ch. 1.—R. W. Rogers, *History of Babylonia and Assyria*, v. 1, ch. 10.

15. **Philosophic interpretation of history.—Greek and Roman.**—"One may distinguish two phases of philosophic interpretation of history, that in which the philosophy is in reality a theology and that in which it is natural science. In the first phase we are still close to myth. Myth places the cause of events in Mystery of some sort—deities, demons, the Fates, or Fortune. Early philosophy proceeds upon these assumptions, which also penetrate most antique histories. Even Polybius, hard-headed, much-experienced man of the world, cannot quite attribute to natural causes the rise of Rome. Fortune, that wayward goddess of Caesar, had something to do with it—how much it would be hard to say. Livy had this myth-philosophy to the full; every disaster had its portent, every triumph its omen. This was the practical philosophy of all but the few calm thinkers whose scepticism passed into the second phase, which reached all the way from an open question whether or not the gods interfered in human affairs to the positive denial of their influence. The great source-book for such interpretations of history is Cicero's *On the Nature of the Gods*, where one may find in the guise of a theological discussion a résumé of the various pagan philosophies of history. . . . Moreover there were two reasons why antique philosophy could not accomplish much. It lacked the instruments by which to penetrate into the two centres of its problem: psychology, to analyze the mind, and experimental laboratories, to analyze the setting of life or life itself. It had some knowledge of psychology, to be sure, and some experimental science, but relatively little; and it never realized the necessity for developing them. It sharpened the reason to an almost uncanny degree, and played, like a grown athlete, with ideas. But it followed the ideas into their ideal world and left this world unaccounted for. Above all, it knew practically nothing of economic and material elements in history. Even a Thucydides has no glimpse of the intimate connection between the forces of economics and of politics. History for him is made by *men*, not by grain-fields and metals. It was not until the nineteenth century—just the other day—that economic factors in historical causation were emphasized as playing a rôle comparable to that of man himself."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history* (*American Historical Review*, July, 1913).

16. **Greek historians.**—"In the sixth century B.C., the age that saw the birth of Hellenic science, the epics current under the name of Homer and Hesiod's genealogical poems formed in the mind of the Greeks the background of their history. . . . A notable advance was made by Hecataeus of Miletus, a younger contemporary of Acusilaüs. He was the author of a geography entitled *Circuit of the Earth*. The voyages of the Ionians to all parts of the Mediterranean and its tributary waters for commerce and colonization supplied him with the knowledge necessary for such a work. . . . His *Genealogies* differ from those of his predecessors in dealing extensively with the historical period. The extant fragments prove, too, that he was gifted with a nascent critical

spirit. There can be no doubt that Herodotus drew extensively from him, and that though he is set down among the logographi, he deserves to be called the earliest of historians.

"From Hecataeus to Herodotus the advance is not so much in critical ability and accuracy of statement as in literary genius, in largeness of mind, and amiability of character. It is clear, however, that Herodotus doubted some things which Hecataeus accepted, that in the later writer there was an appreciable growth of the historical spirit. . . . The object of his literary labor is expressed in his preface: 'This is a presentation of the Inquiry—*Historia*—of Herodotus of Halicarnassus to the end that time may not obliterate the great and marvellous deeds of the Hellenes and the Barbarians, and especially that the causes for which they waged war with one another may not be forgotten.' So far as we know, he is the first to apply the word *Historia* to the department of literature of which he was laying the foundation. In his mind the term cause . . . far from signifying historical causation in the modern sense, meant in particular the grievances of the parties to the war, which expressed themselves in the series of events leading to that struggle. In tracing these events he narrates from the earliest known times the notable achievements of all the peoples engaged in the great struggle. His production may be described therefore as a universal history, the unifying element of which is the ultimate conflict. . . . Hellanicus of Mytilene lived to see the close of the Peloponnesian war, and occupied accordingly a place next after that of Herodotus. In spirit and method, however, he connected closely with the logographi; his chief interest was in myth and genealogy. It was his task to carry much farther than his predecessors the extension and systematizing of pedigrees. . . . A part of the work of Hellanicus was to bring the early chronology of other states into harmony with that of Argos. In his *Atthis*—Attic chronicle—for example, he inserted new names in the existing list of kings in order to synchronize Athenian with Argive history; and we may assume that in the case of other states his method was similar. . . . It seems clear that the chronological outline of early Hellas accepted by later authors was largely his work. The portion dealing with the period anterior to about 750 is almost wholly fictitious, an arbitrary system of myth and actual invention joined with an extremely scant and uncertain tradition. While his chief interest was in remote antiquity, he treated meagerly of recent times. His *Atthis* extended to the close of the Peloponnesian war. While we possess mere shreds of the vast works of Hellanicus, we are fortunate in having the entire production of Thucydides, universally reputed the greatest of ancient historians. . . . The period anterior to the war [Peloponnesian] he surveys by way of introduction to his theme; and yet this portion, brief as it is, is of the highest value not only for the facts it contains, but also as an illustration of the author's method. . . . His method of drawing deductions from the survival of customs and conditions and from archaeological remains and of making allowances for the mistakes and exaggerations of earlier authors has been adopted by modern historians. Historians before Thucydides limited themselves to the time before the Persian war or to that war itself. The period intervening between the Persian and the Peloponnesian war was omitted by all with the exception of Hellanicus; and he, where he touched upon it in his Attic chronicle (*Syngraphé*), was very brief, and in his chronology inaccurate. . . . Thucydides adopts

what he considers a better chronological system. . . . The advantage of reckoning time by the natural year, rather than by the conflicting civil years of the various states, Thucydides fully appreciates, although he seems to have no conception of the importance of an era of chronology for fixing the period of his history in its appropriate universal relation. This shortcoming is probably due in the main to the concentration of his attention upon the present, which he regards as all-important: 'Former ages were not great either in their wars or in anything else.' . . . This high valuation of the present as compared with the past he shares with the sophists. He is at one with them also in his desire to impart useful information. The chief object of Herodotus had been to entertain the public, that of Thucydides was to furnish information useful to the general and statesman. . . . It is universally granted that Thucydides, though by no means infallible, possesses the quality of accuracy in an extraordinarily high degree. His theme [the Peloponnesian War] is extremely narrow—a war rather than a period of national development; yet within this limited field he is deep and thorough. With marvelous analytical power he lays bare the spirit of government and the soul of political factions. When he has to do with persons, he tells us nothing of their outward appearance, their habits, or mannerisms, but reveals the mind only."—G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, pp. 20-29.—"Thucydides," says Sir Richard Jebb, 'was the greatest historian of antiquity, and, if not the greatest that ever lived; as some have deemed him, at least the historian whose work is the most wonderful, when it is viewed relatively to the age in which he did it.'"—J. H. Wright, *Masterpieces of Greek literature*, p. 319.—"An orthodoxy of appreciation surrounds the works of the old masters in any art; the heretics 'fail to understand.' But heresy has a moral if not an artistic justification, and we must register the disappointment of the reader of Thucydides who comes to him in the hope that he will find in his pages a living picture of the cities which waged the war. To be sure, he did not write for us; he wrote for Athenians, or at least for Greeks, and they took for granted what we wish most to know. But the fact remains that the work lacks for us its central theme. . . . There are at least four major elements in his history which he would now recast. In the first place he would have to admit his inability to grapple with the past. He lacked both the implements for dealing with it and a sense of its bearings upon the present. In the second place he failed to give an adequate picture of Greek politics, keeping too close to the definite politics of the war to catch its working as a whole; and he missed altogether the economic forces which underlay so much of both war and politics. Finally, he put the political and diplomatic elements of his story into the form of speeches by the leading characters,—a device common to all antique historians, but which violates the primary laws of historical work today."—J. T. Shotwell, *Introduction to the history of history*, pp. 165, 167.—"It remains for us to gather up the details, and to form some general estimate of the genius and character of the great historian. Whatever faults of style, whatever transient fashion of involving his thoughts, may be due to a sophistic education, and to the desire of exhibiting depth and acuteness, there cannot be the smallest doubt that in the hands of Thucydides the art of writing history made an extraordinary stride, and attained a perfection which no subsequent Hellenic, and few modern writers, have attained. If the subject

which he selected was really a narrow one, and many of the details trivial, it was nevertheless compassed with extreme difficulty, for it is at all times a hard task to write contemporary history, and more especially so in an age when published documents were scarce, and the art of printing unknown. Moreover, however trivial may be the details of petty military raids, of which an account was yet necessary to the completeness of his record, we cannot but wonder at the lofty dignity with which he has handled every part of the subject. There is not a touch of comedy, not a point of satire, not a word of familiarity throughout the whole book, and we stand face to face with a man who strikes us as strangely un-Attic in his solemn and severe temper. . . . I trust that in refuting this undue glorifying of a favourite author, I have not detracted ought from the great and enduring merits of the historian who has taught us to know more of Greek interpolitical life than all other Greek authors put together. In acuteness of observation, in intellectual force and breadth, in calmness of judgment, in dignity of language, there has never been a historian greater than Thucydides."—J. P. Mahaffy, *History of classical Greek literature*, v. 2, pt. 1, pp. 119, 123.—"To the circumstance that he is one of the very few classical Greek historians whose work has survived, Xenophon owes a prominence to which his qualities do not entitle him. In history as in philosophy he was a dilettante; he was as far from understanding the methods of Thucydides as he was from apprehending the ideas of Socrates. . . . So far as history is concerned, his true vocation was to write memoirs. The *Anabasis* is a memoir, and it is the most successful of his works. It has the defects which memoirs usually have, but it has the merits, the freshness, the human interest of a personal document. The adventures of the Ten Thousand are alive forever in Xenophon's pages. He took up the story of the Peloponnesian war where Thucydides had left it, and he carried down the history of Greece from that date to the fall of the Theban supremacy, in the work which we know as the *Hellenica*. By this work his powers as a historian must be judged. Some of its characteristics are due to the superficial lessons which the author learned from the founder of political history. . . . The life of Polybius covered about the first eighty years of the second century B.C. (c. 198-117 B.C.)—the period of the great destinies of Greece and Rome. He was born in the Hellenistic world, a noble representative of its civilisation, to become the herald of the new Græco-Roman world into which he witnessed the Hellenistic system passing. . . . His original design was to relate the history of the advance of Roman conquest, through a period of fifty-three years from the eve of the Second Punic war (220 B.C.) to the Roman conquest of Macedonia (168 B.C.). . . . Subsequent events, the fall of Carthage and the annexation of Greece in 146 B.C., led Polybius to extend his plan and fix this later year as the term of his history. In its augmented form it reached the considerable bulk of forty Books, of which only the first five had been preserved completely, though of many of the others we possess long excerpts. . . . Both Polybius and Thucydides, held with equal conviction that the first obligation of a historian is to discover and relate facts as they actually occurred, and herein they both represented a reaction against the history which held the field. Each alike feels that the purpose of his work is to be instructive and not to be entertaining. Polybius is fully aware that for the majority of the reading public his work



will have no attractions; it is intended for statesmen, not for antiquarians or people who want to be amused. . . . [Polybius] . . . stands out among the few ancient writers who understand the meaning and recognise the obligation of historical truth and impartiality. Belonging to no school, he opposed the tendencies of the current historiography of the day."—J. B. Bury, *Ancient Greek historians*, pp. 150-152, 191-193, 209, 217.—See also GREEK LITERATURE: Late development of prose; First part of Greco-Roman period; Greco-Roman period: History.

ALSO IN: T. Gomperz, *Greek thinkers*.—G. B. Grundy, *Thucydides and the history of his age*.

17. Roman historiography and historians.—"The pride of the early Romans led them both to falsify their own history and to take some measures to preserve the memory of it. Their registers, their *fasti* and annals, were only meagre and unsatisfactory materials for history. As an art history was late in appearing at Rome. . . . The first Latin work entitled to be called a history would seem to have been the 'Origines' of Cato. For a considerable time Roman historiography was uncritical and inartistic; and it was from the first affected by a vice which inhered in it to the end—namely, a tendency to subordinate truth to what was supposed to be for the interest of the State, or for the edification of the individual."—R. Flint, *Philosophy of history in Europe*, p. 57.—"We should have a better idea of the situation if the works of Varro had come down to us in anything like the way in which those of Cicero were preserved. . . . There remain but slight fragments of the many writings of Varro. . . . The only work which concerns us, however, is his treatise on *Roman Antiquities*, published in 47 B.C. There were twenty-five books dealing with human and sixteen with 'divine' antiquities. The data were grouped into large sections under Persons, Places, Times and Things. There was no attempt to establish their interconnection historically, but simply an amassing of curious facts. . . . Modern scholarship, correcting Varro in places, is upon the whole able to profit better from the data he offers than were the Fathers of the Church; and perhaps, also, better than the believing pagans. To these Varro supplied something like a 'counterblast' to the negative criticism of Lucretius, and helped to restore that emphasis upon the good old Roman virtue of *pietas*, upon which the Vergilian epic was so strongly to insist."—J. T. Shotwell, *Introduction to the history of history*, pp. 237.—"Cæsar and Sallust were the first Roman writers who produced works displaying historical genius. The Commentaries of Cæsar on the Gallic and Civil Wars are not only invaluable for the information which they contain, but are composed in a style perfect in its kind and in its relation to the subject. They are an admirable reflection of their author's mind. . . . They are simply military narratives, and cannot entitle Cæsar to a place in the highest rank of historians. Of historical philosophy of any kind, or general historical ideas, they show no trace. Cæsar was far too clear-sighted to state what was false, but no one probably knew better how to make silence serve his purpose, or so to present his facts as to make them suggest what it would hardly have become him to have said. . . . Sallust may justly be described as the first artistic historian or historical artist of Rome. His Catalinarian Conspiracy and Jugurthine War are small but choice and carefully finished pieces, in which their author's talents alike as historian and *litterateur* are seen to full advantage. In the selection, disposition, and general treatment of his subjects, as also in his style, he

took the work of Thucydides for his model. As regards the highest historical qualities, he must be admitted to have fallen much beneath his great exemplar. . . . He had remarkable skill in combining and disposing facts into pictures, in drawing characters by a few striking traits, and in juxtaposing and contrasting his personages. His moral reflections may be irrelevant, but his talent for moral portraiture was indubitable. He had a power of psychological, and consequently of moral, analysis, almost equal to that of Tacitus, although exercised on a much smaller scale. His works are from their own merits worthy of their reputation; and their relation to those of Thucydides on the one side, and to those of Tacitus on the other, give them a special interest for a student of the development of historiography. But it was neither in the sphere of universal nor of episodic history that the Latin historians performed their most distinctive work. It was in that of national history. . . . [See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 82-43.] Livy and Tacitus might, with little exaggeration, be described as the two first national historians on a large and prominent scale, and who, it may be added, had as such no worthy successors for sixteen hundred years. Livy narrated the events of Rome's career of heroic struggle and achievement with the colouring and in the tone most adapted to inspire the youth of his own generation with reverence and emulation of their ancestors. He was the greatest prose writer of his age. He narrated with unflinching vividness, sensibility, and charm, and could picture or portray with masterly vigour and skill. His ethical feeling was keen and pure. Patriotism was his strongest passion. And if the chief end of history be, as he obviously supposed, to supply examples and *stimuli* to virtue and patriotism, he certainly cannot be accused of having neglected the historian's main function. His whole work, as has been said, was a triumphal celebration of the heroic spirit and military glory of Rome.' It was natural that he should have been the most popular of the Roman historians. But unfortunately his great qualities were combined with great defects. He was superficial in research; easily satisfied in regard to evidence; prone to take the version of a story which told best; uncritical in the choice and use of authorities. Dazzled by the splendour of the military history of Rome, he neglected the study of its constitutional history. He lacked political insight. He lacked still more philosophical comprehension. Of the general conditions and causes which determined the course of Roman history, and of any law or plan in it, he had no glimpse. He was merely an annalist, although the most attractive and brilliant of analysts."—R. Flint, *Philosophy of history in Europe*, pp. 57-59.—"Of . . . [Livy's] work—originally consisting of 142 books—about one quarter has survived the Middle Ages. Its massive proportions and an early, though not original, division into decads (or sets of ten books) militated against preservation intact. . . . It is unreasonable to judge Livy by standards of modern research. It is imperative to take his own aim into account; his work in any case must be appraised as literature no less than as history; and he has a right to credit for his positive merits. . . . Livy conceived a colossal scheme. It was no less than an account of the life, customs, men, and training in peace and war, that had made Rome mistress of the world. . . . It is in the art rather than in the science of history that Livy's mastery is best assured. Here the striking features are his power of graphic description, his dramatic contrivances, his management of orations, his attention to char-

acter, and his noble language. . . . The fame which Livy won in his own day was increased by the admiration of his immediate successors. The 'fairest appraiser of all great talents,' as the elder Seneca called him, was sure to find enthusiastic readers. . . . The complete work, now divided into decads, lived on through the age of compendia and extracts. Priscian in the sixth century still quotes from the text direct. Thereafter Livy vanishes from sight till he reappears in John of Salisbury in the twelfth century. From that point onwards—in Dante, among the scholars of the Renaissance, and in more modern times—Livy's place has been secure."—J. W. Duff, *Literary history of Rome*, pp. 641, 648, 652, 662-663.—See also LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 43-A.D. 14.—"The elder Pliny's *History of the Wars of Germany* was begun when he was serving in that country, and may have been published under Claudius. It is, however, by no means certain that it was, and it seems most convenient to speak of the work under the Flavian dynasty, which saw the completion of the *Natural History* and the history in continuation of Aufidius. It has perished, and the only certain fragment is a statement concerning Agrippina preserved by Tacitus. . . . The author's nephew informs us that it contains in twenty books an account of all Rome's wars with the Germans. The history that bore the title *From the Conclusion of Aufidius Bassus* ran to thirty-one books, and was kept unpublished so that no one could suspect the author of having made in it any bids for imperial favour."—W. C. Summers, *Silver age of Latin literature from Tiberius to Trajan*, pp. 159-160.—See also LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 234-103.—"Tacitus was very unlike Livy in almost all respects, but as an historian he was like him in so far that his aim too was essentially moral and patriotic. . . . He delineated the growth of social corruption from the time of Tiberius onwards. . . . No historian has given so large a place to the moral element in history, yet without ever becoming a mere moralist or ceasing to be an historian. . . . His strong moral feelings may have given rise in certain cases to harsh judgments; but obviously they were, in general, under such firm control, that this must be deemed only a possibility, and in no particular instance assumed as a fact, or even as a probability. From what he knew of the corruption of the governing classes of Rome he may have drawn inferences as to the corruption of the whole social body which are not to be accepted without corroborative evidence, or which can be even proved exaggerated; but it is easy to attribute to Tacitus errors of this kind, which are really only mistakes of the reader's own, consequent on his not keeping in view the precise limits and scope of the two chief works of Tacitus. Notwithstanding his extraordinary intellectual power, Tacitus attained no settled convictions on which any general philosophy of history, or even any general conceptions of history, could be rested. . . . He is justly entitled to be regarded as a scientific or philosophical historian, inasmuch as he traced actions back to their motives, events to their causes, and penetrated to the secret springs of social change. In the analysis of character he surpassed all the historians of antiquity. Full of matter as his narrative is, it never contains anything trivial or superfluous. His style fitly exhibits the force, originality, and dignity of his mind. His words are singularly pregnant with meaning, and few of them could either be omitted or replaced by another without loss. He was unquestionably far the most eminent of the Roman historians."—R. Flint, *Philosophy of history in Europe*, pp. 60-61.—"The following is a list of the writings of

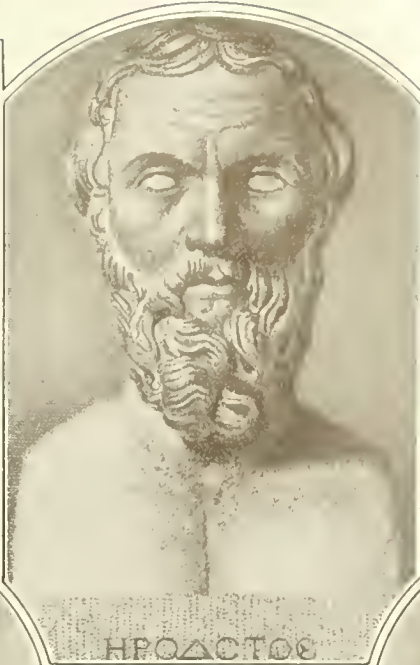
Tacitus. . . . *Dialogus de Oratoribus*.—This work was composed in the reign of Titus, or in the beginning of that of Domitian, and is the first-fruit of his historical studies. . . . *De origine, situ, moribus ac populis Germanorum*, sometimes called simply *Germania*, is an ethnographical treatise on Germany and the Germans, which Tacitus was induced to compose on account of the great interest which at that time Germany had for the Romans. . . . *Historiæ*.—This work comprised, in fourteen books, the history of the reigns of Galba, Otho, Vitellius, Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, i.e., the history of Rome from A.D. 60 to 96, or the history of Tacitus' own time. . . . *Annales* or *Ab excessu divi Augusti*.—After finishing the *Historiæ*, Tacitus went back and undertook to write the history of Rome from the death of Augustus till he reached the beginning of the *Historiæ*, i.e., it comprised the history of Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, so that the two works together formed a continuous history from the death of Augustus to that of Domitian. This work was written in the reign of Trajan, and must have been published between A.D. 115 and 117. It consisted of sixteen books, but a considerable part of it is lost."—L. Schmitz, *History of Latin literature*, pp. 168-170.—See also LATIN LITERATURE: A.D. 14-117.—"Suetonius Tranquillus (c. 75-160 A.D.) was, like Tacitus, an upper class Roman who devoted himself to scholarship; by no means so much a personage as Tacitus, but perhaps more of a scholar. In his researches he reminds one of Varro, for he had a perfect mania for finding and noting all kinds of details, physical peculiarities, trivial incidents, obscure situations, in short all the miscellany that might go into an encyclopædic *Notes and Queries* dealing with biography. He ultimately held a position where his insatiable curiosity could have full play, as secretary to Hadrian's prætorian prefect, Septicius Clarus, a position which opened to him the secret documents of the imperial cabinet. The result was a work as different as possible from Tacitus, yet sharing the same immortality by reason of the subjects of which it treated. *The lives of the Cæsars* (*De Vita Cæsarum* . . .) is a collection of biographies in eight books. The first six books are each devoted to the life of a single emperor (Cæsar to Nero), but the seventh book covers the revolutionary year 69 with the three emperors it produced, and the Flavians make up the eighth. It was published in the year 120 A.D. . . . Ammianus Marcellinus (c. 330-400 A.D.) was a native of Antioch who fought with the Roman armies all along the threatened frontiers, east and west. . . . *Rerum Gestarum Libri*, which carried the story of Rome from Nerva to the death of Valens (96-378 A.D.), was a performance worthy of the best company in antique historiography."—J. T. Shotwell, *Introduction to the history of history*, pp. 273-276.—See also ANNALS: Roman; LATIN LITERATURE: 2nd-4th centuries.

ALSO IN: G. Boissier, *Tacitus*.

18. Christian philosophy of history.—Patristic historiography.—"Christianity dropped [the] . . . rationalist tone of the Greeks, and turned the keen edge of Greek philosophy to hew a structure so vast in design, so simple in outline, that the whole world could understand and none escape. History was but the realization of religion—not of various religions, but of one; the working out of one divine plan. . . . For a thousand years and more it was the unquestioned interpretation of the meaning of history, easily adaptable to any circumstance because it covered all. It still is found wherever pure theology satisfies historical curiosity. . . . Science began to challenge the the-



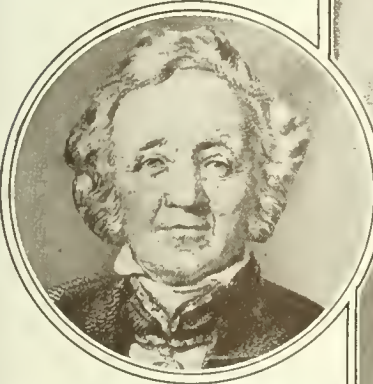
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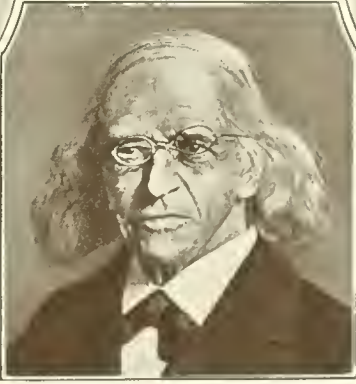
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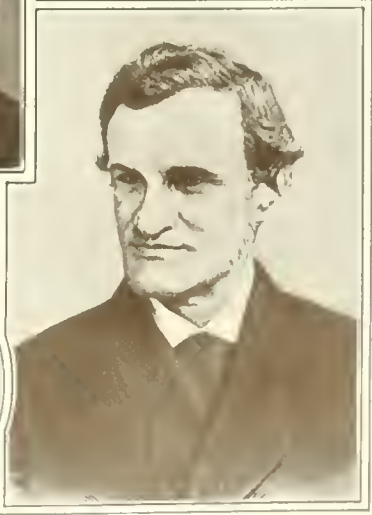
EDWARD GIBBON



WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT



ERNEST RENAN



FRANCIS PARKMAN

GREAT HISTORIANS



ological history of the universe before it challenged the theological history of man himself. . . . From Augustine to Bossuet one may trace an almost unbroken line of theological interpretations."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history (American Historical Review, July, 1913)*.—"Christianity was an historical religion: its basis not a cosmogony or a priestly code or a series of visions or a metaphysical system, but the story of a life—its prime documents a group of biographies. And these biographies linked the story of the master to the long annals of his people, whose history, like their law, their poetry, and the lofty teaching of their prophets, became the heritage of the younger faith. In that Hebrew literature, which carried them back to the very creation, and in the world-wide outlook of their own aspiring sect, Christian scholars now found inspiration for the first thought of a history truly universal, and with zeal took up the great task of knitting into a single story the chronologies of Orient and Occident. But to Christian historians the biographies which were the starting-point of that Christian historiography were the record of no merely human life. That long history which was now their preamble was the sacred story of the chosen people, with its Jacob's ladder forever linking earth to heaven. The central actor was Jehovah, now the God of all the earth. About that story and its culmination in the Gospels all other history must now fall into place; and from the sacred record—for the record too is sacred—may be learned the plans of the Omnipotent. It was Jerome who now found them in the interpretations and the visions of Daniel—in the image with head of gold and belly of brass, in the four great beasts that came up out of the sea—and from his day on almost to ours the changing empires of earth have been forced to find a place within that scheme. Whatever in non-sacred annals was found in conflict with Holy Writ must be discarded. What was left must be adjusted to its words. Man's career on earth became a fall. Nor might human wit exalt itself: Pythagoras and Plato had learned from Moses, Seneca from Paul. Yet history was still of moment, and earth was still its scene. But when the religious genius of Augustine, turning with disdain from earthly story, centred all interest on a State of God which filled the universe, and traced from revelation its career, even on the primal counsels of eternity to the ultimate goal of prophecy in the New Jerusalem, leaving to earth and time but a poor midway span—when even in that earthly span man's place was but a puppet's, his impulses the voice of guardian angel or besetting fiend, and all the spheres 'twixt Empyrean and Hell the battleground of God and Satan—when, to the growing exegesis of the Church, not even Holy Writ itself was prized for the poor literal facts of history, but for those deeper meanings, allegorical, moral, analogical, mystical, to be discerned beneath: then history, like all else, was lost in theology. The Middle Age did not dis sever them. Nay, to forbid it there grew to completeness that consummate preserver of the unity of thought, the procedure against heresy. And to the end of that long age of faith history did not escape the paternal eye. Yet even through that age history lived on. Great was often her freedom in all that lay beyond the line of sacred. Ever and again a biographer or a contemporary historian—an Einhard or a Nithard in the ninth century, a Villehardouin or a Joinville in the thirteenth—showed how vigorous still could be the interest in human affairs and human deeds. All

through that age one finds by snatches abundant proof of the same impulse. And long before the ending of that age the clergy's scribbling habit was heaping up materials that should one day prove rich for history."—G. L. Burr, *Freedom of history (American Historical Review, Jan., 1917)*.—"The greatest master of Christian allegory was Origen. While not a historian in the stricter sense, he contributed to Christian historiography one of its most remarkable chapters. He not only denied the literal truth of much of Genesis, and explained away the darker happenings in the history of Israel; but, even in the New Testament, he treated as parables or fables such stories as that of the Devil taking Jesus up into a high mountain and showing him the kingdoms of the world. One reads Origen with a startle of surprise. The most learned of the Fathers of the third century was a modern. His commentaries upon the bible might almost pass for the product of the nineteenth century. . . . Although the allegorical method of biblical interpretation was used by nearly all the Fathers—by none more than by the pope whose influence sank deepest into the Middle Ages, Gregory the Great."—J. T. Shotwell, *Christianity and history (Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods, Feb. 26, 1920)*.—"The path to Christian historiography lies . . . through a study of Christian chronology. The basis for this was the work of the Jewish scholars of the diaspora. When the Christian apologists of the second and third centuries attempted to synchronize the Old Testament history with that of the gentiles, they could fall back upon the work of a Jewish scribe, Justus of Tiberius, who wrote in the reign of Hadrian. He prepared a chronicle of Jewish kings, working along the same uncertain basis of 'generations' as had been used in gentile chronicles, and so claiming for Moses an antiquity greater than that of the oldest figures in Greek legend. . . . The first formally prepared Christian chronology did not appear until the middle of the third century when Julius Africanus wrote his *Chronographia*. It was a work in five books, drawing upon the writings of Josephus, Manetho and pagan scholars, and arranging the eras of the old dispensation in a series symbolical of creation itself. . . . Eusebius of Caesarea, the father of Church History, worked out from materials like these the chronology of the world which was to be substantially that of all the subsequent history of Europe to our own time, and preserved the precious fragments of his predecessors in the first history of Christianity. . . . Eusebius was a voluminous writer, 'historian, apologist, topographer, exegete, critic, preacher, dogmatic writer.' But his fame as a historian rests upon two works, the *Church History* and the *Chronicle*. Both were epoch-making. The one has earned for the author the title of Father of Church History; the other set for Christendom its frame-work in the history of the world. . . . This scholarly accuracy was combined with a vast learning. Eusebius had enjoyed the freedom of the great library of Pamphilus at Antioch, in his earlier days. He tells us that he gathered materials as well in the library at Jerusalem founded by Bishop Alexander, and Constantine seems to have opened his archives to him. But he learned not less from the busy world in which he lived."—*Ibid.*, Mar. 11, 1920.—"The work of Eusebius, in its primitive form, does not go further than the year 329; Saint Jerome translated it into Latin, adding a continuation as far as 378. The chronicle thus completed and vulgarized became the great historical authority

for the western world, side by side with the decidedly inferior compilation of Paulus Orosius (who died about 420), entitled *Historiarum Libri VII. adversus Paganos*.—G. Masson, *France (Early chroniclers of Europe)*, p. 4.

ALSO IN: A. Loisy, *Les Évangèles synoptiques*.—J. B. Bury, *History of the freedom of thought*, ch. 3.

19. History and historians in the Middle Ages.—“All those who aimed at the reputation of historians copied Eusebius, or rather Saint Jerome, tacking on to the original narrative the facts which had fallen under their own personal observation, the records of this or that monastery, the petty revolutions of this or that diocese. Amongst the numerous continuators of the . . . [work of Eusebius], we may name Marcellinus, chancellor to the Emperor Justinian (died 534), author of a chronicle extending from 379 to 534; and Idatius, a Spanish bishop, who, describing the events between 379 and 468, deals especially with the history of the Visigoths and of Southern Gaul. Marius, Bishop of Avenche, Victor, Bishop of Tunis, John, Abbot of Biclair, at the foot of the Pyrenees, Cassiodorus, Isidorus Hispalensis, and finally the well-known Bede, all belong to the same group of writers, and lead us on by a kind of uninterrupted chain from the year 445 to the year 726, having, as historians, the common characteristic of extreme dullness. . . . Prosper of Aquitaine (403-463?), one of the most distinguished members of the clergy of Marseille, the friend and correspondent of Saint Augustine, should certainly not be forgotten. He discussed the origin of the French nation in a work extending down to the death of Valentinian III. and the taking of Rome by Genseric in the year 455. Written as an abridgment, it follows the chronicle of Eusebius as far as the year 326, and for the subsequent events adheres to the text of Saint Jerome. . . . Cassiodorus, who flourished during the fifth century, . . . also wrote a *chronicon*, in obedience to the orders of Theodoric. . . . Style is entirely out of the question in the writings of Prosper, as well as in those of Gregorius Turo-nensis (539-593), who, however, judged from the standpoint of historical importance alone, is immeasurably superior to all the Latin annalists of the early Middle Ages. The *Historia Francorum* of the Bishop of Tours, divided into sixteen books, covers the space of 174 years, from 417 to 591, and is of the highest value for the whole period of the Merovingian dynasty. No one has described with more picturesque truth that strange condition of a society still in a state of disorganization where the work of conquest was not yet accomplished, and where a number of discordant elements had still to be welded together, so as to form one powerful nation. Romans, Gauls, Franks, Burgundians, contribute in equal proportion their share of interest to the dramatic narrative, and the contrast presented between the rudeness of the invaders and the comparative polish of Gallo-Roman society is extremely striking. . . . The authority of our chronicler may, perhaps, be challenged on certain points, and it would be a wonder if an annalist of the sixth century was always and uniformly accurate; but the Bishop of Tours must be judged less from the details of his work, than from the general view it gives us of the society amidst which he moved.”—G. Masson, *France (Early chroniclers of Europe)*, pp. 4-6, 11.—“Bede’s *Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation* . . . is certainly the most interesting narrative to be found in . . . early annals. . . . From the first the *Ecclesiastical History*

of Bede has always been regarded as a work of the highest interest. [See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries; CHRISTIANITY: 597-800.] After the lapse of several centuries it was still looked upon as the model of what a history ought to be, and after which other histories ought to be written. It was translated by the great king Alfred into the vernacular English of his own day, and it has been frequently translated since. No one, indeed, can be indifferent to such a remarkable record of the dawn of Christian civilization in this country, written so near the time itself by one of the most vigorous and many-sided intellects that England ever produced. Much of the information contained in it seems to have been derived from the memory of persons living in Bede’s own day. A good deal more was supplied to him by correspondents at London and at Canterbury. Some part also is believed to have been founded on native annals not now extant. It is evident that the author sought eagerly for information wherever it was to be found. . . . It must be owned that the art of writing history languished after the days of Bede. For about four centuries England scarcely produced any one deserving the name of a historian. Yet during that very period one remarkable record was preserved in the vernacular language, of all the important events from year to year; and though for the most part only a mere register of facts, it is impossible to pass over in silence such a great literary monument as the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. Originated, as some believe, by King Alfred, and certainly existing in his day . . . it was continued from age to age by various hands till after the death of Stephen.”—J. Gairdner, *England (Early chroniclers of Europe)*, pp. 10, 28, 49-50.—Geoffrey of Monmouth, bishop of St. Asaph (1100-1154), was one of the most interesting among English chroniclers. Through the Arthurian legend he attempted to consolidate English traditions and aimed to exaggerate their antiquity “by giving them a legendary origin and a long record of wonderful heroes.” (See ARTHURIAN LEGEND.) William of Malmesbury’s (1090-1143) efforts were concentrated in bringing out the importance of the church, and Giraldus Cambrensis (1160-1220) devoted his time to an account of the conquest of Ireland by Henry II.—See also BALLAD: Ballad and history.—“Roger of Hoveden (that is, of Howden, in Yorkshire) set himself to the task of continuing Bede’s *History* down to his own day, with the aid of several former compilations.”—*Ibid.*, p. 194.—Matthew Paris (1200-1259), wrote an account of the reign of Henry III from contemporary information given to him by both sides of the political struggle.—See also ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-11th centuries.—“As M. de Wailly well observes, Villehardouin is the father of French vernacular history. . . . The *Conquête de Constantinoble* is the first original French work of a thoroughly historical character. . . . It is not too much to say that his work is a masterpiece of candour and of veracity. . . . The *Conquête de Constantinoble* comprises the history of the events from 1108 to 1207. . . . The Latin empire founded in the East by the heroes of the fourth Crusade was not of long duration; Villehardouin’s record of it, to quote a recent critic, has outlived it, and it is no exaggeration to say that it will subsist as long as the French language. A captain, a statesman, and an historian, he reminds us sometimes of Thucydides, more frequently of Herodotus. . . . The chronicle of Jean Froissart extends from 1328 to 1400, and treats of the events which took place not only in France, but

in England, Scotland, Ireland, Flanders, Spain, and the other countries of Europe. . . . Froissart's chronicle is of the highest importance as a biographical and geographical *répertoire*; it may be considered as a kind of international temple, where all the grand feudal families of Europe are represented, and where our aristocracy can find its title-deeds. No writer excels him in describing the bustling scenes which took place around him. Gifted with a real passion for observing, knowing, and relating all that was worth attention, we fancy we can see him travelling from spot to spot, making friends everywhere by his agreeable manners, his lively temperament, his talent as a poet, and availing himself of the *otium cum dignitate* which he enjoyed, for the purpose of taking notes of all the deeds of valour and of chivalry which were performed throughout the battlefields of Europe."—G. Masson, *France (Early chroniclers of Europe)*, pp. 124-126, 132-133, 165, 168.—"For the next century may be mentioned Philippe de Comines (1436-1509), whose memoirs give an account by a contemporary of the relations between Louis XI of France and Charles the Bold of Burgundy."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus)*.—"The Middle Ages produced historical writers of high literary merit—Matthew Paris and Lambert of Herzfeld, Joinville and Froissart—whose testimony to events of their own time was fairly trustworthy; but the essential conditions of study did not exist. Printing was unknown and books were rare. The critical treatment of documents had not begun, nor was it realised that there was need to treat them critically. Happy in the treasures of his monastic library, the pious chronicler did not stop to investigate their value, and with equal innocence copied earlier compilations into his own pages. Though the forging of charters was a regular trade, the means of discovering such forgeries had not been invented. Recorded events were accepted without challenge, and the sanction of tradition guaranteed the reality of the occurrence. Finally, the atmosphere of the Middle Ages was saturated with theology. The influence of Augustine weighed with an almost physical pressure on the mind of Europe for a thousand years, diverting attention from secular history and problems. In view of the constant interposition of Providence, the search for natural causation became needless and even impertinent. History was a sermon, not a science, an exercise in Christian evidences, not a disinterested attempt to understand and explain the course of civilisation."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 1.—See also ANN 5: Medieval.

ALSO IN: H. O. Taylor, *Medieval mind*, ch. 10-13, 21, 31.—L. J. Paetow, *Guide to the study of medieval history*.

20. Medieval historical biography. — "The great historical authority for the reign of Charlemagne is Eginhard. . . . Independently of his correspondence, Eginhard has left two works of a distinctly historical character—1. *The Life of Charlemagne*; 2. *The Annals of his Time*. . . . Since the days of Gregorius Turonensis and of his continuators, the art of the historian had been making rapid progress, and . . . the ruggedness of the old annalists was softening down. *The Life of Charlemagne* is, without comparison, the most distinguished history from the sixth to the eighth century—indeed, the only one which can be called a history, for it is the only one in which we recognize any traces of composition, any political and literary pretension. . . . It is a genuine political biography, written by a man who was

present at the events he narrates, and who understood them. . . . It combines the importance of an excellent historical authority with the merits of a literary production, and if Eginhard's language is open to criticism, the plan of the work and the general harmony of its constituent part is, on the other hand, remarkable. . . . The biography of Saint Louis, which has immortalized the Sénéchal de Champagne, and which will endure as long as the French language, was composed long after the author's [Joinville] return from the Crusade, when he was stricken down by age, and without the slightest pretension on his part to obtain literary fame, or to pass himself off as a scholar. . . . It has been remarked that Villehardouin is often touching, but that he never smiles. Equal in beauty to the *Conquête de Constantinople*, but superior in point of attractiveness, the life of Saint Louis is also the narrative of the Crusade; but it is something more, and the history of the war may be considered as the framework destined to set off and bring out in strong relief the character of the king. . . . A modern writer has well pointed out the difference which separates Villehardouin from Joinville: the former is the brilliant exponent of feudal independence; the latter, by the biographical mould into which he has cast his narrative, already expresses the growing importance of the monarchical principle."—G. Masson, *France (Early chroniclers of Europe)*, pp. 31-33, 136, 140, 145.

ALSO IN: C. Gross, *Sources and literature of English history*.

21. Arabic historians and historiography.—"It must not be forgotten . . . that during the middle age there existed a Mohammedan as well as a Christian civilisation, and a Mohammedan as well as a Christian historiography. In the seventh century Mohammed founded a new religion, which first united into a single people the scattered tribes of Arabia, and then spread with unparalleled rapidity over the eastern provinces of Rome, Persia, Sænde, Egypt, North Africa, and Spain. It everywhere roused and quickened the minds of its believers; and for several centuries Moslim civilisation in most respects equalled, and in some surpassed, the Christian civilisation which it confronted. . . . In the early period of Mohammedan historiography a prominent place was occupied . . . by accounts of Mohammed, and of the wars in which his immediate followers were engaged. The genealogies of Arab tribes and families received much attention. The collection of the traditions relating to the Prophet and to religious beliefs and practices was a work in which great interest was felt and by which reputation was most easily gained. . . . One of the first and most important of these collections [of oral traditions] was Ibn Ishak's History of the Moslim Wars, a work of which we possess but a small portion, containing the life of Mohammed, with notes and additions by a later editor, Ibn Hisham; this is a book of the highest authority, and deservedly so, but it is unfortunately of great rareness. The History of Islamism, by At-Tabari, was formed also in a similar manner. . . . The method followed by Mohammedan historians in the composition of their works compelled them from the first to exercise a certain kind and measure of historical criticism. Proceeding on a recognition of the supreme importance of the testimony of the primary witnesses, it required an examination of the claims of those who passed for such. . . . We cannot credit the Arabic historians with the knowledge or practice of historical criticism in its modern sense. Wakidi, Tabari, Coteiba,

Mas'udi, were unacquainted with it. Ibn Khaldun stood almost alone in clearly apprehending its nature and realising its importance. . . . In the second century of the Mohammedan era *Hisham* was the most renowned of the genealogists. . . . *Ma'mar* (ben el-Muthana), who died in 209 A.H. (821 A.D.), published about 200 works, the most important of which treated of historical subjects. He wrote a history of Mecca and of Medina, but showed, like so many Arabic historiographers, a marked preference for themes relating to war. . . . His contemporary, *Wakidi* (d. 207 A.H.), enjoyed immense popularity in his lifetime, and his fame as an historian has in the East never waned. . . . A History of Mohammedan Conquests is his most important work, and it is an excellent, almost typical, example of the Arabic historiography of the time. . . . Among the historians of the period [815-912 A.D.] it may suffice to mention only *Bochari*, *Coteiba*, and *Tabari*. *Bochari* [Bukhari] acquired high fame as a commentator on the Koran, and became the most eminent authority on the subject of tradition. He wrote a work known as the Great History, on the trustworthy and untrustworthy traditionists; and drew up the *Kitab as-Sahih*, a collection of 7275 traditions which he regarded as genuine. . . . *Coteiba* was a man of varied literary gifts, and particularly distinguished as a philologist and exegete. His 'Book of Facts,' or, as *Wustenfeld* its editor calls it, 'Handbook of History,' and his 'Exquisite Histories,' are allowed to be characterised by exceptional keenness and comprehensiveness of research, and accuracy and elegance of statement. He showed great good sense in avoiding diffuseness, refraining from useless repetitions, and silently rejecting uncertified traditions. *Tabari* was born in 224 and died in 310 of the Hegira. His Commentary on the Koran is deemed by some judges an even greater work than his Annals; but, however this may be, the latter work has made his name one of the most renowned and esteemed in Arabic historiography. It may be reckoned the first General History written from the Mohammedan point of view. It began with the creation and ended with 302 A.H. (914 A.D.). It was planned on the largest scale, and executed with great skill and ability, with unsparing toil, with vast information, with independence of judgment, with attractiveness of style. It was a collection of historical traditions and documents so ample yet judicious, and so aptly combined, that it was at once recognised as a substitute for many, and a supplement to all, previous historical works. . . . The Mohammedan view of ancient history had all the defects of the medieval Christian view, with others peculiarly its own. *Tabari's* work had the fault of being far too long. The Arabic mode of writing history necessarily tended to excessive bulk, and its accompaniment excessive cost. Hence there was a demand for abridgments, and these often practically displaced the works which they summarised. With all its reputation and merits, the Chronicle of *Tabari* fell almost into oblivion after it had been abridged and continued by *El-Makin* (*Elmacin*). . . . Another historical writer of great celebrity was *Mas'udi*, whose life fell mostly within the tenth century of our era, as he died in 345 or 346 A.H. . . . He embodied the results [of his travels] in a 'History of the Times,' the wonder and delight of the East, yet so vast that it has never been printed. He, however, abridged it under the title of 'Meadows of Gold and Mines of Gems,' and on this abridgment his fame chiefly rests. . . . During five centuries after the death of *Mas'udi*, Arabic his-

toriography continued to be diligently cultivated. It was, perhaps, the last branch of Mohammedan literature to wither and decay. . . . As regards the science or philosophy of history, Arabic literature was adorned by one most brilliant name. Neither the classical nor the medieval Christian world can show one of nearly the same brightness. *Ibn Khaldun* (A.D. 1332-1406), considered simply as an historian had superiors even among Arabic authors, but as a theorist on history he had no equal in any age or country until *Vico* appeared, more than three hundred years later. *Plato*, *Aristotle*, and *Augustine* were not his peers, and all others were unworthy of being even mentioned along with him. He was admirable alike by his originality and sagacity, his profundity and his comprehensiveness. He was, however, a man apart, as solitary and unique among his co-religionists and contemporaries in the department of historical philosophy as was *Dante* in poetry or *Roger Bacon* in science among theirs. Arabic historians had, indeed, collected the materials which he could use, but he alone used them."—*R. Flint, Philosophy of history in Europe, pp. 78-83, 85-86.*

22. History and the humanists.—"Amid this conflict of ideas and ideals [during the Renaissance] three other movements typified the changes then coming about in European life and thought. The first was the emergence of historical scholarship. . . . It was no mere casual concurrence of unrelated circumstances that in the same year of the preceding century in which the Portuguese were finding their way about Cape Bojador fair on the way to India, the Italian scholar, *Valla*, not only demonstrated the falsity of the so-called Donation of Constantine, but detected flaws in *Livy* and even in the Vulgate itself [see EUROPE: Middle Ages: Science]. From that spring flowed a stream of destructive historical criticism which, by the beginning of the sixteenth century, had powerfully aided not only the humanists but the reformers. To its development the investigations of the Roman, *Biondo*, in the Papal archives contributed. To this the labors of the Florentine historians, *Varchi*, *Guicciardini*, and, above all, *Machiavelli*, joined to produce a new school of history. Of these the last was the greatest. In his *Discourse on the Language of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio*, in his books on *Livy*, and, still more in his *History of Florence*, he typified that method of critical investigation which was rapidly superseding the blind processes of 'harmonizing' rather than comparing historical material, by discarding what seemed to be untrue and so raising history from legend to at least an approximation to truth. To these he added his great contribution to political thought, on which his chief fame rests, *The Prince*; and, whether it be reckoned merely a description of the motives which ruled men in the age of the tyrants, or as a satire, or as a manual of the theory and practice of despotism, it remains not merely a masterpiece of the maxims of that school of statecraft, but an example of a new school of thought which for the first time in modern history looked its phenomena in the face and set them down as they were."—*W. C. Abbott, Expansion of Europe, pp. 182-183.*—"Too many things were left out of *Machiavelli's* view of society. Of economic development he took no account; of a sensitive and active conscience that determines the deeds of men he did not dream; of social progress he had no thought; of the fact that a nation cannot be made by the arbitrary will of a single man but that its growth is just as organic in its own



way as is that of a plant he had no suspicion; and in an aspiring religion that transforms and sublimates the ideals of men he did not believe. [See also ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1450-1505.] The man who continued the history of Florence, Francesco Guicciardini (1482-1540), was one of the keenest observers of society that has ever recorded the things he witnessed. Like his predecessor he gained experience in the field of practical politics and he had a varied opportunity for direct observation. Circumstances eventually compelled him to retire into private life, and there it was that he began his remarkable History of Italy. . . . He was more interested in the facts of history than was his predecessor and in their accurate interpretation. He was distrustful of general ideas. The critical sense was alert within him. With his eminently practical mind he pointed out the fact that the conditions of Roman regimental government could not be applied with success to the entirely different conditions of contemporary Italy. His profound experience of political affairs is set forth in his *Recordi*. With a cynicism that is perhaps unconscious he tells us how he invariably pursued his personal welfare. 'My private interest,' he declares, 'has obliged me to attach myself to the power of the Church; otherwise I should have loved Martin Luther as much as myself.' But it is his *History of Italy* that is for us his most important work. In it he narrates in chronological order the story of each of the different States of the peninsula, and at the same time he indicates their inter-relations. The history is unusually trustworthy, and through it there flows a stream of supple and vivacious thought. But its style and minuteness of detail make it laborious reading; and the total absence of the elements of morality and religion is a repellent characteristic. The explanation of this lack lies not, it would seem, so much in the character of the man as in the decadent character of the age."—E. M. Hulme, *Renaissance, the Protestant revolution and the Catholic reformation*, pp. 376-377.—"Classical examples of history writing were recovered, interest in the human past and intelligent curiosity in the present were aroused, the spirit and method and apparatus of criticism were all developed, the sense of literary style became keener and more general, and the invention of printing was an enormous advantage both to the historian and to his readers. The revival of individuality, the fundamental factor of the entire Renaissance movement, gave rise to numerous biographical and auto-biographical writings; and the revival of nationality was the cause of many an attempt to write a national history."—*Ibid.*, p. 538.—"Humanistic historiography quickly spread over Europe. The pleiad of scholars whose rays illuminated the court of Maximilian, himself an historian, aroused interest in the heroes and achievements of the Teutonic races. Celtis lectured on the *Germania*, Cuspinian edited Jordanes and Otto of Freising, Peutingger and Beatus Rhenanus plunged into the study of German antiquities, and Aventin compiled the Annals of Bavaria. They introduced into Central Europe the ideal and the methods of secular study and disinterested scholarship. It was of this that Goethe was thinking when he declared that the Reformation had thrown back European culture for a hundred years."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 3.—See also EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Various Italian humanists.

ALSO IN: F. X. Wegele, *Geschichte der deutschen Historiographie*.—E. Fueter, *L'histoire de l'histori-*

*ographie moderne*, bk. 1-2.—J. E. Sandys, *History of classical scholarship*, v. 1.—J. M. Robertson, *Modern humanists*.

23. **Historiography during the Reformation and Counter-Reformation.**—"Theology once more became dominant, and secular studies were engulfed in the whirlpool of confessional strife. But the fever contained within itself the germ of its cure. The controversialists of the Middle Ages appealed to reason, their successors to history."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 3.—"Less by far than that of the older church did the theology of Luther or Calvin accord reality or worth to human effort. Luther valued history, it is true, but only as a divine lesson; and Melancthon set himself to trace in it the hand of God, adjusting all its teachings to the need of Protestant dogma. Had either Papist or Lutheran brought unity to Christendom, history again must have become the handmaid of theology. But, while the struggle lasted, both sides had other use for her. And now it came to history's profit that Christianity is an historical religion. Not in the court of metaphysics, but at the bar of sober fact, had Protestant and Catholic to make good their charges and their claims; and by such evidence as should not only quiet the devout but rout opponents and convince the hesitant. At bottom, too, they were honest and earnest men who strove, convinced each of the soundness of his cause and eager to prove it by research. To discomfit the Magdeburg centuriators a Baronius printed wholesale the archives of the Vatican. To rescue what could yet be saved of the prestige of the saints the Bollandists outdid their Calvinist critics in relentless sifting of the legends. Contemporary annalists vied with each other in savage suspicion—and in documentation. Soon on both sides came internal rivalries: Calvinist impeached Lutheran, and Anglican Calvinist—Benedictine rallied to defend against Jesuit his ancient charters. And on all sides this wealth of study brought keener insight, fairer judgment, deeper interest in human affairs."—G. L. Burr, *Freedom of history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1917).—"The new theologies had to justify themselves historically; and, on the other hand, their historical claims had to be refuted. In Germany, the most notable historian was John Sleidan (1506-56), conscientious and cautious annalist of the religious revolution, whose great work, containing many important documents, remains one of the most valuable of the contemporary histories of its times. The writers of the *Magdeburg Centuries*, of whom the principal one was Matthias Flacius, gave to the world (1550-74) the first general ecclesiastical history written from a Protestant point of view. The reproach of revolutionary innovation made against the Protestants turned the attention of Flacius and his collaborators to the past. The centuriators endeavored to gather for the overthrow of the Catholic claims documentary proof of alterations that had been made in doctrine, ceremonies, and ecclesiastical polity. Written in the midst of the bitter controversies of the time the *Centuries* is nevertheless a scholarly work and has been called 'the first monument of modern historical research.' With far greater resources at his command Cardinal Caesar Baronius (1538-1607) the chief of the Vatican library, and the little army of scholars in the libraries of many lands whom he was able by his position to summon to his assistance, began a work in reply that took forty years to complete. The work of Baronius is defective, yet it greatly excelled any

previous similar attempt. Such work as that of the centuriators and the librarian of the Vatican had for its impulse an avowedly polemical purpose; nevertheless the researches that it entailed bore fruit in the development of historical method. The necessity of consulting original sources gradually became evident. Collections of sources were made by a number of scholars. The *History of the Council of Trent* is the most important work of Fra Paolo Sarpi (1552-1623) whom Gibbon called an 'incomparable historian.' It is informed by an undying hatred of the Papacy of his time, but it is notably accurate in detail and is brilliantly written. The conscientious and reliable work of Geronimo de Zurita (1512-80), as the official historian of Aragon, still has its worth for the student of Spanish history. Also important is the work of another Spanish writer, the Jesuit Juan de Mariana (1536-1624), deemed in his own time and country to be the 'prince of historians.' His work has been described in a later century by Ticknor, the historian of Spanish literature, as being 'the most remarkable union of picturesque chronicling with sober history the world has ever seen.' The merit of his style is beyond question, and his work, although it is defective and is not notable for critical sifting or analyzing of sources, is not without a considerable degree of accuracy and penetration. In France where constitutional law rather than theology engaged the attention of the historians, Claude Fauchet (1530-1601) made researches in the history of the Franks down to the beginning of the Capetian dynasty in which is displayed a mature and systematic mind. [See also FRENCH LITERATURE: 1552-1610.] A far greater historian was Jacques de Thou (1553-1617), who undertook to write a history of his own times. His history, which deals with events from 1546 to 1607, consists of five parts. The fact that it is written in Latin shows that French had not yet won complete acceptance as a language fitted for a learned work. In the matter of style he was surpassed by many of his fellow countrymen, but he is unequalled in breadth of view, ripeness of judgment and invincible sense of justice. With few exceptions his views have been confirmed by the historical research of our own time; and his own century regarded his history, which is by no means narrowly confined to political affairs, as something of a secular bible. In England historiography was represented by William Camden (1551-1623) who, in his *Britannia*, wrote in elegant Latin a survey of the British Isles, and in his *Annales* a history of the reign of Elizabeth. George Buchanan (1506-82) . . . gained for Scotland the fame of possessing the best Latinist in contemporary Europe. His *Rerum Scotticarum Historia*, written to clear the history of his native country 'of some English lies and Scottish vanity,' is still of great value for the history of Scotland during the period known personally to its author.—E. M. Hulme, *Renaissance, the Protestant revolution and the Catholic reformation*, pp. 538-539.

ALSO IN: W. Maurenbrecher, *Studien und Skizzen zur Geschichte der Reformationszeit*.—E. Gebhardt, *Les historiens florentins de la Renaissance et les commencements de l'économie politique et sociale*.—J. B. Bury, *History of the freedom of thought*, ch. 4-5.—C. A. Beard, *Reformation of the sixteenth century in its relation to modern thought and knowledge*.

24. Historical literature during the seventeenth century.—"The seventeenth century witnessed a gradual decline of confessional violence;

but historical studies remained predominantly ecclesiastical. The great school of Anglican divines, from Usher to Bingham, whose situation midway between Rome and Geneva was favourable to a balanced view of controversial questions, produced works of enduring importance on the early Church. The Belgian Jesuits, under the guidance of Bolland and Papebroch, began a collection of Lives of the Saints on so vast a scale that it is still in progress [1913]. Even greater were the services rendered by France. The Gallican theologians subjected Ultramontane contentions to severe scrutiny, while the Jansenist Tillemont gathered materials for his priceless works on the Church and the Roman Empire, and Baluze explored the history of the Avignon Popes. Above all, the Benedictines of St. Maur began to pour forth the great series of works which threw light on almost every province of ecclesiastical history. No page in the annals of learning is more glorious than that which records the labours of these humble but mighty scholars in an age when an abstract Cartesianism was the dominant philosophy, when the State stood aloof and public interest was hardly born. . . . Among the few attempts that were made to determine the principles and methods of historical study the treatise of Bodin, stands out as a bold and brilliant achievement. At the height of the religious wars the French publicist envisages history as a secular subject and approaches it in a thoroughly scientific spirit. In language which anticipates Montesquieu he points out the influence of geographical situation, climate and soil on the character and fortunes of nations, while on the other hand he calls attention to the influence of personal position, patriotic and religious bias, and opportunity of knowledge on the views and value of writers. No such insight into the operation of environment had been possessed by any previous thinker, and nothing was added to it for a couple of centuries. In the region of criticism a few results were obtained, though rather in the nature of anticipations than of definite conquests. Spinoza declared that the Old Testament must be treated like any other historical work, and Père Simon incurred the wrath of Bossuet when he began to apply critical methods to the Jewish Scriptures."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, pp. 3-5.—"The influence of classical models may be seen throughout the historical writings of the seventeenth century. In England, Sir Walter Raleigh (1552-1616) wrote while in prison his 'History of the World' intended to teach political lessons and not to record events, while Hobbes, the philosopher (1588-1679), wrote an imitation of Thucydides in his 'Behemoth,' or 'Historie of the Civil Warres of England.' In France, De Thou (1553-1617) wrote in Ciceronian Latin an elaborate history of his own times, and Mezeray (1610-1683) published a history of France in many volumes during the reign of Louis XIV to display the glory and the services to France of the French monarchy. The attitude towards history at the end of the seventeenth century is best shown in the 'Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle' by Bossuet (1627-1704)."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus)*, p. 14.—"The seventeenth century witnessed the appearance of works of high value—relating either to events in which their authors had taken part or to the immediate past—by Sarpi and Davila, D'Aubigné and De Thou, Clarendon and Burnet, Hoofd and Puffendorf; but surveys of national life were scarcely attempted."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 7.

ALSO IN: E. de Broglie, *Mabillon et la société de l'abbaye de Saint-Germain-des-Près à la fin du XVII<sup>e</sup> siècle.*—H. Delehaye, *Works of the Bollandists.*

25. Progress of historiography during the eighteenth century.—“It was at the end of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth century—the natural sciences were already showing signs of a new life, and historical science was just beginning. It was in 1681 that the great work of Mabillon, *De Re Diplomatica*, which created the science of determining the age and authenticity of documents first appeared, the supplement being published in 1704. About the same time, in 1690, appeared the *Histoire des Empereurs* of Le Nain de Tillemont, who, according to Monod, was ‘the first to teach how historical truth is arrived at by rigorous analysis and comparison of texts.’ It was in the year 1700 that Muratori began at Modena to gather and edit the documents which form his great compilation of authentic texts. In 1708, Montfaucon laid the foundations of Greek epigraphy by the publication of his *Palaeographia Græca*, soon afterward followed by the great collections of texts for French history. In Germany, Leibnitz, in 1700, founded the Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences at Berlin, and began, in 1707, his *Scriptores Rerum Brunsvicensium*, the originality of which, according to Wegele, consisted in ‘relying upon authentic testimony and rejecting baseless traditions.’ . . . How fruitful the historical method may be, joined with the mathematical, in the study of nature is proved by the results that have followed from its application. Our whole conception of the universe has been changed by it under the influence of Laplace, Lamarck, Darwin and their successors. Instead of a rigid, static order of things, we now conceive of the universe as undergoing constant transformation; and it is in these processes of change that its real nature is revealed.”—D. J. Hill, *Ethical function of the historian* (*American Historical Review*, Oct., 1908).—“With the eighteenth century the scope of historical study rapidly widened. While the task of collecting material was steadily pursued, a more critical attitude towards authorities and tradition was adopted, the first literary narratives were composed and the first serious attempts were made to interpret the phenomena of civilisation.”—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 5.—“In the earlier régime when human thought was believed to be the result of a mysterious spiritual essence, when economic and social relations and positions were fixed by custom and confirmed by an inscrutable Providence, and when prowess in the natural sciences was thought to be allied to sorcery or savored of impiety, none of the most characteristic lines of modern thought could well exist. The political, economic, scientific and theological revolutions which humanity has passed through since 1750 have transformed the whole basis of our civilization and have also been reflected in the development of a series of new sciences which were virtually impossible in any earlier era. These new sciences are the science of man or *anthropology*, the science of the mind or *psychology*, the science of life or *biology*, the science of industrial relations or *economics*, the science of the relation of man to his environment or *anthropogeography* and the science of social relations or *sociology*. Each of these sciences represents a new set of interests and there has grown up as the result a vital need for its type of information and analysis. Their spirit and tendencies have reacted upon history to give it a

broader, sounder and more human content. Beyond this they have forever silenced such non-scientific doctrines as the biological superiority of the classical Greek, the racial interpretation of history introduced by Gobineau and others, and the myth of an Aryan race.”—H. E. Barnes, *Past and the future of history* (*Historical Outlook*, Feb., 1921).—“In the storage of erudition the French Benedictines maintained the supremacy that they had established in the seventeenth century. . . . Though the great collectors rarely applied critical tests to their material, sources and traditions began to be scrutinised with greater freedom. . . . The seventeenth century had witnessed sporadic outbursts of scepticism, checked by a lively fear of temporal penalties. As its successor dawned a cool blast blew across Europe, and by the middle the sun of the *Aufklärung* was high in the heavens. Within the lifetime of Fontenelle France passed from the world of Bossuet to the age of Voltaire, from Port-Royal to the *Encyclopédie*. The criticism of existing practices and of inherited beliefs reacted on one another. The fashion of throwing doubt on testimony and tradition was set by Bayle; but it was to Voltaire more than any other man that the new attitude towards the past was due. While Bayle was a sceptic, Voltaire was a rationalist; and the crushing weight of authority could only be overthrown by a whole-hearted champion of the might and majesty of reason. With all his intellectual and moral faults Voltaire claims a high place among the influences that prepared the world for historical science. By allowing his razor-edged intelligence to play over vast ranges hitherto unchallenged by critical thought, he did much to destroy the blind credulity against which erudition alone was powerless.”—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, pp. 5-7.—He was the typical historian of the eighteenth century, when “the predominance of literary style in the estimation of history reached its climax. [His] ‘Siccle de Louis XIV’ and ‘Histoire de Charles XII’ are models of luminous style and interesting narration, not so closely based on classical rules as in former times. The influence of Voltaire broke down slavish imitation of the classics, while maintaining the literary theory of history.”—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians* (*syllabus*), pp. 14-15.—“A polished narrative of English history was produced by Hume, of Scotland by Robertson. Hénault compiled a chronological handbook on which Frenchmen were nourished till Sismondi. Moscow and Schmidt recorded the fortunes of Germany, Johannes Müller the epic of the Swiss cantons. Schlözer narrated the story of Slavonic Europe, and Putter traced the institutions of the Holy Roman Empire. Cellarius abandoned the traditional framework of the Five Monarchies, which had prevented a rational conception of the development of civilisation; and a group of obscure English writers produced the first comprehensive Universal History, which, though destitute of literary qualities, brought together a mass of material not easily accessible, and which, in translations and abridgments, held its own till it was superseded by Rotteck and Schlosser. Above all, Gibbon constructed a bridge from the old world to the new which is still the highway of nations, and stands erect long after every other structure of the time has fallen into ruins.”—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, p. 7.—“Gibbon declared, . . . that he ‘never presumed to accept a place in the British triumvirate of historians’; but succeeding generations have concurred in assigning to *The De-*

*cline and Fall* the primacy, which it still holds, among historical works in our literature, and in esteeming its author the most brilliant example known of 'the union of the historian and the man of letters.' From the ancients, he had taken over the rhetorical side of the historian's task; from the French, he had derived the treatment of historical materials by a scientific method of criticism and selection; from the French, too, with the assistance of Hume and Robertson, he had learnt how to combine scientific method with artistic effect. His literary art may suffer from mannerisms, which were those of his age, as well as from foibles, which were his own, and, as a scientific history, his work has, in many respects, become superannuated; but its main and distinctive qualities continue unimpaired. . . . Inspired, as it were, by the muse of history herself in the magnificence of his choice of subject and in the grandeur of his determination to treat it with a completeness in harmony with its nature, Gibbon displayed a breadth of grasp and a lucidity of exposition such as very few historians have brought to the performance of a cognate task. Whether in tracing the origin and growth of a new religion, such as Mohammedanism, or in developing in comprehensive outline the idea of Roman jurisprudence, the masterly clearness of his treatment is equal to the demands of his philosophic insight; nor does the imaginative power of the historian fall short of the consummate skill of the literary artist. . . . 'If,' writes Bury, 'we take into account the vast range of his work, his accuracy is amazing, and, with all his disadvantages, his slips are singularly few.' It is an objection of very secondary importance, though one to which even experienced writers are wont to expose themselves, that Gibbon is apt to indulge in what might almost be called a parade of authorities. Complete, lucid and accurate, Gibbon, finally, is one of the great masters of English prose. His power of narrative is at least equalled by his gift of argumentative statement, and, in all parts of his work, his style is one which holds the reader spellbound by its stately dignity, relieved by a curious subtlety of *nuance*, and which, at the same time, is the writer's own as much as is that of Clarendon, Macaulay or Carlyle."—A. W. Ward, *Historians II (Cambridge history of English literature, v. 10, pp. 312-315)*.—"By their contemporaries, Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon were regarded as the triumvirate of great historians, whose fame was to reflect a permanent lustre upon their age and country. Their writings, indeed, whatever defects may have been discovered in them by later historians, were in fact among the most characteristic products of the time. Unluckily Hume's and Robertson's fame was insecurely based. They constructed elegant summaries of the knowledge then attainable, but worked in a perfunctory spirit. Later labourers in that fruitful field have gathered a harvest so immense that they have been all but overwhelmed by their own industry, and we are beginning to wish for a new Hume or Robertson to give the essence of the heterogeneous masses of fact which cumber the earth. Gibbon, more fortunate in his subject, and far more thorough in his methods, produced a monumental work not yet, if it ever will be, superseded. And, therefore, though he repudiates as presumptuous the pretension to a place in the triumvirate, he is now the most honored member. Gibbon's great book, whatever its faults, remains as the first great triumph of a genuine historical method."—L. Stephen, *History of English thought, p. 446*.—"No rational interpretation of history was possible till

the doctrine of evolution was enunciated by Leibnitz. 'Nothing happens all at once,' we read in 'Nouveaux Essais,' 'and nature never makes jumps. I call that the law of continuity. In starting from ourselves and going down to the lowest, it is a descent by very small steps, a continuous series of things which differs very little—fishes with wings, animals very like vegetables, and again animals which seem to have as much reason as some men.' As nature advanced by small steps so humanity moved slowly and painfully forward. The lonely Neapolitan thinker, Vico, in discussing the laws of change in his 'Scienza Nuova,' added that the process of history was cyclic. The principle was further elaborated in Turgot's Discourse at the Sorbonne on the Successive Advances of the Human Mind. . . . Further contributions to a theory of progress were made towards the end of the century in Germany. At the close of his life, as from a lofty watch-tower, Lessing surveyed the panorama of history and recorded his impressions in the pregnant apophorisms on the Education of the Human Race. The human mind, he declared, was greater than any of the influences that moulded it. Religion was a progressive revelation, and religions were the school-books which man uses in his progress, each helpful at a certain stage of development, none of them final. . . . But the most detailed and exhaustive investigation into the conditions and nature of progress was contained in Herder's Ideas on the History of Humanity. Deeply impressed by the influence of cosmic factors, he emphasises the existence of similar laws in history and nature. At the end of the century, in combating the French Revolution, Burke emphasised the continuity of historic life and the debt of every age to its predecessors. In addition to these speculations on the nature of progress, serious endeavours were made to explain particular factors of civilisation. Montesquieu investigated the origin and influence of laws and institutions, explaining that they must be judged not by abstract principles but by their suitability to the circumstances of the time. Of no less importance was the study of the economic elements in historical development. Hume reached some illuminating sociological generalisations in his Essays; but it was the glory of Adam Smith to relate the rise and fall of nations to their economic and commercial equipment and policy."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century, pp. 8-10*.—"While style became the test of the historians [of the eighteenth century], the antiquarians devoted themselves to collecting and editing unpublished materials for history. Of these antiquarians the most distinguished were Muratori (1672-1750) in Italy, Leibnitz (1646-1716) in Germany, Dugdale (1605-1686) in England, and Sirmond (1559-1651), Labbe (1607-1667), and Dom Bouquet (1685-1754) in France."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus), p. 15*.

ALSO IN: J. C. Morison, *Gibbon*.

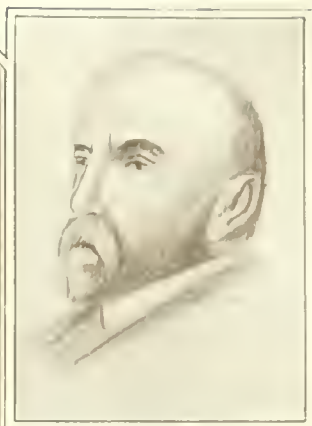
26. Historiography during the nineteenth century.—Beginnings of scientific history.—"The years that immediately preceded and followed the opening of the nineteenth century witnessed a revolt against the superficial rationalism of the eighteenth century and the emergence of forces that rendered possible the birth of historical science. The most powerful factor in this change of standpoint, which was felt all over Europe but found its earliest and strongest expression in Germany, was the Romantic movement. . . . A second factor that prepared the ground for historical science was the birth of nationalism. . . .



GUGLIELMO FERRERO



LORD MACAULAY



HENRY ADAMS



EDUARD MEYER



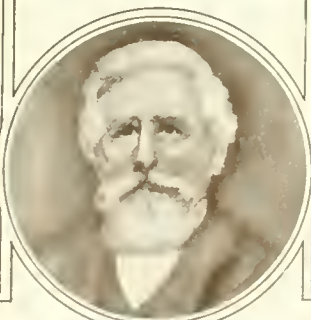
JOHN FISKE



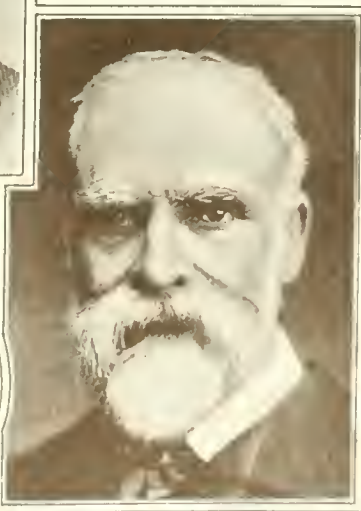
JOHN RICHARD GREEN



HEINRICH von TREITSCHKE



HENRY CHARLES LEA



VISCOUNT JAMES BRYCE

GREAT HISTORIANS



A final factor that stimulated critical investigation was the publication of Friedrich August Wolf's *Prolegomena to Homer* in 1795, which exerted a profound influence on every branch of research. The method that appeared to give such startling results could obviously be applied to other writings, sacred and profane. That the sources of history themselves must be analysed and subjected to internal and external criticism was the principle which Wolf contributed to the growth of historic study in the nineteenth century. . . . Niebuhr was the first to make ancient Rome a living political organism and to illustrate Roman and universal history by one another. He was also the first to collect and discuss the whole of the available literary evidence, and to steer a middle course between blind acceptance of Livy's narrative and wholesale scepticism. To these immense merits Niebuhr owes his unassailable position as the principal author of the great revolution in historical study effected in the opening years of the nineteenth century. . . . The impetus to historical research was given by Niebuhr; but the edifice had to be erected on surer foundations. . . . A still more powerful influence now began to be felt in every department of historical study. Leopold von Ranke had been deeply impressed by Niebuhr's history while a student at Leipzig, and by the works of Böckh and Otfried Müller while teaching at Frankfort-on-the-Oder. . . . Ranke was beyond comparison the greatest historical writer of modern times, not only because he founded the scientific study of materials and possessed in an unrivalled degree the judicial temper and sobriety of judgment at which every historian professes to aim, but because his powers of work and length of life enabled him to produce a larger number of first-rate works than any historian who ever lived. . . . Of the three most distinguished of Ranke's pupils the eldest two, Waitz and Giesebrecht, devoted the greater part of their lives to the study of the Middle Ages. . . . Though Giesebrecht's explicit purpose of national instruction and edification carries us some distance beyond the cosmopolitanism and Olympian detachment of his master, it was left to the youngest of Ranke's three great pupils to break completely away from the Berlin tradition and to share in the foundation of the 'Prussian' school of historians.—G. P. Gooch, *Growth of historical science (Cambridge modern history, v. 12, pp. 818-821, 824-825, 827-828.)*—"François Mignet [1796-1884] represents to some degree the contemporary movement in Germany as a French historian. His work is objective and narrative. He began to write history before he became a scholar and published his 'Histoire de la Révolution Française' in 1824. He then became an editor of documents and devoted himself to elaborate studies from documents upon smaller topics. Since the new school of historians could not work without materials, their influence brought about the beginning of the publication, at the expense of the State, of private societies and of individuals, of great collections of documents. In editing these documents scholars were trained and the work of sound scientific history [was] made possible. [This resulted in the] foundation of the *École des Chartes* at Paris, 1821; [in the] commencement of the publication in England of the works of the Record Commission, 1802, in Germany of the *Monumenta Germaniae Historica*, 1826, and in France of the *Documents inédits sur l'Histoire de France*, 1835."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus)*, p. 19.

ALSO IN: E. G. Bourne, *Ranke and the beginning of the seminary method (Essays in historical criticism)*.

27. Philosophic historians.—"Kant created a new realm in metaphysics, where one could take refuge and have the world as his own. The *idea* dominates. Space and time, the *à priori* forms of all phenomena, lie within us. Mathematics are vindicated because the mind can really master relationships, and the reason emerges from its critique to grapple with the final problem of metaphysics. This at first sight has little to do with interpreting history, but it proved to have a great deal to do with it. The dominance of ideas became a fundamental doctrine among those who speculated concerning causation in history, and metaphysics all but replaced theology as an interpreter. One sees this already in the work of the greatest historian of the nineteenth century, Leopold von Ranke. To him each age and country is explicable only if one approaches it from the standpoint of its own *Zeitgeist*. But the spirit of a time is more than the temporal environment in which events are set. It is a determining factor, clothed with the creative potency of mind. . . . Where else should one look for the vital forces of history than in the mind of the actors? So if the historic imagination can restore events, not simply as they seem to us but as they seemed to those who watched them taking place, we shall understand them in so far as history can contribute to their understanding. . . . Hegel was a sort of philosophic Augustine, tracing through history the development of the realm of the spirit. The City of God is still the central theme, but the crude expectations of a miraculous advent are replaced by the conception of a slow realization of its spiritual power, rising through successive stages of civilization. So he traces, in broad philosophic outlines, the history of this revelation of the Spirit, from its dawn in the Orient, through its developing childhood in Asia, its Egyptian period of awakening, its liberation in Greece, its maturity in the Roman balance of the individual and the State, until finally Christianity, especially in the German world, carries the spirit life to its highest expression."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history (American Historical Review, July, 1913)*.—"In his book, *The Philosophy of History*, he propounds the idea that each period is characterized by the predominance of a 'world people,' who are possessed of a 'universal idea' which must be given to mankind. Once this has been accomplished the 'world people' has fulfilled its mission; it then sinks into decadence and yields the scepter to its successor. Conquest is, therefore, the victory of a superior idea; hence, might and right coincide. '*Die Weltgeschichte ist das Weltgericht*' (Universal history shows the progress of universal justice). The Oriental Greek, and Roman nations had once played this rôle in history; now a new 'world people' had arisen, the Germans, who were to give their 'universal idea' to mankind. He declared that although the need of German unity was deeply felt, the achievement of this result would be the fruit, not of deliberation, but of force; the divided Germans must, therefore, 'be gathered into one by the violence of a conqueror.'"—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, pp. 130-140.—In France Guizot is one of the principal exponents of the philosophical interpretation of history. "The reverse of the apocalyptic, mystical, and pantheistic view of history of Michelet is to be found in the rigid and dogmatic writings of the doctrinaire

Guizot, who could more truly lay claim to representing a 'philosophical' school. Michelet turned to the imaginative metaphysics of Germany, Guizot to the prosaic constitutional theories of England. But the cold pedagogue who loved principles and not anecdotes was not impeccable in his systematic conclusions, any more than the excitable Michelet or any more than his precursor Montesquieu. None the less his desire to determine the great reasons of events and to discover the guiding principles of history gave it higher dignity as a science than did the poetry of Michelet. His chief writings, often heavy and colorless in style, were the *Essais sur l'histoire de France*, the *Révolution d'Angleterre*, the *Histoire générale de la civilisation en Europe*, the *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de mon temps*, and the *Histoire de France racontée à mes petits-enfants*.—C. H. C. Wright, *History of French literature*, pp. 731-732.—"His method was to dissect the political, economic, and intellectual structure of society, to lay bare its elements and forces, separately and in connexion. He has been blamed for presenting laws instead of life, abstractions in place of men and women. A juster censor would perhaps contend that he makes history appear more orderly and rational than it really is, and allows too little place to the will and the passions, the follies and the failures, of individual men."—G. P. Gooch, *Growth of historical science* (*Cambridge modern history*, v. 12, p. 832).—Alexis de Tocqueville [1805-1859] deserves mention not only as a philosophical observer of other lands, but as a philosophical historian of his own country. *L'Ancien régime et la révolution* traces the causes of the Revolution and shows it to have been, in spite of the violence of the outbreak, the necessary conclusion of the nation's experience. . . . [He] is of special interest to Americans because of his work on American democracy, which in turn became an important text-book to the participants in the European popular tendencies culminating in the mid-century movements. . . . Tocqueville is a cold and unimpassioned writer, but his statements are based on direct observation, and he carefully eschewed second-hand authorities, so that he produces the conviction of absolute sincerity. He belongs to the tradition of men like Montesquieu, but is without the latter's flippant *hors-d'œuvre*.—C. H. C. Wright, *History of French literature*, pp. 734, 733.—Grote's philosophical theories found expression in "the 'History of Greece,' a work which, conceived in the 'pre-scientific' days, still embraced all the special learning that bore on his subject. Except that Grote is the better writer, you could hardly tell now that he and Mommsen were not writing according to the same canons—Grote making the story of Greece an example of Republicanism, and Mommsen making the story of Rome a glorification of Imperialism."—W. R. Thayer, *Historical writing* (*Nation*, July 8, 1915).—"Carlyle was very sure of his own doctrine, and two out of his three great works were conceived on a plan which might illustrate it. All history, he tells us over and over again, should be biographical. Economic forces, mass prejudice, and the like are mere detail; they are marginal, not focal; what really matters is the compelling personality; and where no such personalities are, as he would say, 'granted to us by the kind Heavens,' there you have a sterile district in human affairs. Thus Cromwell made the English Revolution and Frederick of Prussia was the key to the middle eighteenth century. The voice that rolled over primeval chaos, 'Let there be light,' was hardly more

decisive, hardly less an outcome of the latent energies in the chaos itself, than the summons that issued from these human oracles. This view, of course, has its obvious consequence in Carlyle's contempt of democracy in his insistence by some means or other the multitude must place itself under command. . . . More than once Carlyle takes the interesting position that the best picture of a nation's past would be got from an adequate account of its poetry. For in the poet, if he be sincere, the spiritual temper of his age, its interests and convictions, its hopes and fears, must find a voice. He is the exponent of how the world in its deeper aspects appeared from the standpoint of that particular time."—H. L. Stewart, *Carlyle's conception of history* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Dec., 1917).—"His *French Revolution*, 1837, is unique in the field of historical literature. The picture is distorted, but it tells the story with a fire and dramatic intensity that leaves an indelible impression on the mind. The *Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell*, 1845, is made up of skillfully selected extracts, interpreted with incisive comments by Carlyle. One-sided as it is, it completely vindicated Cromwell from the charges of hypocrisy which had hung over him for two centuries. The *History of Frederick the Great*, which occupied the author from 1857-1865, gave him another opportunity to champion a strong man, and to exhibit his rare genius for epic narration."—A. L. Cross, *History of England and Greater Britain*, p. 1044.—See also ECONOMICS: 19th-20th centuries.

ALSO IN: G. Monod, *Rénan, Taine, Michelet*.

28. Political historians.—"The modern political history has been variously defined. Freeman described it as 'past politics,' but Seeley's characterization of it as the 'biography of states' is more accurate and clarifying. It assumes that political events have been the 'backbone' of historical development and constitute the only logical foundation for the organization and presentation of historical events. In its extreme form, it maintains that political events have been the *causal influences* in determining the nature and course of history. While these are both entirely arbitrary assumptions, supported by nothing more than opinion, and give a very distorted notion of the historical process, there would be less cause for any quarrel with the political historian if he did not proceed to rule out as unworthy of consideration all the great events of history which are not directly and visibly connected with the life and growth of the state and the functioning of political organs. . . . The cause for the present domination of historiography by the *political fetish* is obvious to anyone who has made a study of the development of historical writing in modern times. The source of the modern political history was the Germany which followed the defeat by Napoleon, at Jena, and which was reorganized by Stein, Hardenberg and Scharnhorst, and inspired by Fichte, Arndt and Hegel. It was in the midst of this fervid patriotism that Niebuhr and Ranke began the work that transformed historical writing and research. The fact that many of the most influential followers of these men were Prussians ended to sustain an unflinching interest in patriotic, political and nationalistic history throughout the nineteenth century—the period in which Prussia was securing a dominant position in the German Empire and longed for a European pre-eminence. National pride and competition stimulated a similar movement in France and England, and the American students brought back to this



country the spirit and methods of the Continental historiography."—H. E. Barnes, *Past and the future of history* (*Historical Outlook*, Feb., 1921).—"Throughout the first half of the nineteenth century the position of history in England and Germany was not unlike what it had been during the eighteenth century in France. . . . The work that Voltaire, Leibnitz, Descartes, and David Hume had done in the eighteenth century was being done in the nineteenth by Carlyle, Mill, Bright, Lassalle, Karl Marx—the Radicals and the Social Democrats. Philosophers had liberated historical research; politicians were now to alter its centre of gravity. . . . The motive force in his [Macaulay's] work is concern for the existing state of affairs, and an interest in the conditions which produced it. The concern, indeed, is different from Carlyle's; it is wholly a middle-class concern, aroused by the political sufferings of Whiggism, and not by the sheer physical sufferings of the man of the people. The interest, again, is of a different quality from Hallam's; it is not the scholar's interest in constitutional development, but the politician's interest in party struggles. Still Macaulay writes with his foot firmly planted in his own day; he reaches no further back than he can go without lifting that foot. In a word, he has at any rate conceived of history as more than annals. His critics, while admitting that, have thought too easily that his cure for the annalistic outlook was solely the romantic imagination. In truth, it was the same cure as better historians than he, both at his own time and since, found and applied—the pivoting of history upon the affairs and the immediate political interests of their contemporaries. Macaulay's own remark that his ambition was to make his *History* replace the latest novel of the day upon the tables of young ladies has often been turned against him by the purists in history. It was not so far out of accord with the developing purpose of history schools."—R. H. Gretton, *History*, pp. 24, 23.—In France "Adolphe Thiers is the exponent of the . . . ["political"] school, and his *Histoire de la Révolution*, followed by the *Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire*, are to be contrasted, if for nothing else, for their detailed treatment with the concision of Mignet's philosophical exposition of the Revolution. Thiers felt that the historian should put himself in the background, and not seek to impose attention either by an eccentric style or by artificial grouping of facts. . . . Consequently his style is easy, sometimes to the extent of looseness, but clear and business-like. As a historian, his work is of value in spite of his commonplace bourgeois ideals."—C. H. C. Wright, *History of French literature*, p. 732.—In Germany, "after applying the critical method with brilliant success to the First Crusade, Sybel entered political life, as an adversary of Ultramontanism, feudalism, and radicalism. The events of 1848 turned his attention to the French Revolution, which occupied him for thirty years. Devoting special attention to economic conditions and international relations, Sybel at the same time made his book the vehicle of a vigorous polemic against the doctrines of the Revolution. His closing years were devoted to a massive *History of the Founding of the German Empire*, for which Bismarck not only opened the archives of State but himself supplied information. While Sybel's devotion to Prussia did not forbid sharp criticism of Prussian policy, Droysen and Treitschke devoted themselves to the glorification of the Hohenzollern. After producing important works on Alexander and his successors,

Droysen turned to modern history, and in his *Lectures on the Wars of Liberation* and his biography of York gave the first living picture of the heroic age of Prussia."—G. P. Gooch, *Growth of historical science* (*Cambridge modern history*, v. 12, p. 828).—"Gustav Droysen may be considered to be the real founder of the Prussian School. The thesis of his *History of Prussian Policy*, on which he spent thirty years of labor, was that German unity was the lodestar of Prussian policy throughout the centuries, and that the Hohenzollerns alone had always been unwaveringly faithful to German interests; therefore it was to them that the people must look for a united Fatherland."—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, p. 171.—In America "Bancroft's first volume [of the *History of the United States*] succeeded mainly because it was redolent of the ideas of the new Jacksonian democracy,—its exuberant confidence, its uncritical self-laudation, its optimistic hopes. The Demos heard, as an undercurrent to his narrative, the same music which charmed its ears in the Fourth of July oration; indeed, many of Bancroft's most characteristic ideas are to be found in his own oration pronounced at Northampton on July 4, 1826; and the style was one whose buoyancy of rhetoric was well suited to those sanguine times. It would be but a shallow criticism that should see in all this only the ebullition of national vanity. The uncritical patriotism of those times, as of other times in the course of history, was in some respects admirable, and in many respects useful. But we need not forget that it was critical. . . . From 1846 to 1849, the historian was our minister to England, and from 1866 to 1874 he was minister in Germany. The result was the collection of an enormous mass of material from the archives of foreign states, and from the stores of family correspondence. Because of the long duration and the great fame of his researches, similar opportunities, almost unlimited in extent, were at his service in this country."—J. F. Jameson, *History of historical writing in America*, pp. 104-105, 107-108.

29. Nationalist historians.—"Among the influences and forces in the modern world which have produced that spirit of egotistic and arrogant nationalism from which mankind is suffering today, the nationalistic interpretation of history is one of the most insidious and not one of the least important. In varying degrees this interpretation has affected the people of all nations, fostering in them a sense of inflated patriotism. Probably the best example of the effect of historical interpretation upon public opinion and national policy is to be found in Germany, where the nationalistic school of history sought in the past a justification for the establishment of a national state under the leadership of the Kingdom of Prussia and the House of Hohenzollern. Karl Hillebrand told the truth about the German historians of the nineteenth century when, shortly after the establishment of the German Empire he said: 'History in Germany, in spite of the impartiality on which its writers pride themselves, is, above and before all, national and Protestant.' But as moulders of public opinion and promoters of an egotistic and vaulting nationalism, German historians have not been unique, though for the spread of their hypotheses and opinions they have enjoyed the advantage of an educational system which assures to teachings acceptable to the state the widest possible diffusion in the shortest possible time. In some degree every modern nation has been influenced

by the nationalistic interpretation of its history."—R. L. Schuyler, *History and public opinion* (*Educational Review*, Mar., 1918).—"When peace had been restored [1815], the nationalist point of view, which was to control the minds of men throughout the nineteenth century, began to influence both historical research and historical writing. As early as 1816 the great German statesman, Stein, who had been the chief German exponent of the German national idea in the German resistance to the Napoleonic Empire, had conceived the idea of quickening the taste for German history; in 1819 the Society for the Study of Early German History was founded; in 1824 the definite plan for the publication of the *Monumenta Germaniae Historica* was promulgated; and in 1826 the first volume of the series appeared. But it was not until after the Revolution of 1830 that important national histories began to be written. In them the influence of the Romantic Movement and more particularly of Sir Walter Scott's historical novels can be seen in picturesqueness of literary style and the attention paid to dramatic episodes and individual personalities, but through them all runs the desire to bring out the persistence of the national element. Nowhere can this be more clearly seen than in Henri Martin's *Histoire de France*, of which the first edition appeared in 1838-1853. The aim of Martin is to show that the French nation has always preserved its identity in spite of its adoption of the Latin language under the Roman Empire to the almost complete extinction of its original Celtic tongue and in spite of the conquest by the Franks, which gave the land its modern name. Through such radical changes, Martin declares that a national character, illustrated in the *esprit gaulois*, persisted and that the settlement within its borders of German Franks and Scandinavian Northmen had not affected the national identity of the people of France. The key to French national history is, according to Martin, to be found in the continuance of Celtic ideas and Celtic characteristics. Augustin Thierry had gone a step further and in his *Histoire de la Conquête de l'Angleterre par les Normands*, published in 1825, had rejoiced in the victory of France over England at Hastings as if it had been a battle between the nations that had fought at Waterloo. Jules Michelet, in his *Histoire de France*, published in 1836-1843, was almost dithyrambic in his portraiture of the French nation, which had become to him a personal hero. Nor should the name of Guizot be forgotten, for his services to the national history of France included not only his *Histoire de la Civilisation en France*, published in 1828-1830, but also his foundation of the Société de l'Histoire de France in 1832 and his commencement of the publication by the French government in 1833 of the *Documents inédits sur l'Histoire de France*. But, after all, the nationalistic tendency of French historians under the monarchy of July did not have a great political effect nor tend to change the condition of Europe. France had shown her glowing national spirit in the days of the Reign of Terror, and her nationalistic historians only worked to emphasize with some exaggeration the antiquity of the existence of such a spirit. It was otherwise in Germany and Italy. There the problem of the nationalist historians was to show that in spite of ancient political divisions there had always been a German nation and an Italian nation. . . . Bismarck is reported to have said that next to the Prussian army, it was the German professors of history who had done the most to cre-

ate the new Germany under the hegemony of Prussia. The views set forth by the long list of eminent German historians from Dahlmann through Droysen and Sybel to Treitschke dwelt upon the historic unity of the German people and argued for the creation of the united German state, which had been foreshadowed in the united German movement against the Napoleonic Empire."—H. M. Stephens, *Nationality and history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916).—"The most striking personality and the most eloquent writer of the ["Nationalist"] school was Treitschke, the Macaulay of Germany. . . . He had planned a history of modern Germany when a young man; but the first volume did not appear till 1876. With the possible exception of Mommsen's *Roman History*, Treitschke's *Germany in the Nineteenth Century* is the most brilliant historical work in the language. Every side of national life and thought is treated with a knowledge, vigour, and eloquence that have made the book a national possession. But its faults are as conspicuous as its merits. It is written throughout from a Prussian standpoint, with a pronounced antipathy to the smaller States and without comprehension for the men and movements that opposed the military and bureaucratic régime of the Hohenzollern. Treitschke was the last and greatest of the Prussian school, which arose in the years of depression and contributed powerfully to prepare the soil in which Bismarck worked. Its inspiration was political rather than scientific, and it disappeared with the realisation of its ideals."—G. P. Gooch, *Growth of historical science* (*Cambridge modern history*, v. 12, p. 828).—"Nature had intended him to be a poet, but patriotism made him a historian. Almost all his life Treitschke was a professor of history in various German universities, where his lectures attracted wide attention because of their eloquence, learning, and intense patriotism. 'We have no German Fatherland; the Hohenzollerns alone can give us one,' was Treitschke's constant refrain before 1870. Great crowds were thrilled by this patriotic professor, whose lectures on history were in the nature of passionate declamations. The Germans, according to him, were the best of all peoples, and the Prussians, the best of all Germans; Prussia had performed every great deed in German history since the Treaty of Westphalia; she alone had realized the true ideal of national greatness, for the nation was an army, and the army, a nation. Treitschke's ideal state was one in which parliament played a subordinate rôle in the government; the latter should have supreme control over all its agencies, and should devote itself mainly to the task of training virile citizens. England was the special object of this historian's wrath. He would bitterly denounce and mock the English as vulgar utilitarians and hypocrites, as a decadent race holding a position in the world which by right belonged to the idealistic, virile Germans."—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, p. 172.—See also PAN-GERMANISM; WORLD WAR; Causes: Indirect: h, 2.—"England waited long for its national historian. Although many English historians were fanatically nationalistic and supremely insular in their conviction of the superiority of their own over every other nation, it was not until 1874, when J. R. Green published his *Short History of the English People*, that a modern nationalist historian, with intent to insist, like Michelet, upon the personality of the nation, and to exaggerate like Martin, the antiquity of national unity, actually appeared. The immediate success of

Green's book was not only the result of its extraordinary literary merit, but also of its expression of a national feeling, which had been steadily growing in intensity."—H. M. Stephens, *Nationality and history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916).—"Green . . . possessed a fine talent for perspective; but what distinguished him still more was his gift of narration. *History*—let us never forget—is five-sevenths story; and a story must have unity and consecutiveness; it must flow on as the stream or river flows; it must be varied by the alternations of sunshine and shadow, of night and day, but still preserve its oneness. No amount of erudition in a narrative historian will ever make good defects in the story-telling quality."—W. R. Thayer, *Historical writing* (*Nation*, July 8, 1915).

"In Italy the movement of the Risorgimento was reflected in historical works as well as in poetry and romance, and in no work more typically than in Botta's *Storia dell'Italia*, intended as a continuation of Guicciardini and published in 1834. . . . Don Modesto Lafuente in his *Historia de Espana*, published between 1850 and 1867, has attempted a task for Spain resembling that undertaken for France by Henry Martin, but with hardly the same success."—H. M. Stephens, *Nationality and history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916).—"In 1845—the year before the horrible civil war known as the War of Maria da Fonte, or Patuleia—Alexandra Herculano published the first volume of his 'Historia de Portugal.' . . . The publication of this volume marks an epoch in the literary history of Portugal. . . . The second volume of his History, going down to the death of Alfonso III. in 1279, was published in 1850, with two dissertations or essays on the elements which composed the Portuguese people, and on the history of the municipalities of the country. . . . He had been led to take an interest in the early ages of Europe by his study of Walter Scott and of the French Romanticists, and he had learnt from these masters of fiction that the men and women of all centuries are alike human, and are never demi-gods or fiends in human shape. He was therefore ready to disbelieve in legendary stories, which made men more or less than human, while not neglecting the picturesque point of view in the lives of the men of past ages. But while it was from these masters that Herculano learnt his attitude towards the past history of his country, he derived his method of study from quite a different school. The influence of the German historical school, of which the most illustrious masters have been Niebuhr and Von Ranke, and of which the disciples are now numerous all over the Continent, had penetrated even to Portugal. Early history, Herculano learned, could only be re-written after an elaborate study of ancient documents and a careful comparison between them, and Nature fortunately granted him the qualities of patience to wade through documents, and of critical insight by which to judge them. To this power of indefatigable study he added the gift of a keen perception of the picturesque, and the talent to tell history with clearness, conciseness, and eloquence. No wonder, then, that he became a great historian, and the founder of an historical school which was to have great weight in the politics of his native country. . . . It produced a school of new historians, contented to labour for the truth, and changed the minds of the young men of the time from the writing of melancholy poetry to the study of history and its attendant sciences, political economy and critical jurisprudence. . . . Recognizing, as he did, that

it was only possible to understand history by studying contemporary documents, Herculano commenced the publication of the 'Portugallie Monumenta Historica,' an immense series of reproductions and editions, of which the cost was defrayed by the Portuguese Government. This series he divided into three sections: 'Scriptores,' containing editions of unpublished chronicles and lives of saints, 'Leges et Consuetudines,' and 'Diplomata et Charta.' . . . Franz Palacky is the central figure of the Bohemian historical revival, and his influence was even greater, from a political point of view, than that of Herculano. . . . In 1836 appeared the first volume of Palacky's 'History of Bohemia,' published simultaneously in German and Czech. The book made its mark at once, and it was recognized in Germany that a great genius had risen. Palacky was essentially a disciple of the new historical school, a follower of Niebuhr. He had laboured diligently among chronicles and documents to discover the truth, and, like Herculano, did not fear to destroy the legends which were most cherished by the Bohemian people, when he found that they had no historical basis. The success of his work among his fellow-countrymen was immense. In spite of the policy of Austria, the Czech national spirit had not been destroyed; the nobility and bourgeois had been to some extent Germanized, but the Slav feeling had not been extinguished. The work of Palacky completed what Dobrowski and Schafaryk had begun; it made known to the Czechs of the nineteenth century what manner of men their ancestors had been, and what great deeds in the past they had done for their descendants to remember with pride. Palacky no more caused the Bohemian revival of the present century than Herculano had caused that of Portugal, but he became the central figure, and the father of the new historical school there, which signalized the revival. Like Herculano, he did not bring his history down to modern times, but between 1836 and 1854 he published six volumes, going down to the end of the reign of King Sigismund. The publication of each volume was almost an historical event; in each, old legends were destroyed, and the early history of the Czech people, with its curious and interesting development, was for the first time truly and clearly narrated. . . .

"Like Herculano, he devoted himself after the completion of his History to the collecting and editing of ancient chronicles and documents. He knew that that was the only way by which early history could be truly studied, and spared no labour in such work. He superintended all the editions of the various publications of this nature issued by the Academy of Prague at the expense of the Bohemian Government, and himself collected and issued a collection of documents on John Huss, the Czech reformer, which threw an entirely new light on the early career of the man who, with John Ziska, the blind general, shares the honour of making the Czech history of Europe."—H. M. Stephens, *Modern historians and their influence on small nationalities* (*Contemporary Review*, July, 1887).—"The establishment of Rumania as a sovereign state was preceded by the revival of the study of Rumanian history, culminating in the great work of Alexandru Xenopol, *L'Histoire des Roumains de la Dacie Trajane*. In Finland and in Poland and in Croatia, in Sweden and in Denmark, and above all in Belgium, profound and passionate historical studies were published and the creation of a national spirit was even more pronounced, if that were possible,

in these small states, that especially cherished the memory of their past, than in larger countries, which had a powerful present as well as a splendid past."—H. M. Stephens, *Nationality and history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916).—"In our own country historical interpretation has naturally been busy with the epic of our history, the American Revolution, and around that event a veritable myth has grown up. For some time after the Revolution it was, perhaps, inevitable that writers on American history who dealt with that epoch in the life of the nation should approach it in the spirit of apologists and partisans, reflecting in their writings the fierce animosities engendered by the conflict, and, indeed, contributing powerfully to the perpetuation of those animosities. It is only within the last generation that the Revolution has come to be studied in a fairer and more scientific spirit, with the desire to understand rather than to justify. . . . The older school of American history disregarded what did not suit their patriotic purposes. They slighted the arguments and ideals of the Loyalists, ignored the British Tory side of the case, and exalted the revolutionary cause. In so doing they could not fail to create a one-sided and grossly distorted conception of the Revolution."—R. L. Schuyler, *History and public opinion* (*Educational Review*, Mar., 1918).—"James Schouler, whose *History of the United States under the Constitution* was mostly published between 1880 and 1889, and John Bach McMaster, whose *History of the People of the United States* appeared from 1883 to 1914, show themselves to be inspired with the highest national and patriotic enthusiasm. It is curious to note that such nationalist histories as those of Green and Schouler and McMaster did not see the light until after the doctrine of nationalism had found its fullest expression in Europe, in the foundation of the German Empire and the Kingdom of Italy."—H. M. Stephens, *Nationality and history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1916).—"McMaster's spirit was that of Green. He went far afield from the well-worn paths of constitution-making and party contention and pictured the operation of many more subtle influences that had contributed mightily to make the people of the United States what it was. To the technique of historiography also he added a significant element. Von Holst was imposing upon the writer of American history for all future time the necessity of searching that useful but unalluring repository of information, the Congressional Record; McMaster added the even more burdensome duty of going through all the newspapers of the day."—W. A. Dunning, *Generation of American historiography* (*American Historical Association Report*, 1917, p. 350).

ALSO IN: C. Altschul, *American Revolution as presented in our school text-books*.—J. S. Bassett, *Middle group of American historians*.—H. W. C. Davis, *Political thought of Heinrich von Treitschke*.—A. Guillard, *Modern Germany and her historians*.—J. H. Rose, *Nationality in modern history*.

30. Romantic historians.—"A group of historical writers in the middle of the nineteenth century, who were attracted to history writing by the fascination exercised over them by certain topics and ideas and who were more subjective than objective, may be termed the romantic historians. They were all distinguished men of letters and wrote in an effective style, and paid more attention to the manner of telling their story than to the matter of it. They frankly avowed their sympathies and did not aim at impartiality. They

were historical writers rather than historical scholars, and were influenced in the form of their works and in their desire to reproduce the atmosphere of the past by the great historical novelties. Alphonse de Lamartine (1792-1869) may be taken as the type of this school of writers in France,"—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians* (*syllabus*), p. 26.—The "Histoire des Girondins," his most successful attempt in the field of history, illustrates his qualities as well as his defects as an historian. It shows his graphic power of description as well as his lack of historical scholarship. "Thierry was the chief of what has been called the 'picturesque school,' sometimes the 'impressionistic school,' of those who tried to make the past live again. No one was more anxious than Thierry to be accurate and to replace the rhetoric of the seventeenth and eighteenth-century historians by the method of documentary proof. Two things detract from his value to modern scientific historians: firstly, his imagination led him, at any rate in the works written after his blindness, to warp by his reconstruction the probable truth in his mental vision of the past; secondly, his almost feminine sensibility led him to side with the losing cause and to view its downfall as an epic, or to read into history his own sociological prepossessions shaped by a poet's touch. . . . Thierry's chief work is the *Histoire de la Conquête de l'Angleterre par les Normands*, in which, instead of following the victors to the conquered land, he places himself, to express his theory of the 'antagonism of two races,' rather at the standpoint of the gradually submerged people. His other important work is the *Récits des temps mérovingiens*, the reanimation of the old sixth-century chronicles of Gregory of Tours, so that the archaic narratives spring into the vividness of a romance by Scott. If Thierry represents the sane use of the imagination in history, Quinet and Michelet embody rampant Romanticism, the former as a philosopher of history, the latter as a narrator. Edgar Quinet (1803-1875) was the great exponent of German ideas in France, where, like Pierre Leroux and Michelet, he interpreted history under the form of a vague symbolic pantheism. Quinet was a man of poetic and mystical temperament who had fed on Chateaubriand, of quick feeling, and of great power in rapid though hazardous philosophical intuition or synthesis. He travelled in Germany and fell under the spell of Herder and of his interpretation of the philosophy of history, the process of studying the world-development as an organic whole. . . . Later, after the Romantic movement had passed away, Quinet, in his numerous historical and critical writings, underwent the influence of the new scientific movement. . . . The name of Quinet is scarcely separable from that of Jules Michelet (1798-1874), another historian with a poetic imagination and the most popular writer of the 'picturesque school.' . . . The author who particularly gave him his start in philosophical thought was the eighteenth-century Neapolitan writer Vico, a broad generalizer before Herder upon history and its epic manifestations. . . . Michelet, who translated Vico's book under the title *Principes de la philosophie de l'histoire*, looked upon history as an epic . . . or a drama, and as a resurrection in which even inanimate objects and places are inspired with symbolic existence and men are manifestations of the spirit of the age: Jeanne d'Arc personifies patriotism and embodies the masses. . . . Michelet's first original books were a *Précis de l'histoire moderne* and an *Histoire romaine*, but his great

work was the *Histoire de France*. He began with a series of volumes on the Middle Ages in which he conscientiously studied the old documents; but far from leaving them to speak for themselves alone, he recreated the men and manners of the past and stamped upon all his potent imagination, so that it became history in the shape of romance. The Middle Ages were the favorite hunting ground of the Romanticists, as we have seen, and they aroused Michelet's imagination until his glowing style made the old times speak again in the narrative of action, and in the description of art and architecture, even of geography."—C. H. C. Wright, *History of French literature*, pp. 727-729.—In England James Anthony Froude (1818-1894) belonged to the group of romantic historians. "Approaching history in the spirit of [Carlyle], his master [Froude], accomplished work in which shining merits and glaring faults were inextricably mingled. . . . The first four volumes of the 'History of England from 1529 to the death of Elizabeth' created a sensation only less than that of Macaulay. . . . No English historian has possessed a style so easy, so flowing, so transparent. . . . Twelve stout volumes had been occupied with the story of sixty years. . . . The struggle for national freedom which began in 1529 ended in 1588. . . . The strength and weakness of the work are now generally recognized. It was the first and it remains the only detailed survey of one of the two most critical periods of our history. It restored the author of the Reformation to life, and enriched English literature with innumerable pages of vivid and thrilling narrative. . . . Though his incredible carelessness in detail is a grave fault, it is still more lack of impartiality that excludes Froude from the first rank of historians."—G. P. Gooch, *History and historians in the nineteenth century*, pp. 332-333, 336-337.—In the United States, "the choice of subjects which Prescott made gives the plainest evidence of such purposes [literary]. Even apart from the brilliant treatment which his genius gave them, and from which it is hard for our minds now to separate them, it is plain that the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the conquest of Mexico, the conquest of Peru, the history of Philip the Second, were subjects eminently capable of picturesque treatment. . . . The books themselves need no factitious interest arising from the knowledge of the circumstances of their production. They are too admirable and too familiar to need praise in respect to interest of narrative, grace of style, or artistic skill in the management and marshaling of the various parts. The unity of design and picturesqueness which the author sought, he certainly obtained. Scarcely less praise must be given to the conscientiousness of his research, though it may be doubted whether his critical insight was of the most penetrating sort. Nor was he a profoundly philosophical historian, distinguished for searching analysis. In one of his early private memoranda, he confesses that he hates 'hunting up latent, barren antiquities,' and though he later to some extent, conquered this repugnance, the studies which make the analytical and sociological historian were never thoroughly congenial to him. It is mainly the concrete aspects of life that engage his interest, and as a historical painter of these, he was, in the period of the publication of his works, the years from 1837 to 1858, without a rival, save Macaulay and Michelet. . . . The first of Motley's works carried down to the year 1584 a narrative whose subject, though not the same as that of

Prescott's last work, necessarily had much in common with it. For the history of the Dutch revolt against Philip could hardly be written without saying much concerning other aspects or portions of his reign. In the year 1860 appeared the first two, in 1868 the last two, volumes of the 'History of the United Netherlands,' embracing the years 1584 to 1609. 'The Life and Death of John of Barneveld,' a work in form biographical, but really continuing the 'History of the Netherlands' for a decade more, appeared in 1874. Enormous labors in the investigation of archives were performed in the preparation of these books. Motley had the intense zeal of the born investigator, a rare and heroic quality of which the world takes little note in historians. He had likewise in full possession those qualities which



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engage the reader. No American has ever written a history more brilliant and dramatic. . . . But the author who has most conspicuously continued the school of picturesque historians is Francis Parkman, the eminent historian of the French dominion in North America."—J. F. Jameson, *History of historical writing in America*, pp. 114, 116-117, 118-119, 125.

ALSO IN: G. Monod, *La Place de Michelet parmi les historiens du XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle*.—G. Brandes, *Romantic school in Germany*.—E. Fueter, *L'Histoire de l'historiographie moderne*, bk. 5.—H. T. Peck, *W. H. Prescott*.

31. Historical romance and romantic history.—Sir Walter Scott.—"The prodigious addition which the happy idea of the historical romance has made to the stories of elevated literature, and through it to the happiness and improvement of the human race, will not be properly appreciated, unless the novels most in vogue before

the immortal creations of Scott appeared are considered. . . . Why is it that works so popular in their day, and abounding with so many traits of real genius, should so soon have palled upon the world? Simply because they were not founded upon a broad and general view of human nature; because they were drawn, not from real life in the innumerable phases which it presents to the observer, but imaginary life as it was conceived in the mind of the composer; because they were confined to one circle and class of society, and having exhausted all the natural ideas which it could present, its authors were driven, in the search of variety, to the invention of artificial and often ridiculous ones. Sir Walter Scott, as all the world knows, was the inventor of the historical romance."—*Historical romance (Blackwood's Magazine, Sept., 1845)*.—"Those sticklers for truth, who reproach Scott with having falsified history because he wilfully confused dates, forget the far greater truth which that wonderful writer generally presented. If, for his purposes, he disarranged the order of events a little; no

the conventional representation of it which historians have accustomed us to."—J. R. Seeley, *History and politics (Macmillan's Magazine, Aug., 1879)*.—"According to John Stuart Mill, we owe it to Sir Walter Scott that the change in history writing took place. Scott first related that there were Saxons and Normans living alongside of one another in England—neighbors, but most unneighborly—for generations after the Conquest. Why did not the historians tell us so much? Certain French historians—Augustin Thierry and his group—first took the hint from Scott, and in the Conquest of England and the Third Estate of Thierry and in other writings of the time told the history of the people."—E. Eggleston, *New history (American Historical Association Report, 1900, v. 1, p. 44)*.

32. Modern scientific historians.—"Side by side with the philosophic, the political, the national-ist, and the romantic group of historical writers developed the modern scientific school. Some of the former used scientific methods, such as Hallam in England, Droysen in Germany, Martin in



KENILWORTH CASTLE, SCOTLAND  
The scene of Scott's novel "Kenilworth"

grave historian ever succeeded better in painting the character of the epoch."—G. H. Lewes, *Historical romance (Westminster Review, Mar., 1846)*.—"Macaulay is only the most famous of a large group of writers who have been possessed with the same idea. As Scott founded the historical romance, he may be said to have founded the romantic history. And to this day it is an established popular opinion that this is the true way of writing history, only that few writers have genius enough for it. . . . It must be urged against this kind of history that very few subjects or periods are worthy of it. Once or twice there have appeared glorious characters whose perfection no eloquence can exaggerate; once or twice national events have arranged themselves like a drama, or risen to the elevation of an epic poem. But the average of history is not like this; it is indeed much more ordinary and monotonous than is commonly supposed. The serious student of history has to submit to a disenchantment like that which the experience of life brings to the imaginative youth. As life is not much like romance, so history when it is studied in original documents looks very unlike

France, and Parkman in the United States, but their professed aims and their desire to draw conclusions place them with the former groups. Most of the scientific historians drew their inspiration from Germany, and many of them were pupils of Ranke and other professors in the German universities. Germany first provided regular university training in scientific history, and the scientific school is sometimes termed the German school. But these trained scholars tended to become editors of documents and writers of monographs, rather than historians. . . . The most distinguished scientific historians at the present time are not Germans, though Germany led the way with Niebuhr and Ranke."—H. M. Stephens, *History and historians (syllabus), p. 28*.—"With Freeman (1823-1892), Stubbs (1825-1901), and Gardiner (1829-1902) 'scientific' historical writing in England reached its height. They exerted a deep influence on historical students in the English-speaking world, and reinforced what were supposed to be the special glories of their German models. Freeman, intellectually restless, opinionated and disputatious, not only loaded his 'History of the Norman Conquest' with a ponderous ballast

of footnotes which a German dryasdust might envy, but threw out controversial articles on particular points; and, when he came to the 'History of Sicily,' he decanted his fermenting erudition in innumerable appendices—up to XX, YY, and ZZ—which must astonish the latter-day readers—if there still be any of that elephantine fragment. In his 'Constitutional History' Stubbs had a subject which, like a treatise on jurisprudence, was peculiarly fitted to a depersonalized treatment. But when he came to write his lectures and other works, his personality had free play, and, in his own account of how he prevented John Richard Green from reading Renan's 'Life of Jesus,' we have first-hand evidence that he was, for all his 'scientific' training, fundamentally dishonest. For any historian who deliberately tries to prevent another from reading arguments opposed to his own view cannot be called honest. Samuel Rawson Gardiner reached, it seems to me, the highest level that this school of historians can ever hope to reach. He was precise as to facts, unbiassed in judging persons, thorough in collecting material, and sober in discussing it. But can a history truly represent life if it leaves on you the impression of monotony? If it hardly differentiates, in its attempt to be minutely accurate in events, between the important and the negligible? If it never glows or throbs? Perhaps among some of the seventeen volumes of Gardiner—I have not read them all—these defects may be remedied; but when I look at the shelf on which those seventeen volumes repose, and remember that had Gardiner lived, he would have gone on, to the end of time turning out a volume every sixteen months—so that we can compute how large the output would be by now, and how much larger in 1950—I feel as one does who stands on the brink of a glacier and learns from the guide-books where, at its unchanging rate of speed, it will be at any given date. Every student of historical writing should read in Gardiner's work; but he will imitate it at his peril. Separated by only a decade from the three supposedly 'scientific' historians, came John R. Seeley (1834-1895), John Richard Green (1837-1883), John Morley (1837), George Trevelyan and James Bryce (both born in 1838). The last three are the veterans of to-day, bred in their historical work at the moment when enthusiasm for the evolutionary treatment of history was in spate and the scientific method was revered as infallible. Is it fanciful to say that these three men exemplify in their works the happy balance, the desired union of qualities without which historical writing must be doctrinaire? Mr. Bryce's earliest book, 'The Holy Roman Empire,' shows the most patient erudition in the assembling of material, together with critical finesse in examining and objectivity in presenting it; his later works, such as 'The American Commonwealth,' are not less erudite and critical, but they gain immensely in value because of their subjective presentation. The conclusion arrived at are James Bryce's; had a sexless, soulless, impersonal quiddity uttered them, they would have left us indifferent or unimpressed. Mr. Morley also began his career in authorship with biographical studies, in which, although he displayed complete detachment as to facts, he still allowed himself freedom as to interpretation. In him, the critic, especially the literary critic, has always competed with the historian; and, indeed, no man can be a penetrating historian who does not know the literary background of his chosen period. The 'Life of Gladstone' is a masterly synthesis,

enfolded not only the political, but also the intellectual and religious elements of his subject—an interpretation of a very high order. If Mr. Morley in his youth trusted to formulas as to how history should be written he long since rose above them. So, too, Sir George Trevelyan illustrates how the true historian, absorbed in his passion to see life and to interpret it livingly, forgets the rule of thumb. It is forty years since he wrote his 'Life of Macaulay,' the best biography, as I think, of any man of letters, except Boswell's 'Johnson'; and now he has just completed his notable history of the American Revolution, in which there is surely no lack of scholarship, no neglect of 'sources,' no carelessness, no haste. Of Seeley it must be said that, although educated according to 'scientific' rules, he also showed the same tendency to be human rather than to be consciously abstract. A life of Stein might be a noble contribution to biography, but Seeley failed in sense of proportion and in the art of selection. So the life he wrote has large humps and hollows, superfluities and skimpings, as if an artist should set out to draw a horse and achieve a Bactrian camel. . . . One historian, who belongs chronologically with the earlier group, must be classed, by his product, with the later. This is Goldwin Smith (1823-1910), a man of amazingly rich equipment, who passed through the successive stages of intellectual experience from the fourth to the tenth decade of the nineteenth century, and then, at the age of seventy-six, published 'The United Kingdom,' a work written without reference to any school or *ism*—the fruit of a lifetime of study and meditation, shaped by a keen and sometimes savage wit. Of the younger British writers of history I will not speak in detail. Each school has its champion among them. The learned Professor Bury insists that history is 'scientific' or nothing, while the versatile and vivid Mr. George Trevelyan, standing in the opposite camp, teaches by example the futility of cramping any representation of life into the straitjacket of doctrinaire formulas. In the main, however, contemporary British historical writers start with the assumption that they must know their subject thoroughly, and then they aim at producing works which have, as the best English histories have always had, strong human interest and pertinence."—W. R. Thayer, *Historical writing* (*Nation*, July 8, 1915).

In France—"the most original historian, next to Taine and Renan, was Fustel de Coulanges (1830-1889) who came from the school of Guizot. To him, as against Taine and Renan, history was an end in itself, a pure science. His literary production is divided into two halves. During the first period, of which *La Cité antique* is the best known work, he endeavored to give large historical syntheses. They are based . . . on the careful study of original documents. . . . Fustel de Coulanges's sole ideal was truth and accuracy. In the latter respect he was liable to error because of his lack of equipment as a palaeographer. But he is the type of historical sincerity, especially when even the slight tendency to synthesis due to the early German historians had given way to the cult of the text. His chief work, apart from the *Cité antique*, was the *Histoire des institutions politiques de l'ancienne France*. Among the other important historians of the second half of the nineteenth century there was Gaston Bois-sier (1823-1908), a somewhat miscellaneous writer, studying the spirit of different ages or individuals, such as the times of Cicero, the Roman Empire,

or great men and women of French literature. Albert Sorel (1842-1906), a pupil of Taine, dealt with the Franco-Prussian war, the Orient in the eighteenth century, or Europe and the French Revolution. Albert Vandal (1853-1910) wrote on the times of Napoleon. The leading contemporary historians, Aulard, Langlois, Lavissee, Monod, and Seignobos are scholars primarily and men of letters in a subsidiary sense.—C. H. C. Wright, *History of French literature*, pp. 815-816.—“German historical writing has produced no greater master than Theodor Mommsen (1817-1903), whose famous *History of Rome* continues to be the standard work on the subject. Although as great and as thorough a scholar as Ranke, Mommsen possessed, in addition a brilliant historical imagination which enabled him to reproduce the past in a most vivid and fascinating way. He was not only a narrator of facts, carefully gathered and scientifically classified, but also an interpreter of most original power. Mommsen's *History*, which appeared during the years 1854-56, treats of the life history of the Roman Republic. It is a condensation, in three volumes, of a vast period in human history without, however, omitting any important facts, a luminous and exact résumé of all the available knowledge on the subject. His judgment on the overthrow of the Roman Republic is this: ‘When a government cannot govern, it ceases to be legitimate and he who has the power to overthrow it has also the right.’ Julius Caesar is the historian's hero. Him he regards as the true founder of Roman democracy which displaced a corrupt oligarchy masquerading as a republic. Mommsen's history is mainly along political and constitutional lines, although it contains some excellent chapters on the social and economic life of the Romans.”—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, pp. 141-142.

“In the United States, the course of development in historical production has resembled that in England, but with one striking difference. Most of the college professors of history here during the past fifty years got their final education in Germany; and in characteristic American fashion they have run to an extreme. They have worshipped the German method, as if it were everything, forgetting that the German historians themselves—Droysen, Sybel, Treitschke, and the rest—made history a vehicle for their national propaganda. Our professors have for some time had the machinery: but it is noteworthy that the three leading American historians of this period—Francis Parkman, Henry Adams, and James Ford Rhodes—were not, so to speak machine-made. Parkman, whose ‘Pioneers of France in the New World’ came out precisely in 1865, and who combines in so many respects the chief requisites of an historian, taught himself. Mr. Henry Adams, although he served as assistant professor of history at Harvard for seven years, is the last man in the world to be anybody's disciple; his methods are his own, just as his extraordinary gift of expression is his own. Mr. Rhodes had no formal training; and, while he seems sometimes to hold the ‘scientific’ formulas in such respect as they might claim if they were the *end* instead of merely the *means*, the traits which stamp his history—poise, sympathy, insistence on being just—never came from formulas.”—W. R. Thayer, *Historical writing* (*Nation*, July 8, 115).—“In 1865 the doctrine of evolution had taken hold of the younger historians as a gospel to be followed joyously, trustfully, triumphantly. Almost every

other field of intellectual activity was being cultivated by the ‘scientific method.’ . . . The method of scientific investigation in history had been elaborated long since by the Germans, who, under the lead of Ranke, professed to write history as they would write a treatise on chemistry or medicine or philology. The historian must make himself as impartial as a photographic plate. The earlier ideal made him a judge, whose duty it was, in commenting upon historic movements and personages, to render an impartial verdict; but the scientific historian held himself above good and evil, and in describing the past he regarded it as none of his business to let you surmise that he had any preference between, say, the acts of St. Francis of Assisi and those of the Duke of Alba. True to his rôle of sensitized plate, he took whatever was in front of him. It is late in the day to say that every one worthy of the name of historian long ago accepted the scientific method of investigation; but perhaps it is not too late to assert that this method was not invented by the Germans. Gibbon practiced it; so did Thucydides—to mention no others—and as both Gibbon and Thucydides possessed other qualities which have not been vouchsafed to German historians, and as they wrote in English and in Greek—languages which, as vehicles of prose, the German cannot approach—their histories are more, much more, than examples of the scientific method. . . . The historian uses, as a matter of course, the scientific method, just as the judge uses it, who hears all the evidence before forming an opinion. But let us not delude ourselves into supposing—as so many who discuss this subject do—that the mere use of that method qualifies a man as an historian. Method is only machinery, a tool, an instrument, a key; but what results from its use depends upon the individual user. A hundred surgeons, all taught by the same method, pursue their profession with very different achievement. . . . The time appears to be at hand, when, through a clear understanding of the purpose of history, its subdivisions and collaterals will not be mistaken for the great subject itself. . . . And with this realization the conviction is spreading that it is not what principles or method the historical writer professes, but what he writes, that counts. The writers of fiction are classified as realists or romanticists, impressionists or veritists, but the label is no guarantee of the worth of the novel. So likewise the great historian will be great not because he embodies the doctrines or mannerisms of a school, but because of his own inalienable and untransmissible qualifications.”—*Ibid.*

ALSO IN: E. Channing, A. B. Hart and F. J. Turner, *Guide to the study of American history*.—J. T. Merz, *History of European thought in the nineteenth century*.

33. Current schools of history.—“There are at present some seven definite schools of historical interpretation among the representatives of the modernized students of historical phenomena, each of which has made an important contribution to our knowledge of historical development. They may be designated as the personal or ‘great man’ theory, the economic or materialistic, the allied geographical or environmental, the spiritual or idealistic, the scientific and the sociological. It might be pointed out in passing that the conventional type of historians either cling to the outworn theory of political causation, or, like Professor Emerton, hold that historical development is entirely arbitrary, obeys no ascertainable laws



and exhibits no definite tendencies. The best known of these schools of historical interpretation, and the only one that the current political historians accord any consideration, is that which found its most noted representative in Carlyle, who claimed that the great personalities of history were the main causative factors in history."—H. E. Barnes, *Past and the future of history (Historical Outlook, Feb., 1921)*.—"It was the materialistic Feuerbach, with his thoroughgoing avowal that man is the creature of his appetite and not of his mind (*Der Mensch ist was er isst*), who furnished the transition to a new and absolutely radical line of historical interpretation—the materialistic and the economic. Materialism has a bad name. It has partly earned it, partly had it thrust upon it. But whatever one may think of its cruder dogmatic aspects, the fact remains the interpretation of history owes at least as much to it as to all the speculations which had preceded it. For it supplied one-half the data—the material half! Neither theology nor metaphysics had really got down to earth. . . . The materialistic interpretation of history does not necessarily imply that there is nothing but materialism in the process, any more than theology implies that there is nothing but spirit. It will be news to some that such was the point of view of the most famous advocate of the materialistic interpretation of History, H. T. Buckle. His *History of Civilization in England*, published in 1857, was the first attempt to work out the influences of the material world upon the formation of societies. . . . Ten years before Buckle published his *History of Civilization*, Karl Marx had already formulated the 'economic theory of history.' Accepting with reservations Feuerbach's materialistic attack upon Hegel, Marx was led to the conclusion that the motive causes of history are to be found in the conditions of material existence."—J. T. Shotwell, *Interpretation of history (American Historical Review, July, 1913)*.—"The contributions of the economic school of historical interpretation which was founded by Feuerbach and Marx and has been carried on by a host of later and less dogmatic writers, the most notable of whom are W. S. Sombart and Thorsten Veblen, are too familiar to call for any additional emphasis. In spite of obvious exaggerations, no phase of historical interpretation has been more fruitful or epoch-making. The geographical interpretation of history, which begun with Hippocrates and continued through Vegetius, Bodin, Montesquieu and Buckle, has been revived and given a more scientific interpretation in the hands of writers like Karl Ritter, Ratzel, Reclus, Semple, Metchnikoff, Demolins and Huntington. Since the days of Ritter no respectable historian has dared to chronicle the history of a nation without first having acquired a knowledge of its geography. The historical work of Curtius, Riehl, Freeman, Bryce, Myres, Shaler, Semple and Payne are a few conspicuous illustrations of the influence which geography has had upon historiography. But even more important has been the work of those students of geography, such as Ratzel, Demolins, Metchnikoff and Huntington, who have shown in great detail the importance of the natural features of the earth's surface and climatic conditions in determining the regions in which the historical civilizations originated, developed and expanded. Especially noteworthy has been the suggestive, if not entirely convincing, work of Prof. Ellsworth Huntington, of Yale, whose researches in Asia Minor enabled him to ascertain the existence of important climatic changes in the past

which throw a new light upon the hitherto unexplained problems of the shifting of the center of civilization from Egypt to Northwestern Europe and the invasions of Europe by Asiatic peoples. A somewhat belated offshoot of the Hegelian idealism is to be found in the so-called spiritual interpretation of history which finds its most ardent advocates in Professor Eucken of Germany, Professor E. D. Adams of Leland Stanford and Professor Shailer Matthews of Chicago. The attempt to view human progress as directly correlated with the advances in natural science received its first great exposition in the writings of Condorcet and was revived by Comte and Buckle. This phase of historical interpretation has been sadly neglected by recent historians. It has been emphasized incidentally by Professors Breasted, Marvin, Shepherd, Shotwell and Robinson in their synthetic interpretation of history, but it remains the least exploited, and yet the most promising of all the special phases of historical interpretation. The sociological interpretation of history goes back as far as the Arab Ibn Khaldun; was developed by Vico, Turgot, Condorcet, Comte and Spencer; and has its ablest modern historical representatives in Professors Giddings of Columbia, Thomas of Chicago, Hobhouse of London and Durkheim of Paris. Giddings describes it as 'an attempt to account for the origin, growth, structure and activities of society by the operation of physical, vital and psychical causes, working together in a process of evolution.' One of its chief concerns is to account for repetitions and uniformities in historical development and to formulate the laws of historical causation. But the latest and more important of all types of historical interpretation, and the one which most perfectly represents the newer history, is the synthetic or 'collective psychological.' According to the view of the adherents of this type of historical interpretation no single type of 'causes' is sufficient to explain all phases and periods of historical development. Nothing less than the collective psychology of any period can be deemed sufficient to determine the historical development of that age, and it is the task of the historian to discover, evaluate and set forth the chief factors which create and shape the collective view of life and determine the nature of the group struggle for existence and improvement. The most eminent leaders of this school of historical interpretation have been Professor Lamprecht of Leipzig, Professor Marvin in England, Professor Breasted of Chicago, Professor Turner of Harvard, and Professors Robinson and Shotwell of Columbia University."—H. E. Barnes, *Past and future of history (Historical Outlook, Feb., 1921)*.

"The newer synthetic history has enlarged the scope of historical narrative in three distinct ways. It has expanded it with respect to the variety of human interests and activities which are recounted. It has pushed back the period in which our knowledge of the career of man begins, and it has expanded the scope of history in space by showing that more and more modern history is becoming world history. In regard to the extension of the range of interests which are deemed worthy of narrating, the newer history refuses to look upon any phase of human conduct as unworthy of consideration, but it seeks to put due emphasis upon those classes of activities and interests which the slightest reflection upon human life must demonstrate always to have been the most vital and influential in human existence and development, namely, economic activities, social rela-

tions, technology and natural science, and political, legal and religious institutions. The chief novel element in this phase of the newer historiography is the greater emphasis which is put upon economic, social and scientific factors in human development. Without for a moment committing itself to the Feuerbach-Marxian determinism, the newer synthetic history recognizes that civilization has a fundamental economic basis, that the state of scientific knowledge at any period determines the manner in which the economic struggle will be carried on, and that the nature of the economic process will to a very large extent decide the nature of the prevailing social relations and institutions. . . . Of course, this tendency to emphasize non-political factors in the treatment of history is not new. It is as old as Herodotus, and, in its modern phase, it dates from Vico, Voltaire and Heeren. It already has been represented by some of the most eminent of historians from all nations. England can boast of the names of Hallam, Flint, Symonds, Lecky, Green, Maitland, Slater, Pollard, Dill, Morley, and Ashley, Cunningham, Rogers and the less-noted economic historians; France has been represented by DeTocqueville, Guizot, Fustel de Coulanges, Luchaire, Rambaud, Tannery, Faguet, Reinach, Jaurès, Levasseur and the other economic historians; in Germany the most conspicuous names are those of Heeren, Riehl, Freytag, Burckhardt, Erman, Harnak, Breyssig, Lamprecht, and Schmoller, Bücher and the lesser economic historians; Russia has contributed two noted members in Vinogradoff and Kovalevsky; finally, one finds in the United States such writers as Lea, Tyler, McMaster, Turner, Sumner, Jastrow, Breasted, Cheyney, Shepherd, Abbott, Burr, Becker, Taylor, Robinson, Shotwell, Beard, [Gross, G. B. Adams, Jameson] and the economic historians, such as Tetlen, Coman, Bogart, Bolles, Gay, Commons, Wright, Day, Callender, Clark and Meyer. Its attainment to an organized movement of such proportions that it seems destined to dominate historical writing and teaching in the not very distant future is what distinguishes the recent phase from the earlier sporadic and isolated examples of this tendency. . . . These newer ideas must of necessity bring with them a revolution in our historical chronology and our periodizing of history. Oriental history can no longer be regarded as 'ancient.' Ancient history really begins with the lower Paleolithic age, around two hundred thousand years ago, and ends with the beginning of the Neolithic, about fifteen thousand years ago. Modern history might be said to extend from the Neolithic to the dawn of written history. The period from 3500 B.C. might well be regarded as contemporary history. The major part of the so-called 'historic period' from 3500 B.C. to 1750 A.D. has in reality been the least important era in the development of mankind. The really significant achievements in advance were made before 3500 B.C. or after 1750 A.D. No phase of progress in historical writing or interpretation has been more significant than the advances which have been made in the demonstration of the importance of extra-European influences on the history of western civilization. Particularly significant has been the investigation of these factors in their relation to the origins of modern times. It was long the fashion to trace modern times to the Turkish occupation of the trade routes and the capture of Constantinople, to the Italian revival of letters and development of art, or to the Lutheran revolt against the Medieval Church, Professor

Lybyer has proved beyond possibility of contradiction that the Turkish occupation of the trade routes had no influence on the development of overseas explorations and the development of modern colonial enterprise in America and the Far East, and, along with Professors Shepherd and Abbott, has demonstrated that the great cause for overseas expansion around 1500 was the scientific curiosity of the West and the jealousy of the western states concerning the Italian monopoly of the eastern trade with the Levant districts. Further, these writers have shown that the characteristic events and developments of early modern times, colonization, the downfall of feudalism and the rise of the national state, the beginnings of representative government through the rise of the middle class, the awakening of modern science, and the development of the modern commercial and economic life, are primarily the product of the reaction upon Europe of the expansion of European civilization overseas. Even the Protestant Reformation would not have succeeded but for the rise of the middle class and the awakening of those nationalistic aspirations which the expansion did so much to produce. Compared with the overseas expansion and the Commercial Revolution, the Renaissance and Reformation appear backward-looking movements. Again, though the Industrial Revolution must be looked upon as the most appalling transformation in the history of humanity, it could scarcely have appeared without the preceding Commercial Revolution which prepared the way for its development directly or indirectly in the realms of navigation, capital, commercial practices and institutions, raw materials, markets, legal development and even the mobility of labor. Finally, the Industrial Revolution and its direct resultant, modern national imperialism, have promoted the final stage of expansion overseas since 1870. This has led to the exploration and commercial exploitation of all remaining habitable portions of the earth's surface and has bound the whole world together as an organic economic and cultural unit, however powerful the centrifugal forces may at times become. As Viscount Bryce has well insisted in his judicious Raleigh Lecture on *World History*, we can now for the first time witness a real concrete unity of history rather than postulating a metaphysical or potential unity as was the case from the Greek Stoics and Augustine down to our day. Despite anything that Senators Borah or Johnson may do or say we have now become inextricable units in a world organism, and any attempt to study, write or teach national history without considering external influences must be regarded as a hopeless anachronism."—*Ibid.*—See also EUROPE: Middle Ages; Renaissance and Reformation; Modern period.

ALSO IN: M. M. Davis, *Psychological interpretation of society*, ch. 2, 6-8, 13.—F. H. Giddings, *Theory of history (Political Science Quarterly, Dec., 1920)*.—F. J. Teggart, *Prologomena to history*.—W. G. Sumner, *Folkways*, ch. 1.—C. A. Beard, *Economic interpretation of the constitution of the United States*, ch. 1.—S. Matthews, *Spiritual interpretation of history*.—E. R. A. Seligman, *Economic interpretation of history*.—T. F. Tout, *Schools of history (University Review, 1906)*.

34. New orientation of history.—"The War has profoundly affected our outlook in every sphere of mental as well as material activity. No body of intellectual workers is likely to feel its influence more acutely than those who occupy themselves with the study of history. The world-con-

flict has undoubtedly aroused a new and wider interest in the subject; and it is significant that, though the output of fiction and general literature fell below the average in 1914, there was a considerable increase in historical books. . . . The War has given a new orientation to our historical studies. Now as ever the historian is subject to the influences of his environment. He cannot abstract himself from the tone and temper which prevail outside his library. And however single-minded he may be in his pursuit of what he deems undiluted truth he must necessarily be affected by the atmosphere in which he moves. . . . This new orientation is likely to be more marked among our native scholars than in those of the Continental countries. In France and Germany and Italy, the international and military aspects of history continued to attract a much larger share of interest than among ourselves, for the tradition of great wars, and of struggles for sheer existence, was too vivid to be extinguished. In Germany indeed, as we have been frequently reminded, the professors were working hand in hand with the politicians; and the new imperialism of Prussia found, or thought it had found, its intellectual justification in the researches of writers and teachers like Sybel, Dahlmann, Droysen, and above all Treitschke. Yet even in the land, and in the very universities, of these sabre-rattling chroniclers there were other writers who were steadily working out an entirely different conception of history, and endeavoring to make a place for it among the sciences, or the quasi-sciences, like jurisprudence, ethnology, philology, and economics. The War has gone far to complete the reaction against this current of opinion [racial self-conceit]. It is improbable that the 'Anglo-Saxon' theory will ever be pressed so far again. . . . Our historical outlook is changing in other ways. It is seeking wider horizons and losing at the same time something of its dogmatic certainty, its definiteness, its symmetrical limitation. . . . The War, indeed, has shown how vain were the optimistic illusions of the writers and thinkers of a society mainly occupied, as Britain was between 1815 and 1899, with peaceful industry and expanding commerce, chequered only by remote and secondary campaigns. In that period it was easy to believe that the bells were ringing out the thousand years of war and striking the note for a thousand years of peace. . . . Herbert Spencer built up a whole vast scheme of politics and sociology round the assumption that the progress of humanity had been a steady transition from militarism to industrialism, and that the journey was now rapidly approaching its final stages. And surely no prophet was ever more unfortunate in his predictions! The philosopher of evolution lived long enough to discover, if he did not acknowledge, that a social system based on industry offers no better security against war than one grounded on theocracy or feudalism. If he had lived a few years longer he would have seen that industrialism itself may only be another facet of militarism. . . . Even before the outbreak of hostilities the reaction against the systematic and reasoned view of history had set in. Writers like Sorel in France, to say nothing of Nietzsche in Germany, had warned us that the Age of Conflict was not passed, and that the Age of Reason had scarcely begun. . . . Evolution itself is no longer so satisfying. Darwinism, with its assumption of a slow, steady, upward movement, through the aeons, has lost much of its authority. The Neo-Darwinians and the Mendelians teach us that Nature does

not always work in this leisurely systematic fashion by an infinite number of minute variations, but on the contrary often produces its greater changes by sudden jumps and unexpected starts and violent strokes and counter-strokes. Must not the historian be haunted by a suspicion that our world-war itself may be a kind of Mendelian 'mutation'? May he not feel that this startling retrogression, or this equally startling advance towards a new type of civilization, whichever it may turn out to be, does not lend itself to the theory of purposive adaptation and causality by which he sometimes seeks to explain the lesser cataclysms and upheavals of the past? . . . In the light of all that is happening history will have less encouragement to pursue that somewhat arid path of generalization and abstraction which the feet of Clio never tread with ease. It may be tempted to go back to description, narrative, and biography; and will not be less instructive, or in any real sense, less scientific, on that account."—S. Low, *New orientation of history* (*Living Age*, May 27, 1916).

ALSO IN: J. H. Robinson, *New history*.—G. L. Burr, *Freedom in history* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1917).—J. I. Wyer, *Bibliography of the study and teaching of history*.—B. Croce, *Intorno alla Storia della Storiografia*.—C. V. Langlois, *L'Historiographie*.

**HIT**, town of Mesopotamia, situated about seventy miles west-northwest of Bagdad, on the Euphrates river. It was occupied by the British during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 3, ii; 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1.

**HITCHCOCK**, Ethan Allen (1835-1909), American diplomat and cabinet officer. Minister of Russia, 1807-1898; ambassador to Russia, 1898; secretary of the interior, 1898-1907. See U.S.A.: 1901-1905; 1903-1906; 1905-1900.

**HITCHCOCK**, Frank Harris (1867- ), American cabinet officer. First assistant postmaster-general, 1905-1908; postmaster-general, 1909-1913. See U.S.A.: 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft.

**HITCHITIS**, American aboriginal tribe. See MUSKHOGEAN, OR MASKOKI, FAMILY.

**HITOTSUBASHI**, or Keiki (1837-1902), Japanese statesman. See JAPAN: 1863-1868.

**HITTIN**, Battle of (1187). See JERUSALEM: 1144-1187.

**HITTITES**, a people mentioned in the Bible, known as the Khita or Khatta to the Egyptians, with whom they were often at war. Recent discoveries indicate that they formed a more civilized and powerful nation and played a more important part in the early history of Western Asia than was previously supposed. Many inscriptions and rock sculptures in Asia Minor and Syria which were formerly inexplicable are now attributed to the Hittites. The inscriptions have not yet been deciphered, but scholars are confident that the key to their secret will be found. The two chief cities of the Hittites were Kadesh on the Orontes and Carchemish on the Euphrates; so that their seat of empire was in northern Syria, but their power was felt from the extremity of Asia Minor to the confines of Egypt. It is conjectured that these people were originally from the Caucasus. "Their descendants are still to be met with in the defiles of the Taurus and on the plateau of Kappadokia, though they have utterly forgotten the language or languages their forefathers spoke. What that language was is still uncertain, though the Hittite proper names which occur on the monuments of Egypt and Assyria show that it

was neither Semitic nor Indo-European."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 5.—"We may . . . rest satisfied with the conclusion that the existence of a Hittite empire extending into Asia Minor is certified, not only by the records of ancient Egypt, but also by Hittite monuments which still exist. In the days of Ramses II., when the children of Israel were groaning under the tasks allotted to them, the enemies of their oppressors were already exercising a power and a domination which rivalled that of Egypt. The Egyptian monarch soon learned to his cost that the Hittite prince was as 'great' a king as himself, and could summon to his aid the inhabitants of the unknown north. Pharaoh's claim to sovereignty was disputed by adversaries as powerful as the ruler of Egypt, if indeed not more powerful, and there was always a refuge among them for those who were oppressed by the Egyptian king. When, however, we speak of a Hittite empire, we must understand clearly what that means. It was not an empire like that of Rome, where the subject provinces were consolidated together under a central authority, obeying the same laws and the same supreme head. It was not an empire like that of the Persians, or of the Assyrian successors of Tiglath-pileser III., which represented the organised union of numerous states and nations under a single ruler. . . . Before the days of Tiglath-pileser, in fact, empire in Western Asia meant the power of a prince to force a foreign people to submit to his rule. The conquered provinces had to be subdued again and again; but as long as this could be done, as long as the native struggles for freedom could be crushed by a campaign, so long did the empire exist. It was an empire of this sort that the Hittites established in Asia Minor. How long it lasted we cannot say. But so long as the distant races of the West answered the summons to war of the Hittite princes, it remained a reality. The fact that the tribes of the Troad and Lydia are found fighting under the command of the Hittite kings of Kadesh, proves that they acknowledged the supremacy of their Hittite lords, and followed them to battle like the vassals of some feudal chief. If Hittite armies had not marched to the shores of the Ægean, and Hittite princes been able from time to time to exact homage from the nations of the far west, Egypt would not have had to contend against the populations of Asia Minor in its wars with the Hittites, and the figures of Hittite warriors would not have been sculptured on the rocks of Karabel. There was a time when the Hittite name was feared as far as the western extremity of Asia Minor, and when Hittite satraps had their seat in the future capital of Lydia. Traditions of this period lingered on into classical days."—A. H. Sayce, *Hittites*, ch. 4.—"But it was not from the Sea-Country that the West-Semitic Dynasty of Babylon received its death-blow. In the later chronicle, which has thrown so much light on the earlier conflicts of this troubled period, we read of another invasion, which not only brought disaster to Babylon but probably put an end to her first dynasty. The chronicler states that during the reign of Samsuditana, the last king of the dynasty, 'men of the land of Khatti marched against the land of Akkad,' in other words, the Hittites from Anatolia marched down the Euphrates and invaded Babylonia from the north-west. The chronicle does not record the result of the invasion, but we may probably connect it with the fact that the Kassite king Agum-Kakrime brought back to Babylon from Khani, the old Khana on the

middle Euphrates, the cult-images of Marduk and Sarpanitum and installed them once more with great pomp and ceremony within their shrines in E-sagila. We may legitimately conclude that they were carried off by the Hittites during their invasion in Samsu-ditana's reign. If the Hittites succeeded in despoiling Babylon of her most sacred deities, it is clear that they must have raided the city, and they may even have occupied it for a time. Thus the West-Semitic dynasty of Babylon may have been brought to an end by these Hittite conquerors, and Samsu-ditana himself may have fallen in defence of his own capital. But there is no reason for supposing that the Hittites occupied Babylon for long. Even if their success was complete, they would soon have returned to their own country, laden with heavy spoil; and they doubtless left some of their number in occupation of Khana on their withdrawal up the Euphrates."—L. W. King, *History of Babylon*, pp. 210, 211.—"Soon after the treaty between Egypt and Mitanni, Subiluliuma, King of the Hittites of Cappadocia (whom Egyptian scribes conveniently abbreviate as Saplel), was overlord apparently of a number of outpost baronies in North Syria. Assured of their help, and watching his opportunity, he flung his whole force, about 1400, upon Mitanni, and over-ran the foothill country as far as the Tigris; as far indeed as the conquests of his great predecessor Hattusil I, of whom unfortunately we have little news but this bare allusion. This closed the career of Mitanni, and totally upset the calculations of Egypt. It also impressed greatly the leading chiefs of the Aramæans. Another forward move must needs be at their expense; so they made the best of a bad business by throwing in their lot with the Hittites; at first secretly, on account of allegiance only recently sworn to Egypt; then, on detection, openly, as a tributary state. Egypt, deserted on all hands, made terms with the victor, and ceded all North Syria, and this treaty was renewed between Mursil, the second successor of Saplel (about 1360 [B.C.]), and Amenhotep IV, who found himself cut off by hostile Aramæans from his hereditary friends in Babylonia, and was rapidly losing his hold even on the coast towns of Phœnicia, who were as hard pressed as he through the defection of all North Syria. Others, however, whom the Hittite victories had taken no less by surprise, had now had time to revise their policy. Assyria, when it had harried Mitanni in time past, had not meant to weaken it for Hittites to destroy. To redress the balance, Shalmaneser I decided to scramble for its remains: he raided about 1320 [B.C.] as far as the Euphrates, and his successor invaded Comagene, in the hills between Syria and Cappadocia itself. About the same time Seti I, an early king of the XIX Dynasty, claims to have reached the Euphrates again, and his successor, Rameses II, certainly re-occupied the Lebanon. The situation was critical: and the Hittites, who by this time had overlordship over almost the whole of Asia Minor, gathered all their allies, including Lycians from the far south-west, and Dardanians from the neighbourhood of Troy, and met the Egyptian army in 1287 in a great battle at Kadesh in North Syria. Rameses claims to have won; but he did not pursue his victory; and as the Aramæans took opportunity to revolt from the Hittites, the truce which resulted was probably needed on both sides. It was followed in 1271 by a most elaborate treaty between Rameses and the king of Boghaz-keui, Hattusil II (whom Rameses calls Khetasar) providing for a frontier to be delimited

in the Lebanon, for extradition of evil-doers, and for offensive and defensive alliance—against whom? The king of Babylon, for one, was uneasy, and sent to Boghaz-keui to enquire. Two possibilities are open. Hattusil had occasion about this time to use very firm language to a Babylonian pretender in reference to an unnamed enemy: and this enemy can hardly be other than Assyria, which had lately been so active westward. The other danger was a new one; Europe, as we shall see again, more clearly, was emptying itself with violent spasms into the Mediterranean, and not least into northwest Asia Minor. The Hittite Empire was being attacked in the rear. . . . [It] drew rein not a moment too soon. If, as the Greeks believed the Trojan War began about 1194 [B.C.], the Phrygian invasion of the plateau, and their great fight with the 'ben-pecker' Amazons must have occurred about forty years before: i. e., about 1230 [B.C.], within a year or two of the great sea-raid which fell on Egypt under Merenptah. And when another sea-raid, and a wholesale land-migration also, fell upon Syria about 1200, and was only beaten off from Egypt by the courage and diplomacy of Rameses III, the Hittites who took part in it were not the leaders, but colleagues or subordinates of peoples with Ægean and West-Anatolian names. Of these newcomers, the people who come most into view are the Muski, ancestors probably of the Moschoi of Greek geography. Still migratory, by 1170 they were threatening the Assyrian border, and (in spite of promises) remained dangerous till Tiglath-pileser I drove them back 'as far as the Upper Sea,' which in this context may well mean the Black Sea. This was in 1120 [B.C.], and it gave the fragments of Assyria's old enemy, the Hittite Empire, a chance to revive. Their chief city now, however, was not Boghaz-keui, but the fortress of Carchemish on the Euphrates, which seems to have survived untaken when Tiglath-pileser's army swept through the North Syrian baronies to the Lebanon and the Phœnician coast. This first Assyrian conquest, however, was short-lived; formal acknowledgments may have been paid to Nineveh by states west of the Euphrates, for some generations, but a revolt about 1060 released Syria, and broke an Assyrian army at Carchemish."—J. L. Myres, *Dawn of history*, pp. 153-158.—See also AMORITES; EGYPT: Hyksos, or shepherd-kings; ITALY: Ancient.

ALSO IN: W. Wright, *Empire of the Hittites*.

**HIVITES**, ancient tribe of Palestine. See JEWS: Conquest of Canaan.

**HOANG-HO**. See HWANG-HO.

**HOAR**, Ebenezer Rockwood (1816-1895), American jurist. Judge of Massachusetts state supreme court, 1849-1855; attorney-general of United States, 1869-1870; member of Joint High Commission, 1871; president of Board of Overseers of Harvard University, 1878-1880, 1881-1887. See U.S.A.: 1869-1877.

**HOAR**, George Frisbie (1826-1904), American legislator. Member of Massachusetts senate, 1857; member of United States House of Representatives, 1869-1877; member of Electoral Commission which settled Hayes-Tilden election dispute, 1877; United States senator, 1877-1904. See U. S. A.: 1899 (January-February); 1900 (April).

**HOARD**, **HORDERE**, court official in the time of Alfred the Great. See STALLER.

**HOBART**, Garret Augustus (1844-1899), vice president of the United States, 1896-1899. See U.S.A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Republican; 1899 (November).

**HOBART**, John Henry (1775-1830), American

divine. Episcopal bishop of New York, 1816-1830. See PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH: 1811-1836.

**HOBBEEMA**, Meyndert (c. 1638-1709), Dutch landscape painter. See PAINTING: Dutch.

**HOBBS**, Thomas (1588-1679), English philosopher. "One of the boldest and most consistent of the representatives of the modern movement is Thomas Hobbes. Like all the reformers, he breaks with the past: Greek philosophy is to him a 'phantasm'; the weeding out of inveterate opinions is the business to be taken in hand. With Bacon he accentuates the practical utility of science or philosophy: the end of knowledge is power. He denies completely the scientific character of theology. . . . He also repudiates the spiritualistic notion of the soul. . . . He accepts, instead, the new natural science of Copernicus, Galileo, and Harvey, whom he regards as the founders of science, and fearlessly deduces the consequences of the mechanical theory in his materialistic philosophy. Himself a student of mathematics, Hobbes looks upon the method of geometry as the only one capable of giving us sure and universal knowledge. . . . He is, like Bacon, an empiricist in his theory of the origin of knowledge. He finds it difficult, however, to reconcile his rationalism with his empiricism; the presence of both factors in the system is responsible for many inconsistencies and uncertainties."—F. Thilly, *History of philosophy*, pp. 263-264. Among his works are: "Elementa philosophica de cive," "De corpore," "De homine," "Leviathan," and "Elements of law, natural and politic."—See also DEISM: English; ETHICS: 17th century; HISTORY: 24.

**HOBHOUSE**, Leonard Trelawney (1864- ), English philosopher and sociologist. See HISTORY: 33.

**HOBKIRK'S HILL**, Battle of (1781). See U.S.A.: 1780-1781.

**HOBOKEN**, city on the Hudson river in Hudson county, New Jersey. Located opposite New York City, Hoboken is connected with it by tube and ferry. Originally the town was part of the patroonship, called Hobocan, which Hackingh granted to Michael Pauw in 1630, but the present city dates from 1804 when John Stephen acquired the land. He planned the town but it was not until 1840 that it was incorporated as such, and not until 1855 that it received a city charter. Hoboken is an important shipping place for coal, and a terminus of several steamship lines and railroads. On the 30th of June, 1900, between 200 and 300 people lost their lives in a fire which destroyed the pier system of the North German Lloyd steamship line. The fire wrecked three of the large ships of the company, and is said to have been the most destructive blaze that ever visited the piers and shipping of New York harbor. Among its chief manufactures are marine engines, cork and machine-shop products, elevators, chemicals, leather goods, silk and wall paper. Its most notable buildings are Stephens Institute of Technology and St. Marys Hospital.

**HOBSON**, John Atkinson (1858- ), English economist. See SOCIALISM: 1006.

**HOBSON**, Richmond Pearson (1870- ), American naval constructor. During the Spanish-American War he sank the collier *Merrimac* at the entrance of Santiago harbor in order to imprison Cervera's fleet. Member of House of Representatives, 1907-1915. See U. S. A.: 1898 (April-June).

**HOBSON**, William (d. 1842), British captain of the royal navy. Sent to New Zealand with

authority to annex the country to Australia, 1839; acted as lieutenant-governor, 1839-1841, and as governor, 1841-1842. See NEW ZEALAND: 1837-1852.

**HOBSON JOINT RESOLUTION** (1914). See LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1913-1919.

**HOCH, Edward Wallis** (1849- ), governor of Kansas, 1905-1909. See KANSAS: 1904-1912.

**HOCHE, Lazare** (1768-1797), French general. Succeeded in driving the Austrians out of Alsace, 1793; suppressed the Vendean revolt, 1795-1796; won several victories over the Austrians as commander of the Army of the Sambre and Meuse, 1797. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Progress of War of Coalition; 1794-1796.

**HOHELAGA**, name of an Indian village founded by Cartier on the site of the present city of Montreal. An extensive region of surrounding country seems to have likewise borne the name Hochelaga, and Cartier calls the river St. Lawrence "the river of Hochelaga," or "the great river of Canada."—See also AMERICA: 1534-1535; CANADA: Names.

**HOCHKIRCH, Battle of.** See GERMANY: 1758.

**HÖCHST, Battle of** (1622). See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

**HÖCHSTADT, Battles of:** 1703. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1704.—The great battle which English historians name from the village of Blenheim, is named by the French from the neighboring town of Höchststadt. See GERMANY: 1704.

1800. See FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

**HODEIBIA, Truce of** (626). See MOHAMMEDANISM.

**HODGSON, Sir Frederic Mitchell** (1851- ), British governor of Gold Coast, 1898-1900. See ASHANTI: 1895-1900.

**HODSON, William Stephen Raikes** (1821-1858), British soldier. Participated in the Sikh War; distinguished himself in the Sepoy mutiny as leader of a cavalry unit called "Hodson's Horse," 1857. See INDIA: 1857 (June-September).

**HOETZENDORFF, Franz, Baron Conrad von** (1852- ), Austrian general. Served in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1878-1879; chief of general staff, Austrian army, 1906-1911, 1912; served in World War as commander in the Trentino. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 13; 14; 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: b, 2; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, 1; d, 2; 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b; b, 3.

**HOFER, Andreas** (1767-1810), Tyrolese patriot. Famous for his resistance to French and Bavarian invaders. See GERMANY: 1800-1810 (April-February).

**HOFF, Jacobus Henricus Van 't** (1852-1911), Dutch chemist. Expounder of the theory of stereo-isomerism; awarded Nobel prize for chemistry in 1901. See CHEMISTRY: General: Modern: Lavoisier; NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1901.

**HOFFMANN, August Wilhelm von** (1818-1892), German chemist. Head of the Royal College of Chemistry in London; experimented with coal tar dyes. See CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Dyes.

**HOFFMANN, Frederic** (1660-1742), German physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Closing period of humoral pathology.

**HOFFMANNITES**, German sect. See FRIENDS OF THE TEMPLE.

**HOFMANNSTHAL, Hugo von** (1874- ), German poet. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

**HOFSTADE**, village of East Flanders, Belgium, situated on the Dender, about 18 miles east

of Ghent. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 7; a, 8, ii.

**HOGARTH, David George** (1862- ), English archaeologist. Carried on extensive excavations in the Cretan area, 1899-1900. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Cretan area.

**HOGARTH, William** (1697-1764), English painter and engraver. First attained eminence by the series of engravings, *A Harlot's Progress*, followed by *A Rake's Progress*, *Marriage à la Mode*, and other dramatic satires of his time; his oil paintings, thought little of in his own day, have since been highly praised. See PAINTING: English.

**HOGG, James Stephen** (1851-1906), governor of Texas, 1891-1895. See TEXAS: 1892.

**HOGUE**, British cruiser, sunk by a German submarine off the Dutch coast, September 22, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: b.

**HOHENFRIEDBERG, Battle of** (1745). See AUSTRIA: 1744-1745; GERMANY: 1740-1756.

**HOHENLINDEN, Battle of** (1800). See AUSTRIA: 1798-1806; FRANCE: 1800-1801 (May-February).

**HOHENLOHE - SCHILLINGSFÜRST, Prince of** (Chlodwig Karl Victor) (1819-1901), German statesman. Became duke of Ratibor and of Korvei, 1845; Bavarian minister of foreign affairs, 1866-1870; governor of Alsace-Lorraine, 1885-1894; chancellor of Germany, 1894-1900. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1870-1894.

**HOHENSTAUFEN FAMILY**, famous Suabian family whose members were emperors of Germany, 1138-1208, 1214-1254; also rulers of Sicily, 1194-1266. See AUSTRIA: 805-1246; GERMANY: 1138-1197; ITALY: 1154-1162, to 1183-1250; PAPACY: 1122-1250.

Genealogical table. See GERMANY: 1250-1272.

**HOHENZOLLERN**, province in southern Germany. "Hohenzollern lies far south in Schwaben (Suabia), on the sunward slope of the Rauhe-Alp Country; no great way north from Constance and its Lake; but well aloft, near the springs of the Danube; its back leaning on the Black Forest; it is perhaps definable as the southern summit of that same huge old Hercynian Wood, which is still called the Schwarzwald (Black Forest), though now comparatively bare of trees. Fanciful Dryasdust, doing a little etymology, will tell you the name 'Zollern' is equivalent to 'Tollery' or Place of Tolls. Whereby 'Hohenzollern' comes to mean the 'High' or Upper 'Tollery':— and gives one the notion of antique pedlars climbing painfully, out of Italy and the Swiss valleys, thus far; unstrapping their packhorses here, and chaffering in unknown dialect about 'toll.'"—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, bk. 2, ch. 5.

**HOHENZOLLERN, House of: Rise.**—"The title, Count of Zollern, was conferred by Henry IV in the eleventh century. . . . In 1190 Henry VI appointed the Count of Zollern to the imperial office of Burgrave of Nuremberg. . . . His descendants . . . acquired extensive estates in Franconia, Moravia, and Burgundy. . . . Frederick VI was enriched by Sigismund, . . . and was made his deputy in Brandenburg in 1411. The marches were in utter confusion. . . . Frederick reduced them to order, and, . . . in 1417, received from Sigismund the margraviate of Brandenburg with the dignity of Elector."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, bk. 3, ch. 12.—See also BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417; 1417-1640; GERMANY: 1417; PRUSSIA: 1618-1700.

Fall of the House. See GERMANY: 1918 (November).

Genealogical table. See GERMANY: 1871 (January).

HOHENZOLLERN INCIDENT. See FRANCE: 1870 (June-July).

HOHENZOLLERN REDOUBT, formidable German entrenchment during the World War, situated between Lens and Auchy, France. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: i, 2; i, 4; i, 5; j, 3; j, 7.

HOJO, line of military rulers in Japan, 1225-1333. Their period was known as the Hojo or Kamakura era. See JAPAN: 1199-1333; 1334-1574.

HOKUCHO, or Northern Court, Japan. See JAPAN: B.C. 600-A.D. 1853.

HOL, Richard (1825-1904), Dutch composer, pianist and organist. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Netherlands: Holland.

HOLBEIN, Hans (the Elder) (c. 1460-1524), German painter. See PAINTING: German.

HOLBEIN, Hans (the Younger) (1497-1543), German painter. See PAINTING: German.

HOLBERG, Ludvig, Baron (1684-1754), Danish poet, dramatist and historian. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1711-1770.

HOLBROOK, Josiah, American educator. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Lyceum.

HOLBROOK, Norman Douglas, British lieutenant-commander. Torpedoed the Turkish battleship, *Messudieh*, in the Dardanelles, December, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: j.

HOLDEN, Hale (1860- ), American railway official. Member of advisory board to assist the United States director-general of railroads, December, 1917-February, 1918. See RAILROADS: 1916-1920.

HOLDEN, William Woods (1818-1892), provisional governor of North Carolina, 1865. See U.S.A.: 1865 (May-July).

"HOLDING COMPANY". See RAILROADS: 1901-1905.

HOLIDAYS, United States.—In the United States there are no national holidays made so by Congressional enactment. Christmas day, Independence day (July 4), and Thanksgiving day are holidays throughout the country; New Year's day, Washington's birthday (Feb. 22), and Labor day (the first Monday in September), as well as the general election day (the Tuesday after the first Monday in November), have become legal holidays in most of the states; Columbus day (Oct. 12), and Lincoln's birthday (Feb. 12) are observed by more than half the states; Decoration or Memorial day (May 30) is observed in all the northern states; Lee's birthday (Jan. 19) is observed by eight, and Jefferson Davis' birthday (June 3) by nine of the southern states.—See also ARBOR DAY.

HOLINESS CHURCH.—A revival movement in 1880 in southern California and Arizona resulted in a number of "Holiness Bands," the members of which retained their identity with the churches to which they originally belonged. "With the development of these bands and the acquisition of certain property for the conduct of their worship, certain legal difficulties arose, and in 1806 they became incorporated under the laws of the state of California. From California the work extended into other states and was especially prominent in Kentucky and Tennessee. . . . This denomination was reported for the first time in 1916 and shows thirty-three organizations . . . [with] a membership of 926."—United

States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 310-311.—See also CHURCHES of God.

HOLINESS METHODIST CHURCHES. See EVANGELISTIC ASSOCIATIONS.

HOLKAR, name of a powerful Mahratta family. Early members of this family fought unsuccessfully against British rule in India. See INDIA: 1747-1761; 1798-1805.

HOLLAND, Henry Fox, 1st Baron (1705-1774), English statesman. Surveyor-general of works, 1737; lord of the treasury, 1743; privy councillor and secretary of state for war, 1746; leader of House of Commons, 1755, 1762; paymaster-general, 1757-1765; became Baron Holland, 1763. See ENGLAND: 1757-1760.

HOLLAND, John Philip (1844-1914), American inventor. See SUBMARINES: 1877-1800.

HOLLAND. See NETHERLANDS.

HOLLAND CHRISTIAN REFORMED CHURCH IN AMERICA. See CHRISTIAN REFORMED CHURCH.

HOLLAND PURCHASE. See NEW YORK: 1786-1799.

HOLLAND SUBMARINE NO. 7: Purchase by United States navy. See SUBMARINES: 1896.

HOLLES, Denzil, Baron (1599-1680), British statesman. See ENGLAND: 1629; 1642 (January).

HOLLS, George Frederick William (1857-1903), American lawyer. Secretary and counsel of American delegation to Hague Peace conference, 1890. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1890.

HOLLY SPRINGS, Capture of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (December: On the Mississippi).

HOLMES, David (d. 1832), governor of Mississippi, 1817-1820. See FLORIDA: 1798-1810.

HOLMES, Oliver Wendell (1809-1894), American man of letters, novelist and poet. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1830-1845; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Antiseptic surgery and obstetrics.

HOLMES, Oliver Wendell, Jr. (1841- ), American jurist. Became chief justice of Massachusetts supreme court, 1899; succeeded Justice Grey in the United States Supreme Court, 1902. See SUPREME COURT: 1917-1921; ESPIONAGE ACT: Trials under the Espionage Act.

HOLOCAUST.—"The sacrifice of a whole burnt-offering, where nothing was kept back for the enjoyment of men," was called a holocaust by the ancient Greeks.—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The state*, p. 60.

HOLST, Hermann Eduard von (1841-1904), German historian. Most of his books are on American topics. See HISTORY: 29.

HOLSTEIN, Friedrich von (1837-1909), German statesman. For many years chief of the political department of the German foreign office. See GERMANY: 1889-1890.

HOLSTEIN, southern part of Schleswig-Holstein, Prussia, separated from Schleswig by the Eider river and Baltic canal. See SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.

HOLSTEIN-GOTTORP, House of: Genealogical table. See SWEDEN: 1720-1702.

HOLT, Sir John (1642-1710), English jurist. Made lord chief justice of the King's Bench, 1689. See COMMON LAW: 1689-1710; 1750.

HOLY ALLIANCE.—"The document called the Holy Alliance was originally sketched at Paris [during the occupation of the French capital by the Allies, after Waterloo, in 1815], in the French language, by [the Czar] Alexander's own hand, after a long and animated conversation with Madame de Krüdener and Bergasse. It was suggested, perhaps, by words spoken by the king of Prussia after the battle of Bautzen, but was

chiefly the result of the influence, upon a mind always inclined to religious ideas, of the conversation of Madame de Kriüdener and of the philosopher Bader, the admirer of Tauler, Jacob Boehm, and St. Martin, the deadly foe of Kant and his successors in Germany. . . . The Czar dreamt of founding a Communion of states, bound together by the first principles of Christianity. . . . The king of Prussia signed the paper from motives of friendship for the Czar, without attaching much importance to what he did. . . . The emperor of Austria, the least sentimental of mankind, at first declined to sign, 'because,' he said, 'if the secret is a political one, I must tell it to Metternich; if it is a religious one, I must tell it to my confessor.' Metternich accordingly was told, and observed scornfully, 'C'est du verbiage.' Indeed no one of the princes who adhered to the Holy Alliance, with the single exception of Alexander himself, ever took it seriously. It was doomed from its birth. As M. de Bernliardi observes: 'It sank without leaving a trace in the stream of events, never became a reality, and never had the slightest real importance.' What had real importance was the continuance of the good understanding between the powers who had put down Napoleon, and their common fear of France. This good understanding and that common fear led to the treaty of the 20th November 1815, by which it was stipulated that the Powers should, from time to time, hold Congresses with a view to regulating the welfare of nations and the peace of Europe. It was these Congresses, and not the Holy Alliance, which kept up close relations between the rulers of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and enabled them when the liberal movement on the Continent which followed the conclusion of the war began to be alarming, to take measures for a combined system of repression."—M. E. G. Duff, *Studies in European politics*, ch. 2.—The text of the treaty is as follows: "In the name of the Most Holy and Indivisible Trinity: Holy Alliance of Sovereigns of Austria, Prussia, and Russia. Their Majesties the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia, and the Emperor of Russia, having, in consequence of the great events which have marked the course of the three last years in Europe, and especially of the blessings which it has pleased Divine Providence to shower down upon those States which place their confidence and their hope on it alone, acquired the intimate conviction of the necessity of settling the steps to be observed by the Powers, in their reciprocal relations, upon the sublime truths which the Holy Religion of our Saviour teaches; They solemnly declare that the present Act has no other object than to publish, in the face of the whole world, their fixed resolution, both in the administration of their respective States, and in their political relations with every other Government, to take for their sole guide the precepts of that Holy Religion, namely, the precepts of Justice, Christian Charity, and Peace, which, far from being applicable only to private concerns, must have an immediate influence on the councils of Princes, and guide all their steps, as being the only means of consolidating human institutions and remedying their imperfections. In consequence, their Majesties have agreed on the following Articles:—Art. I. Conformably to the words of the Holy Scriptures, which command all men to consider each other as brethren, the Three contracting Monarchs will remain united by the bonds of a true and indissoluble fraternity, and considering each other as fellow countrymen, they will, on

all occasions and in all places, lend each other aid and assistance; and, regarding themselves towards their subjects and armies as fathers of families, they will lead them, in the same spirit of fraternity with which they are animated, to protect Religion, Peace, and Justice. Art. II. In consequence, the sole principle of force, whether between the said Governments or between their Subjects, shall be that of doing each other reciprocal service, and of testifying by unalterable good will the mutual affection with which they ought to be animated, to consider themselves all as members of one and the same Christian nation; and three allied Princes looking on themselves as merely delegated by Providence to govern three branches of the One family, namely, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, thus confessing that the Christian world, of which they and their people form a part, has in reality no other Sovereign than Him to whom alone power really belongs, because in Him alone are found all the treasures of love, science, and infinite wisdom, that is to say, God, our Divine Saviour, the Word of the Most High, the Word of Life. Their Majesties consequently recommend to their people, with the most tender solicitude, as the sole means of enjoying that Peace which arises from a good conscience, and which alone is durable, to strengthen themselves every day more and more in the principles and exercise of the duties which the Divine Saviour has taught to mankind. Art. III. All the Powers who shall choose solemnly to avow the sacred principles which have dictated the present Act, and shall acknowledge how important it is for the happiness of nations, too long agitated, that these truths should henceforth exercise over the destinies of mankind all the influence which belongs to them, will be received with equal ardour and affection into this Holy Alliance. Done in triplicate, and signed at Paris, the year of Grace 1815, 14/26th September." "It is stated in 'Martens' Treaties' that the greater part of the Christian Powers acceded to this Treaty. France acceded to it in 1815; the Netherlands and Wurtemberg did so in 1816; and Saxony, Switzerland, and the Hansa Towns in 1817. But neither the Pope nor the Sultan were invited to accede."—E. Hertslet, *Map of Europe by treaty*, v. 1, no. 36, pp. 317-319.—"The Treaty of the Holy Alliance was not graced with the name of the Prince Regent [of Great Britain], but the Czar received a letter declaring that his principles had the personal approval of this great authority on religion and morality. The Kings of Naples and Sardinia were the next to subscribe, and in due time the names of the witty glutton, Louis XVIII., and of the abject Ferdinand of Spain were added."—C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, ch. 1.—See also FRANCE: 1815 (July-November); PEACE MOVEMENT: 1815.

**HOLY BROTHERHOOD**, or **Hermadad**: **Spain**.—Before the close of the thirteenth century, there first arose in Spain "an anomalous institution peculiar to Castile, which sought to secure the public tranquility by means scarcely compatible themselves with civil subordination. I refer to the celebrated *Hermadad*, or *Holy Brotherhood*, as the association was sometimes called,—a name familiar to most readers in the lively fictions of *Le Sage*, though conveying there no very adequate idea of the extraordinary functions which it assumed at the period under review [13th-14th centuries]. Instead of a regularly organized police, it then consisted of a confederation of the principal cities, bound together by a solemn league and covenant for the defence



of their liberties in seasons of civil anarchy. Its affairs were conducted by deputies, who assembled at stated intervals for this purpose, transacting their business under a common seal, enacting laws which they were careful to transmit to the nobles and even the sovereign himself, and enforcing their measures by an armed force. . . . One hundred cities associated in the Hermandad of 1315. In that of 1295, were thirty-four. The knights and inferior nobility frequently made part of the association. . . . In one of [the articles of confederation] it is declared that if any noble shall deprive a member of the association of his property, and refuse restitution, his house shall be razed to the ground. In another, that if any one, by command of the king, shall attempt to collect an unlawful tax he shall be put to death on the spot." Under the government of Ferdinand and Isabella, among the measures adopted for checking the license and disorder which had become prevalent in Castile, and restoring a more effective administration of justice, was one for a reorganization of the Santa Hermandad. "The project for the reorganization of this institution was introduced into the cortes held, the year after Isabella's accession, at Madrigal, 1476. . . . The new institution differed essentially from the ancient hermandades, since, instead of being partial in its extent, it was designed to embrace the whole kingdom; and, instead of being directed, as had often been the case, against the crown itself, it was set in motion at the suggestion of the latter, and limited in its operation to the maintenance of public order. The crimes reserved for its jurisdiction were all violence or theft committed on the highways or in the open country, and in cities by such offenders as escaped into the country; house-breaking; rape; and resistance of justice. . . . An annual contribution of 18,000 maravedis was assessed on every 100 vecinos or householders, for the equipment and maintenance of a horseman, whose duty it was to arrest offenders and enforce the sentence of the law. On the flight of a criminal, the tocinos of the villages through which he was supposed to have passed were sounded and the cuadrilleros or officers of the brotherhood, stationed on the different points, took up the pursuit with such promptness as left little chance of escape. A court of two alcaldes was established in every town containing thirty families, for the trial of all crimes within the jurisdiction of the hermandad; and an appeal lay from them in specified cases to a supreme council. A general junta, composed of deputies from the cities throughout the kingdom, was annually convened for the regulation of affairs, and their instructions were transmitted to provincial juntas, who superintended the execution of them. . . . Notwithstanding the popular constitution of the hermandad, and the obvious advantages attending its introduction at this juncture, it experienced so decided an opposition from the nobility, who discerned the check it was likely to impose on their authority, that it required all the queen's address and perseverance to effect its general adoption. . . . The important benefits resulting from the institution of the hermandad secured its confirmation by successive cortes, for the period of 22 years, in spite of the repeated opposition of the aristocracy. At length, in 1498, the objects for which it was established having been completely obtained, it was deemed advisable to relieve the nation from the heavy charges which its maintenance imposed. The great salaried officers were dismissed; a few subordinate functionaries were retained for the

administration of justice, over whom the regular courts of criminal law possessed appellate jurisdiction; and the magnificent apparatus of the Santa Hermandad, stripped of all but the terrors of its name, dwindled into an ordinary police, such as it has existed, with various modifications of form, down to the present [nineteenth] century." —W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, introduction, sect. 1, foot-note, and pt. 1, ch. 6.

Mexico, tribunal established in Mexico by the Spanish viceroy about 1550 for the purpose of protecting travelers.

ALSO IN: C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, pp. 92, 141, 155, 158, 220, 223.—R. B. Merriman, *Rise of the Spanish empire in the old world and the new*.

HOLY CITY. See JERUSALEM.

HOLY CROSS: At Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 615; 1099; 1144-1187.

HOLY CROSS ABBEY.—"The ruined Abbey of Holy Cross (some ten miles from Cashel) [Ireland] was founded in 1168 by Donald O'Brien for the Benedictines. The 'black monks' lived here in 1182, when a change took place, which, according to the fragmentary MS. left by a Cistercian chronicler, 'should be called rather a transfer' to the younger order. It is fair to infer that the Benedictines would have called it something different. But at all events its flourishing was under the white monks, and it was thrice rebuilt: for the second time in 1214, and later, at an unspecified date, 'in a far finer style than that of King Donald.' . . . In 1200 somehow or other the monastery became possessed of the relic which made its special glory—a piece of the Holy Cross. Tradition says that this was procured for the order by the 'Good Woman' . . . and the Cistercian chronicler suggests that the 'Good Woman' can be no other lady than Henry II.'s Queen Eleanor—a startling theory. But at all events the place enjoyed high patronage: in 1340 Edward III. confirmed Donald's grant, as King John had done before him. In 1414 the Earl of Ormonde and Thomas de Botelir, then Lord-Deputy, granted their special protection to it, as chief glory of their territory. And in 1563, after the dissolution, it fell into no unfriendly hands, being granted with 450 acres of land to the then Earl of Ormonde. Its line of abbots lasted till after 1700—the monks still hanging on and coming tremulously back under the Butler protection. Throughout the reign of Elizabeth, Holy Cross flourished in great repute. After the break-up of the old Irish order under James and Charles, the relic fell into the custody of Walter, eleventh Earl of Ormonde, who before his death in 1632 (seeing his grandson, the First Duke, a Protestant) confided it to one Dr. Fennel till the house should return to its religious allegiance."—S. Gwynn, *Fair hills of Ireland*, pp. 396-398.—The name "Holy Cross Abbey" is also applied to the famous abbey at Waltham, England. See WALTHAM ABBEY.

HOLY GHOST, military order formed by Henry III of France about 1578. See FRANCE: 1578-1580.

HOLY GRAIL. See GRAIL, HOLY.

HOLY INQUISITION. See INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

HOLY ISLAND. See LINDISFARNE.

HOLY JUNTA, league formed in Spain in 1520. See SPAIN: 1518-1522.

HOLY LAND.—When we speak of the Holy Land we generally mean that province of ancient Syria extending along the shores of the Mediter-

anean, called Palestine—the land where Jesus Christ and his disciples lived and taught. Certain so-called holy places in this section of country “have been visited by pilgrims and travelers at least since the third century, when we hear of Alexander, the friend of Origen, and Origen himself as going to Palestine to explore them. Constantine, early in the fourth century, after the removal of the earth and rubbish which had long encumbered the site of the Holy Sepulchre, caused a magnificent church to be built over it. His mother, St. Helena, erected and richly adorned a basilica over the grotto of Christ’s nativity at Bethlehem, and a portion of her work is believed to be still preserved in the existing structure. She also built a church on the top of Mount Olivet, over the cave which was traditionally believed to mark the scene of the Ascension. Towards the end of the fourth (?) century the noble pilgrim Etheria (Sylvia) refers to the three sacred buildings at Jerusalem: (1) the *Anastasis* or Sanctuary of the Resurrection, where was the Holy Sepulchre; (2) the Sanctuary of the Cross where the true cross and other relics were preserved; (3) the *Martyrium*, or great basilica of Constantine, situated ‘behind the Sanctuary of the Cross.’ Arculfus, a French bishop, visiting the Holy Land about the end of the seventh century A.D., saw a church built over the rock of Golgotha, the place of the Crucifixion.”—W. E. Addis and T. Arnold, *Holy places (Catholic dictionary)*, p. 411.—See also PALESTINE; CRUSADES.

**HOLY LEAGUES:** Pope Julius II against Louis XII of France. See ITALY: 1510-1513.

Pope Clement VII against Charles V. See ITALY: 1523-1527.

German Catholic princes against the Protestant League of Smalcald. See GERMANY: 1533-1546.

Spain, Venice and Pope Pius V against the Turks. See TURKEY: 1566-1571.

Catholic party in the religious wars of France. See FRANCE: 1576-1585, to 1593-1598.

Pope Innocent XI, the emperor, Venice, Poland and Russia against the Turks. See TURKEY: 1684-1696.

**HOLY LION, Battle of the (1568).** See NETHERLANDS: 1568-1572.

**HOLY OFFICE,** one of the eleven Sacred Congregations. See INQUISITION: 1203-1525.

**HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE:** 962.—Founded by Otto the Great.—Later origin of the name.—“The Holy Roman Empire, taking the name in the sense which it commonly bore in later centuries, as denoting the sovereignty of Germany and Italy vested in a Germanic prince, is the creation of Otto the Great [who was crowned emperor by the pope in Rome, in the year 962]. Substantially, it is true, as well as technically, it was a prolongation of the Empire of Charles [Charlemagne]; and it rested (as will be shewn in the sequel) upon ideas essentially the same as those which brought about the coronation of 800. . . . This restored Empire, which professed itself a continuation of the Carolingian, was in many respects different. It was less wide, including, if we reckon strictly, only Germany proper and two-thirds of Italy; or counting in subject but separate kingdoms, Burgundy, Bohemia, Moravia, Poland, Denmark, perhaps Hungary. Its character was less ecclesiastical. Otto exalted indeed the spiritual potentates of his realm, and was earnest in spreading Christianity among the heathen: he was master of the Pope and Defender of the Holy Roman Church. But religion

held a less important place in his mind and his administration. . . . It was also less Roman. . . . Under him the Germans became not only a united nation but were at once raised on a pinnacle among European peoples as the imperial race, the possessors of Rome and Rome’s authority. While the political connection with Italy stirred their spirit, it brought with it a knowledge and culture hitherto unknown.” It was not until the reign of Frederick Barbarossa that the epithet “Holy” was prefixed to the title of the revived Roman Empire. “Of its earlier origin, under Conrad II (the Salic), which some have supposed, there is no documentary trace, though there is also no proof to the contrary. So far as is known it occurs first in the famous Privilege of Austria, granted by Frederick in the fourth year of his reign, the second of his empire. . . . Used occasionally by Henry VI and Frederick II, it is more frequent under their successors, William, Richard, Rudolf, till after Charles IV’s time it becomes habitual, for the last few centuries indispensable. Regarding the origin of so singular a title many theories have been advanced. . . . We need not, however, be in any great doubt as to its true meaning and purport. . . . Ever since Hildebrand had claimed for the priesthood exclusive sanctity and supreme jurisdiction, the papal party had not ceased to speak of the civil power as being, compared with that of their own chief, merely secular, earthly, profane. It may be conjectured that, to meet this reproach, no less injurious than insulting, Frederick or his advisers began to use in public documents the expression ‘Holy Empire’; thereby wishing to assert the divine institution and religious duties of the office he held. . . . It is almost superfluous to observe that the beginning of the title ‘Holy’ has nothing to do with the beginning of the Empire itself. Essentially and substantially, the Holy Roman Empire was, as has been shewn already, the creation of Charles the Great. Looking at it more technically, as the monarchy, not of the whole West, like that of Charles but of Germany and Italy, with a claim, which was never more than a claim, to universal sovereignty, its beginning is fixed by most of the German writers, whose practice has been followed in the text, at the coronation of Otto the Great. But the title was at least one, and probably two centuries later.”—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 6, 9, 12, with foot-note.—Otto, or Otho, the Great, the second of the Saxon line of Germanic kings, crossed the Alps and made himself master of the distracted kingdom of Italy in 951, on the invitation of John XII, who desired his assistance against the reigning king of Italy, Berengar II, and who offered him the imperial coronation (there had been no acknowledged emperor for forty years) as his reward. He easily reduced Berengar to vassalage, and, after receiving the imperial crown from Pope John, he did not scruple to depose that licentious and turbulent pontiff, by the voice of a synod which he convoked in St. Peter’s, and to seat another in his place. Three revolts in the city of Rome, which were stirred up by the deposed pope, the emperor suppressed with a heavy hand, and he took away from the city all its forms of republican liberty, entrusting the government to the pope as his viceroy.—*Ibid.*, ch. 9.—“This Germanic empire . . . was a resuscitation of the idea of the old Roman empire but by no means of its form. On the contrary, through constant struggles new constitutional forms had developed themselves of which the old world had as yet no conception. . . . In a word or two at

least, we must characterize this transformation. Its essence is that an attempt was made to adjust the conception of obedience and military service to the needs of the life of the individual. All the arrangements of life changed their character so soon as it became the custom to grant land to local overlords who, in turn, provided with possessions according to their own several grades, could only be sure of being able to hold these possessions in so far as they kept faith and troth with the lord-in-chief of the land. It was through and through a living organization, which took in the entire monarchy and bound it together into a many-membered whole; for the counts and dukes for their own part entered into a similar relationship with their own sub-tenants. Therewith the possession of land entered into an indissoluble connection with the theory of the empire, a connection which extended also to those border nations which were in contact with and subordinate to the monarchy. That an empire so constituted could not reckon on such unconditional obedience as had been paid to the old Roman empire is clear as day. Nevertheless the whole order of things in the world depended on the system of adjusted relationships, the keystone or rather commanding central point of which was formed by this same empire. It could scarcely claim any longer to be universal, but it did nevertheless hold the chief place in the general state-system of Europe, and it proved a powerful upholder of the independence of the secular power. It was just this idea of universal power, and altogether of ascendancy over the Christian world, that was indelibly implanted in the German empire. But could this idea be actually realized, was Germany strong enough to carry it through? Otto the Great originated it, but by no means carried it to its completion. He passed his life amid constant internal and external struggles; no lasting form of constitution was he able to leave behind."—L. von Ranke, *Weltgeschichte* (tr. from the German), v. 7, pp. 5-7.—"Not through laws, not through an artificial state-system, not through a great army of officials did Otto rule Western Europe, but more than all through the wealth of military resources which his victories had placed in his hands. Through the great army of his German vassals who were well versed in war he overthrew the Slavonians, kept the Danes in check, compelled the Hungarians to relinquish their nomadic life of plunder and to seek settled dwelling places in the plains of the Danube; so that now the gates of the East through which up till then masses of peoples threatening everything with destruction had always anew broken in upon the West were closed forever. The fame of his victories and his feudal supremacy, extending itself further and further, made him also protector of the Burgundian and French kingdoms, and finally lord of Lombardy and of the City of Rome. With the military resources of Germany he holds in subjection the surrounding peoples; but through the power thus won, on the other hand, he himself gains a proud ascendancy over the multitude of his own vassals. Only for the reason that he wins for himself a truly royal position in Germany is he enabled to gain the imperial crown; but this again it is which first really secures and confirms his own and his family's rule in the German lands. On this rests chiefly his preëminent position, that he is the first and mightiest lord of Western Christendom, that as such he is able at any moment to bring together a numerous military force with which no people, no prince can any longer cope. But

not on this alone. For the Catholic clergy also, spreading far and wide over the whole West, serves him as it were like a new crowd of vassals in stole and cassock. He nominates the archbishops and bishops in his German and Italian kingdoms as well as in the newly converted lands of the North and East; he rules the successor of St. Peter and through him exercises a decisive influence on church progress even in the Western lands where he does not himself install the dignitaries of the church. Different as this German empire was from the Frankish, faulty as was its organization, its resources seemed nevertheless sufficient in the hand of a competent ruler to maintain a far-reaching and effectual rule in the West; the more so as it was upheld by public opinion and supported by the authority of the church. But one must not be led into error; these resources were only sufficient in the hands of a so powerful and active prince as Otto. From the Elbe marshes he hastened to the Abruzzian Mountains; from the banks of the Rhine now to the shores of the Adriatic, now to the sand-dunes of the Baltic. Ceaselessly is he in motion, continually under arms—first against the Wends and Hungarians, then against the Greeks and Lombards. No country in his wide realm, no bishopric in Catholic Christendom but what he fixed his eye upon and vigilantly watched. And wherever he may tarry and whatever he may undertake, his every act is full of fire, force and vigor and always hit the mark. With such a representative the empire is not only the highest power in the Western world but one which on all its affairs has a deep and active influence—a power as much venerated as it was dreaded."—W. von Giesebrecht, *Deutsche Kaiserzeit* (tr. from the German), v. 1, pp. 476-484.—See also ITALY: 843-951; 961-1039; GERMANY: 936-973; EUROPE: Middle Ages; Holy Roman and papal empires; FEUDALISM: Continental growth; ROMANS, KING OF THE; CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097, and 1204.

Unifying influence on political status of Europe. See EUROPE: Middle Ages: Political background.

12th century.—Rise and constitution of the college of electors. See GERMANY: 1125-1272; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1100-1800.

13th-14th centuries.—Deterioration of the Holy Roman empire after the fall of the Hohenstaufen.—Great Interregnum.—Election of Rudolf of Hapsburg.—Rival emperors, Louis of Bavaria and Frederick of Austria. See GERMANY: 1250-1272; 1314-1347; AUSTRIA: 1246-1282; 1291-1349.

15th century.—Review of its character at the end of the Middle Ages. See GERMANY: 1347-1493.

1451.—Jews allowed in dominions. See JEWS: Austria-Hungary: 12th-19th centuries.

1648.—Loss of Switzerland and the Netherlands by the Peace of Westphalia. See WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF.

18th century.—Conflict with papacy. See ROME: Modern city: 1707; 1782-1790.

1789-1803.—Countries constituting the Holy Roman empire.—Stability of the empire threatened.—In first coalition of allied powers against France.—Changes. See GERMANY: 1763-1790; 1789; 1801-1803; FRANCE: 1793 (March-September); EUROPE: Map of central Europe (1797).

1806.—End of Holy Roman empire. See GERMANY: 1805-1806; AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

HOLY ROMAN EMPERORS.—The following is a list of the Holy Roman emperors:

Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, 768-814  
 Louis the Pious, 814-840  
 Lothair I, 840-855  
 Ludwig the German, 855-875  
 Charles II (the Bald), 875-881  
 Charles III (the Fat), 881-891  
 Guido, 891-894  
 Lambert, 894-896  
 Arnulf, 896-899  
 Louis the Child (did not claim imperial title), 899-911  
 Conrad I (did not claim imperial title), 911-918  
 Henry I (the Fowler) (did not claim imperial title), 918-936  
 Otto I (the Great) 936-973  
 Otto II, 973-983  
 Otto III, 983-1002  
 Henry II (the Saint), 1002-1024  
 Conrad II (the Salic), 1024-1039  
 Henry III (the Black), 1039-1056  
 Henry IV, 1056-1106  
 Henry V, 1106-1125  
 Lothair II, 1125-1137  
 Conrad III, 1138-1152  
 Frederick I (Barbarossa), 1152-1190  
 Henry VI, 1190-1197  
 Philip and Otto IV (rivals), 1197-1208  
 Otto IV, 1208-1215  
 Frederick II, 1215-1250  
 Conrad IV, 1250-1254  
 Rudolf of Hapsburg, 1273-1291  
 Adolphus of Nassau, 1292-1298  
 Albert I of Hapsburg, 1298-1308  
 Henry VII of Luxemburg, 1308-1313  
 Ludwig of Bavaria, 1314-1347  
 Charles IV of Luxemburg, 1347-1378  
 Wenceslaus, 1378-1400  
 Rupert of the Palatinate, 1400-1410  
 Sigismund of Luxemburg, 1410-1437  
 Albert II of Hapsburg, 1438-1439  
 Frederick III, 1440-1493  
 Maximilian I, 1493-1519  
 Charles V, 1519-1558  
 Ferdinand I, 1558-1564  
 Maximilian II, 1564-1576  
 Rudolf II, 1576-1612  
 Matthias, 1612-1619  
 Ferdinand II, 1619-1637  
 Ferdinand III, 1637-1657  
 Leopold I, 1658-1705  
 Joseph I, 1705-1711  
 Charles VI, 1711-1740  
 Charles VII, 1742-1745  
 Francis I (Stephen), 1745-1765  
 Joseph II, 1765-1790  
 Leopold II, 1790-1792  
 Francis II, 1792-1806

**HOLY ROOD OF SCOTLAND.**—"A certified fragment of the true cross preserved in a shrine of gold or silver gilt. It was brought over by St. Margaret, and left as a sacred legacy to her descendants and their kingdom. . . . The rood had been the sanctifying relic round which King David I. raised the house of canons regular of the Holy Rood, devoted to the rule of St. Augustin, at Edinburgh. The kings of Scotland afterwards found it so convenient to frequent this religious house that they built alongside of it a royal residence or palace, well known to the world as Holy-rood House."—J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, v. 2, ch. 20.—The Holy Rood, or Black Rood as it was sometimes called, was carried away from Scotland, along with the "coronation stone," by Edward I of England, afterwards got back by

treaty, and then lost again at the battle of Neville's Cross, from which it went as a trophy to Durham Abbey.

**HOLY SEE**, name applied to the pope and his court; used to indicate the jurisdiction of the popes as head of the Roman Catholic church. See PAPACY; VATICAN.

**HOLY SEPULCHRE.** See HOLY LAND.

**HOLY WAR:** The Jihad.—Meaning. See DAR-UL-ISLAM; ABYSSINIA: 1913-1920; ARABIA: 1916.

**In World War.**—"When Turkey entered the war [World War], the Sultan, in his capacity of Caliph of the Mohammedan world, issued a *fatwa* [decree] to the faithful of Islam, calling them to a 'holy war' against the unbelievers. The object was to disturb the loyalty of the Mohammedans owing allegiance to Great Britain, France and Russia. These people, however, paid little attention to the summons, and Mohammedan troops . . . fought against Turkey in Mesopotamia and against Germany in Europe and Africa."—*War cyclopaedia*, p. 130.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: f.

**HOMAGE**, ceremony by which a vassal in feudal times indicated his submission and devotion to his overlord. See FEUDALISM: Organization.

**HOME OFFICE**, department of the central government of the United Kingdom whose head is a member of the cabinet. The secretaryship for home affairs was created in 1782. The duties had been assigned previously to the "southern secretaryships," which included the affairs of Ireland, Great Britain, the colonies, and southern Europe. These duties were divided by the appointment of "home" and "foreign" secretaries. The home secretary, however, retained Irish, colonial and war business until 1794. Colonial affairs were removed in 1801. The home office is the senior of the departments of the principal secretaries of state. Its functions, which formerly extended to foreign, colonial, and military affairs, are now strictly confined to the United Kingdom, and in some matters to England and Wales only. The affairs of the Isle of Man and the Channel islands, however, still come to the home office. The home secretary is the medium of communication between the crown and its subjects, and receives addresses and petitions. He is responsible for the king's peace, attends to the general administration of criminal justice, police, and prisons, and advises the sovereign in the exercise of the prerogative of mercy. He supervises lunatic asylums, reformatories, and industrial schools; enforces all rules and orders of a legislative character for the protection of the life and health of the community generally, more particularly the statutes passed for the protection of workers in mines, quarries, factories, and workshops.

**HOME RULE BILLS:** Irish. See ENGLAND: 1885-1886; 1892-1893; IRELAND: 1912-1914; 1914-1916; 1920.

**HOME RULE FOR CITIES.** See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Home rule for cities.

**HOME RULE LAW**, Baltimore (1915). See MARYLAND: 1915-1916.

**HOME RULE MOVEMENT:** Ireland. See IRELAND: 1873-1879; 1885-1801; 1895; 1917-1918; ENGLAND: 1894-1895 (March-September); ULSTER: 1892.

**India.** See INDIA: 1918-1920.

**HOMEL.** See GOMEL.

**HOMEOPATHY.** See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th-18th centuries: Hahnemann, etc.; 19th-20th centuries: Modification in use of drugs.

HOMER, Winslow (1836-1910), American landscape painter. See PAINTING: American.

HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS.—“When we use the word Homer, we do not mean a person historically known to us, like Pope or Milton. We mean in the main the author, whoever or whatever he was, of the wonderful poems called respectively, not by the author, but by the world, the ‘Iliad’ and the ‘Odyssey.’ His name is conventional, and its sense in etymology is not very different from that which would be conveyed by our phrase, ‘the author.’ . . . At the first dawn of the historic period, we find the poems established in popular renown; and so prominent that a school of minstrels takes the name of ‘Homeridæ’ from making it their business to preserve and to recite them. Still, the question whether the poems as we have them can be trusted, whether they present substantially the character of what may be termed original documents, is one of great but gradually diminishing difficulty. It is also of importance, because of the nature of their contents. In the first place, they give a far greater amount of information than is to be found in any other literary production of the same compass. In the second place, that information, speaking of it generally, is to be had nowhere else. In the third place, it is information of the utmost interest, and even of great moment. It introduces to us, in the very beginnings of their experience, the most gifted people of the world, and enables us to judge how they became such as in later times we know them. . . . And this picture is exhibited with such a fulness both of particulars and of vital force, that perhaps never in any country has an age been so completely placed upon record. . . . We are . . . probably to conceive of Homer as of a Bard who went from place to place to earn his bread by his profession, to exercise his knowledge in his gift of song, and to enlarge it by an ever-active observation of nature and experience of men. . . . It has . . . been extensively believed that he was a Greek of Asia Minor. And as there were no Greeks of Asia Minor at the time of the Trojan War, nor until a wide and searching revolution in the peninsula had substituted Dorian manners for those of the earlier Achaian age, which Homer sang, this belief involves the further proposition that the poet was severed by a considerable interval of time from the subjects of his verse. The last-named opinion depends very much upon the first; and the first chiefly, if not wholly, upon a perfectly vague tradition, which has no pretence to an historical character. . . . The question . . . has to be decided . . . by the internal evidence of the poems. This evidence, I venture to say, strongly supports the belief that Homer was an European, and if an European, then certainly also an Achaian Greek: a Greek, that is to say, of the pre-Doric period, when the Achaian name prevailed and principally distinguished the race. . . . Until the 18th century of our era was near its close, it may be said that all generations had believed Troy was actually Troy, and Homer in the main Homer; neither taking the one for a fable, or (quaintest of all dreams) for a symbol of solar phenomena, nor resolving the other into a multiform assemblage of successive bards, whose verses were at length pieced together by a clever literary tailor. . . . After slighter premonitory movements, it was Wolf that made, by the publication of his ‘Prolegomena’ in 1795, the serious attack. . . . Wolf maintained that available writing was not known at, or till long after, the period of their composition; and that works of

such length, not intrusted to the custody of written characters, could not have been transmitted through a course of generations with any approach to fidelity. Therefore they could only be a number of separate songs, brought together at a later date.”—W. E. Gladstone, *Homer (Literature primers)*, ch. 1-2.—“Homeric geography is entirely pre-Dorian. Total unconsciousness of any such event as the Dorian invasion reigns both in the Iliad and Odyssey. . . . A silence so remarkable can be explained only by the simple supposition that when they were composed the revolution in question had not yet occurred. Other circumstances confirm this view.”—A. M. Clerke, *Familiar studies in Homer*, ch. 1.—“It is . . . in the discoveries of Dr. Schliemann that we have the impulse which seems to be sending the balance over towards the belief in the European instead of in the Asiatic origin of the poems. We now know that at the very point which Homer makes the chief royal city of Greece there did, in fact, exist a civilisation which did, in fact, offer just the conditions for the rise of a poetry such as the Homeric—a great city ‘rich in gold,’ with a cultivation of the material arts such as is wont to go hand in hand with the growth of poetry [see GREECE: Mycenæ and its kings; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Excavations and antiquities: Mycenæan area; Cretan area]. . . . It is no longer possible to doubt that the world which the poems described was one which really existed in the place where they put it. Even in details the poems have received striking illustration from the remains of Mykenai. . . . It appears that we may date the oldest part of the Iliad at least to some time before the Dorian invasion, which, according to the traditional chronology, took place about 1000 B.C. . . . But the poems can hardly be much earlier than the invasion; for there are various signs which indicate that the civilisation which they depict had made some advance beyond that of which we find the material remains in the ‘shaft tombs,’ discovered by Dr. Schliemann in the Acropolis of Mykenai. And the date of these has now been fixed by Mr. Petrie, from comparison with Egyptian remains, at about 1150. We can therefore hardly be far wrong, if the poems were composed in Achaian Greece, in dating their origin at about 1050 B.C. There still remains the question of the historical basis which may underlie the story of the Iliad. The poem may give us a true picture of Achaian Greece and its civilisation, and yet be no proof that the armies of Agamemnon fought beneath the walls of Troy. But here again the discoveries of recent years, and notably those of Schliemann at Hissarlik, have tended on the whole to confirm the belief that there is a historic reality behind the tale of Troy. . . . The hypothesis that the Iliad and Odyssey are the work of more than one poet . . . is one which has been gaining ground ever since it was seriously taken up and argued at length by Wolf in his famous ‘Prolegomena,’ just a century ago. But it has from the first encountered strong opposition, and is still regarded, in England at least, as the heretical view.”—W. Leaf, *Companion to the Iliad, introduction*.—“It seems clear that the author or authors of the Iliad and Odyssey lived long before the time when Æolian, Ionian, Dorian, were the three great tribal names of Greece, and far from the coast on which these three names were attached to successive portions of territory. If we are to decide the ancient controversy about the birthplace of Homer, we must turn away from Asia, and set ourselves to consider the claims of three districts of Greece proper: Thessaly, the

home of the chief hero and the most ancient worship; Bœotia, the ancient seat of the Muses, and the first in the very ancient (if not actually Homeric) muster-roll of the ships; and Argolis, the seat of Achæan empire."—D. B. Monro, *Homer and the early history of Greece (English Historical Review, Jan., 1886)*.—"I hold that the original nucleus of the Iliad was due to a single Achæan poet, living in Thessaly before the immigration which partly displaced the primitive Hellenes there. This primary Iliad may have been as old as the eleventh century B.C. It was afterwards brought by Achæan emigrants to Ionia, and there enlarged by successive Ionian poets. The original nucleus of the Odyssey was also composed, probably, in Greece proper, before the Dorian conquest of the Peloponnesus; was carried to Ionia by emigrants whom the conquerors drove out; and was there expanded into an epic which blends the local traits of its origin with the spirit of Ionian adventure and Ionian society."—R. C. Jebb, *Growth and influence of classical Greek poetry, p. 14*.—"We accept the Iliad as one epic by one hand. The inconsistencies which are the basis of the opposite theory seem to us reconcilable in many places, in others greatly exaggerated. . . . To us the hypothesis of a crowd of great harmonious poets, working for centuries at the Iliad, and sinking their own fame and identity in Homer's, appears more difficult of belief than the opinion that one great poet may make occasional slips and blunders." As for the Odyssey, "we have . . . to deal with critics who do not recognise the unity, the marshalling of incidents towards a given end. We have to do with critics who find, in place of unity, patchwork and compilation, and evident traces of diverse dates, and diverse places of composition. Thus argument is inefficient, demonstration is impossible, and the final judge must be the opinion of the most trustworthy literary critics and of literary tradition. These are unanimous, as against the 'microscope-men,' in favor of the unity of the Odyssey."—A. Lang, *Homer and the epic, ch. 7, 13*.—See also GREEK LITERATURE: Period of the epic; EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 7th-A.D. 3rd centuries: Greece; HISTORY: 13; TROY; AGRICULTURE: Ancient: Pastoral life of Homeric period; DELOS; ITHACA.

ALSO IN: G. Murray, *Rise of the Greek epic*.—W. E. Gladstone, *Juventus mundi*.—R. C. Jebb, *Homer: An introduction to the Iliad and the Odyssey*.

HOMERIDÆ, school of minstrels who preserved and recited the poems of Homer. See HOMER AND THE HOMERIC POEMS.

HOMERITES. See HIMYARITES.

HOMESTEAD ACT. See U. S. A.: 1862 (May); KANSAS: 1862; MINNESOTA: 1862-1876.

Acts further regulating homesteading. See HOUSING: United States: Fluctuation in construction.

HOMESTEAD LAWS, United States. See COMMON LAW: 1836.

HOMESTEAD STRIKE (1892). See PENNSYLVANIA: 1892; LAROR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

HOMESTEADING: In the west. See U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

HOMILDON HILL, Battle of (1402), victory for the English, under "Hotspur," over a raiding army of the Scots. See SCOTLAND: 1400-1436.

HOMINES CASATI, sub-tenants. See FEUDALISM: Continental growth.

HOMOIOUSIANS AND HOMOIOUSIANS, rival creeds of early Christianity. See ARIANISM.

HOMPESCH, Baron Ferdinand von (1744-

1803), grand master of the Order of St. John. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1565-1878.

HOMS, city of Syria about eighty-five miles northeast of Damascus. Here the Egyptians under Ibrahim Pasha inflicted a severe defeat upon the Turks in 1832. The British general, Allenby, captured the city in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 13; c, 23.

HOMS, Battle of (1832). See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

HONDO, or Hon-shu, chief island of Japan. See JAPAN: Name.

HONDSCHOOTE, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December).

HONDURAS: Geographic description.—Honduras "third in size of the Isthmian republics [with an area of 44,275 square miles, and a population of 637,114 in 1921] is bounded on the west and southwest by Guatemala and Salvador, and is conterminous eastwards with Nicaragua. On the Atlantic side it has an extensive coast-line facing the Gulf of Mexico, and extending from the Gulf of Honduras on the Guatemalan frontier for about 400 miles nearly to Cape Gracias-à-Dios. But the land tapers rapidly southwards in the direction of the Pacific, and here the coast-line is contracted to about 60 miles, enclosing the greater part of the magnificent inlet of Fonseca Bay. Honduras thus presents the outlines of an irregular triangle, with its apex on the Pacific and its base on the Atlantic Ocean."—*Stanford's compendium of geography: Central and South America, v. 2, p. 195*.—"The limits of the State are, however, almost everywhere indicated, not by conventional lines as elsewhere, but by such natural features as mountains and river valleys. In the northwest it is separated from Guatemala by a winding frontier, which, while assigning to Honduras the Guatemalan valley of Copan, coincides in a general way with the crests of the Merendon, Espiritu Santo and Grita ranges, beyond which it follows the course of the Rio Tinto to a secondary inlet of Honduras Bay. Towards Salvador the frontier is formed mainly by the rivers Sumpul, Lempa, Tonola and Goascoian, and towards Nicaragua by the Rio Negro on the Pacific side, and by the Ocotol and Segovia on the Atlantic slope, the common waterparting being indicated by the Dipilto Range."—E. Reclus, *Universal geography: Mexico, Central America, and West Indies, v. 17, p. 256*.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: Map.

ALSO IN: H. Mill, *International geography, p. 784*.—D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America, pp. 119-120*.

Origin of name.—"The very name of Honduras recalls the times of the discovery, when Spanish Pilots, advancing cautiously along the coasts, reported shallow-soundings (Honduras) in the waters at the head of Honduras Bay. Columbus . . . ran great risks amid the surrounding reefs and shoals. But its present name was given to the seaboard not by Columbus, but by Bartholomew de las Casas, who in his 'Discovery of the West Indies by the Spaniards,' speaks of the land of 'Hondure,' as if this name were of Indian origin. Twenty-one years later, at the time of Fernan Cortes' famous expedition across Yucatan, the country was known to the Spaniards by the name of Hibueras or Higueras, and it has also been called 'New Estremadura.'"—E. Reclus, *Universal geography: Mexico, Central America, and West Indies, v. 17, p. 255*.

Aboriginal inhabitants.—Ruins of ancient civilization. See MAYAS.

1502.—Discovery by Columbus. See AMERICA: 1498-1505.

1524.—Conquest by Olid and Cortes. See MEXICO: 1521-1524.

1821-1894.—Separation from Spain and independence.—Brief annexation to Mexico.—Attempted federations and their failure. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871; 1871-1885; 1886-1894.

1890.—Represented at first international American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1898.—Unsuccessful attempt to unite the republics of Central America. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1895-1902.

1900-1915.—Revolution: Overthrow of Policarpo Bonilla by Manuel Bonilla.—War.—“In 1900, Manuel Bonilla headed a successful revolution against Policarpo Bonilla, an understudy and puppet of Zelaya [of Nicaragua. Dr. Juan Angel] Arias became President long enough for Bonilla to be ‘elected.’ Policarpo Bonilla, the former President, was thrown into prison where he was kept till 1906. By this time Zelaya was again dissatisfied and sent a general to invade Honduras.”—C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, p. 166.—“In 1907, as a result of a quarrel between Bonilla and President Zelaya of Nicaragua, the latter sent an army into Honduras to aid a revolutionary movement headed by Miguel Dávila. Salvador, fearing the increase of Zelaya’s influence, came to the aid of Bonilla, but was unable to prevent the complete victory of the revolution. Zelaya now threatened to attack Salvador, and the president of that country, in league with Guatemala, prepared to support a counter revolution in Honduras. A general Central American war would undoubtedly have followed, had not the United States and Mexico jointly interposed their mediation and suggested that all of the republics of the Isthmus send representatives to Washington to discuss the questions at issue between them. . . . One of the most important conventions adopted by the delegates of the five countries provided for the complete neutrality of Honduras and the abstention of her government from all participation in the conflicts between the other governments of the Isthmus. This treaty had little effect for the time being on the situation of Honduras, for nearby countries encouraged and materially assisted a number of uprisings against the government of Dávila during the four years following 1907. Zelaya helped his ally to suppress these, but when the Nicaraguan dictator himself fell, the fate of the administration which he had protected in Honduras was sealed. Manuel Bonilla invaded the Republic from the North Coast in the latter part of 1910, and decisively defeated Dávila’s troops after a few weeks of fighting. When it was evident that the revolutionists were gaining the upper hand, a peace conference was arranged through the mediation of the United States, and both factions agreed to place the control of affairs provisionally in the hands of Dr. Francisco Bertrand. In the election which followed, Bonilla was made president by an almost unanimous vote. He held office until his death in 1913, when the vice-president, Dr. Bertrand, succeeded him.”—D. G. Munro, *Five republics of Central America*, pp. 123-124.—Dr. Bertrand was reelected in 1915 for the term, 1916-1920.

ALSO IN: N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of to-day*, p. 262.

1902.—Participation in second Pan-American congress.—Treaty of peace with other Central American states. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, IN-

TERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1904-1907.—Conference for the purpose of securing the peace of Central America.—War with Guatemala and Salvador.—Peace treaty.—Fresh outbreak with Nicaragua and Salvador.—Washington peace conference. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1904; 1906; 1907.

1906-1910.—Represented at third and fourth international American congresses. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906; 1910.

1911.—Relations with United States.—Internal political situation. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1911.

1913.—Arbitration treaty with the United States. See LATIN AMERICA: 1913.

1918.—Boundary dispute with Nicaragua. See NICARAGUA: 1918.

1918.—Declaration of war against Germany. See LATIN AMERICA: 1917-1918. Central America in the World War.

1919.—Represented at conference of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919-1920.—Revolution.—Resignation of President Bertrand.—General Gutierrez elected president.—President Bertrand’s term of office expired in 1920. The opponents of his administration, claiming that it would be impossible to secure a fair election, took up arms against the government. The revolution began in July, 1919, and the rebels under the leadership of General Lopez Gutierrez continued in the field with varying success until September when President Bertrand resigned and fled. General Lopez Gutierrez assumed charge of affairs, acting almost as dictator. Dr. Nazario Sorano and General Lopez Gutierrez himself were the candidates. The latter was chosen by an overwhelming majority.

1920.—Public health law. See PUBLIC HEALTH: Central America.

1921-1922.—Member of federation of Central America.—Dissolution of provisional federal council.—Sovereign republic. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1921; 1921 (October); 1922 (January-February); CENTRAL AMERICA, CONSTITUTION OF; GUATEMALA: 1921.

1922.—Protest against Swan island occupation.—Radio communication.—Tri-party Treaty.—In April, 1922, Honduras entered a protest at Washington, against the occupation of the Swan islands by the United Fruit Company, an American corporation. The islands, which are small, are in the Caribbean sea, about 140 miles from the coast of the Honduras republic, which lays claim to their ownership. The work of establishing radio communication with the United States was begun toward the close of the summer. In order to cope with the border troubles which perplexed all three countries a treaty entered into by Nicaragua, Salvador and Honduras was signed in the Gulf of Fonseca, August 22, and provided for united action in checking rebel bandits within their borders.—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1922 (March-August); GUATEMALA: 1922; NICARAGUA: 1922 (August).

HONDURAS, British (formerly called Belize or Balize), British Crown colony in Central America forms a slice of land off the northeast coast of Guatemala and lying between that country and Yucatan. Its greatest length is one hundred and seventy-four miles and its greatest width sixty-eight miles, and, with the adjacent cays [keys], contains an area of about eight thousand five hundred and ninety-two square miles.—N. O.

Winter, *Guatemala and her people of to-day*, p. 237.—In 1921 the population numbered 45,317.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; CENTRAL AMERICA: Map.

ALSO IN: C. R. Enoch, *Republics of Central and South America*, pp. 458-459.

Aborigines. See MAYAS.

1502-1733.—Discovery.—Origin of name.—Exploits of Peter Wallace.—Settlement.—“Columbus in 1502, on his fourth voyage, explored the entire coast of Central America in his search for a strait which would lead him to India and the East [see AMERICA: 1498-1505]; but the first settlement of what is now British Honduras was not effected until more than a century later. From their rendezvous at Tortuga, off the north coast of Hispaniola, buccaneers of all nationalities periodically visited the coast.”—A. E. Aspinall, *West Indies and Guiana*, p. 114.—“A halo of romance surrounded the early history of British Honduras, legend assigning this region as the scene of many a daring exploit, many a riotous orgie, in the good old times when the adventurous sons of Albion roamed the Caribbean, partly under the protection of their own dreaded black flag and sometimes under that of the country of their birth. . . . The central hero of this romance was a Scottish rover named Wallace or Wallis, ‘who so distinguished himself by acts of bravery and desperation that his name became a terror to the Spaniards.’ His name is supposed to survive in that of the town of Belize which is considered [by some] a Spanish corruption of Wallis. In the Spanish there is no W, and Wallis became Vallis, and as V is sounded by Spaniards almost as B, the transition to Ballis, Balize and finally Belize is easily understood.”—A. R. Gibbs, *British Honduras*, p. 21.—“Others, however, claim that the capital derives its name from the French *balise* or beacon, and it is quite likely that a signal fire was used in early days to mark the entrance to the river.”—A. E. Aspinall, *West Indies and Guiana*, p. 114.—“Peter Wallace, with eighty companions, was the first to enter the port of Belize, which name was originally given to the whole settlement. These men immediately erected houses at that place enclosed by rude palisades for defence. From there they set out on their expeditions after stray merchantmen. It was not long, however, before the shrewd Scotchman discovered that there was more and surer money in marketing the native woods than in the uncertain and dangerous occupation of robbing ships. Logwood at that time was in such demand for the manufacture of dyes that it sometimes brought as much as one hundred dollars a ton. . . . So prosperous had this colony become by 1733 that Yucatan sent troops and attempted to drive away the colonists by force.”—N. O. Winter, *Guatemala and her people of to-day*, p. 236.

ALSO IN: E. G. Squier, *States of Central America*, p. 576.

1754.—Settlement attacked by Spaniards.—The Spaniards made many more attempts to expel the settlers, the most formidable of these being in 1754. “The Spaniards were aware that an attack upon the settlement from the sea was unlikely to be successful. The intricate navigation amongst the islands and shoals of the Bay, better known to the Baymen than to them, was an obstacle to any maritime force. Exasperated, however, by the continued prosperity of the British wood-cutters, they again, in the year 1754, determined on a land expedition to drive out the persistent intruders from their territory. . . . The Spaniards mustered to the number of 1500, and

marched upon the Old River Works, and reached Labouring Creek . . . unopposed. But here they were met by a couple of hundred cutters with their slaves, and defeated.”—A. R. Gibbs, *British Honduras*, pp. 36-37.

1763.—Treaty between England and Spain.—“The log-cutters were not again disturbed for a number of years; and their position became so well established, that, in the treaty between England and Spain in 1763, the former power while agreeing to demolish ‘all fortifications which English subjects had erected in the Bay of Honduras, and other places of the territory of Spain in that part of the world,’ nevertheless insisted upon a clause in favor of the cutters of logwood, in the following terms: ‘And his Catholic majesty shall not permit his Britannic majesty’s subjects or their workmen to be disturbed or molested, under any pretext whatever, in their said places of cutting and loading logwood; and for this purpose they may build without hindrance, and occupy without interruption, the houses and magazines necessary for their families and effects.’ . . . To insure the observance of this treaty, the British Government sent out Sir William Burnaby, who not only settled the limits within which the English were to confine their wood-cutting operations, but also drew up for their government a code of regulations or laws.”—E. G. Squier, *States of Central America*, p. 577.

1779.—Settlement attacked by Spaniards.—In 1779 the Spaniards, becoming alarmed at the way in which the settlers were abusing the privileges conceded to them by the treaty of 1763, suddenly fell upon the establishment. They were successful in their attack and taking the inhabitants prisoners, sent them to Havana. The British government at once made strong representations to the Spanish government but nothing was done and for two or three years the settlement seems to have been abandoned.

1782-1783.—Peace of Versailles.—Logwood provisions.—“The British Government had no intention of relinquishing the settlement. Its importance had come to be appreciated, at least in certain quarters, as the more explicit terms of the Treaty of Versailles testify. That treaty was executed [1783] on the termination of the American War, and its article vi. contains the following provisions:—‘The intention of the high contracting parties being to prevent, as much as possible, all causes of complaint and misunderstanding heretofore occasioned by the cutting of wood for dyeing, or logwood, and several English settlements having been formed *under that pretence* upon the Spanish Continent, it is expressly agreed that his Britannic Majesty’s subjects shall have the right of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood lying between the River Wallis or Belize and Rio Hondo.’ The article goes on to secure to the settlers privilege to build the necessary houses and magazines for carrying on their trade, ‘provided that these stipulations shall not be considered as derogating in any wise from his Catholic Majesty’s rights.’ In the same year the garrisons at Black River and Fort Dalling were captured by the Spaniards, who withdrew to Cape Gracias; but a force under Colonel Marcus Despard and Major Laurie retook the positions immediately afterwards. The liberation of the captives at Havana was at length affected by the representations of our [British] government. . . . Some few are said to have returned at once to Belize, but the majority went further south to the settlements on the Mosquito Shore, which is a little extraordinary in view of the events oc-



curing in that locality narrated in the preceding paragraph. Not long after the treaty of 1783 was executed, the settlement began to resume its former appearance. . . . The colony would now appear to have retained its position previous to the disaster of 1770. On the 14th of July, 1786, additional articles were added by the Convention of London to the treaty of 1783, granting more extended boundaries to the south. 'The Catholic king [wished] . . . to prove, on his side, to the king of Great Britain, the sincerity of his sentiments of friendship towards his Majesty and the British nation.' The English line now began from the sea, and, taking the centre, proceeded up the Sibun (Sherboon or Javon) River to its source, then across to the intersection of the River Wallis (Belize), thus adding nine miles of coast-line to the settlement. The right of cutting not dyewoods only, but, for the first time, 'not excepting even mahogany,' was granted by article iii., and also permission to gather the fruits of the earth purely natural; but the same article expressly stipulates that this grant is to be no pretext for establishing any plantations of 'sugar, coffee, cocoa, or other like articles,' mills, or machines, and reserves as usual sovereign rights to the crown of Spain, which are also again reserved in article vii. of the same convention."—A. R. Gibbs, *British Honduras*, pp. 44-47.

1798-1850.—Treaties establishing British authority over Belize.—The logcutters "seem to have given great annoyance to their Spanish neighbors, who eagerly availed themselves of the breaking out of war between the two countries in 1796, and the consequent suspension of treaty obligations, to concert a formidable attack on Belize, with a view to a complete annihilation of the establishment. They concentrated a force of two thousand men at Campeachy, which, under the command of General O'Neill, set sail in thirteen vessels for Belize, and arrived off the place July 10th, 1798. The settlers, in anticipation of their approach, and effectively aided by the English sloop of war Merlin, had strongly fortified a small island off the harbor, called St. George's Cay. From this position they maintained a determined and successful resistance against the Spanish force, which, after a contest of two days' duration, was obliged to abandon its object and retire to Campeachy. This was the last attempt to dislodge the English, who took new courage from their success, and, it may be presumed, did not thereafter pay much regard to the stipulations of previous treaties. It is proper to remark that the defeat of the Spanish attack of 1798 has been adduced as an act of conquest, thereby permanently establishing British sovereignty over the territory. . . . In 1814, Great Britain, by a new treaty with Spain, revived and re-enacted all the provisions of the treaty of 1786 . . . [and] as late as 1817-19, the acts of Parliament relating to Belize always refer to it as 'a settlement for certain purposes, in the possession and under the protection of his majesty, etc.' The 'certain purposes' here referred to are clearly those set forth in the treaty of 1786, and revived in 1814. But this is not all; after the independence of the Spanish American provinces, Great Britain, not knowing within which new republic the territory of Belize might fall, sought to secure her rights there by incorporating the provisions of the treaty of 1786 in all of her treaties with the new states. It was, in fact, incorporated in her treaty of 1826 with Mexico; was included in the project of a treaty which she submitted to Señor Zebadua, the representative of the Republic of Central Amer-

ica in London, in 1831, but which failed from the want of adequate powers to negotiate on the part of that representative; and was incorporated also in the project of a treaty submitted to New Granada, in 1825, from which it was omitted by New Granada, as relating to territory beyond and never within her jurisdiction. Great Britain, therefore, [rests her claim on the rights conveyed by] the treaties already quoted, which define with the greatest precision the area within which these qualified rights may be exercised [written in 1855]. But it appears from a dispatch of Sir George Gray, Colonial Secretary, dated in 1836, that pretensions had been then set up to an additional wide extent of territory, including the entire coast as far south as the River Sarstoon, and inland to the meridian of Garbutt's Falls, on the River Belize."—R. G. Squier, *States of Central America*, pp. 581-583.—From 1836 onward, for over twenty years, Belize was not treated as part of Honduras, but was governed by a superintendent and local assembly, as a dependency of Jamaica. The territory between the Belize and Sarstoon rivers was claimed by the British in 1836. The British title was questioned in some quarters. In 1850, however, the territory of Belize was excepted from the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, which bound both powers not to "occupy, fortify or colonize any part of Central America," and was thus tacitly recognized as a British possession.—See also NICARAGUA, 1850.

1850-1859.—Boundary Treaty with Guatemala.—For some years after the date of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, 1850, Belize, though recognized as British territory, occupied the same rather anomalous position as before. In 1850, however, by a treaty with Guatemala, the boundaries between British Honduras and Guatemala were definitely fixed; both British Honduras and Belize were formally decreed to be British, and Belize was thereafter made part of the colony. In the same year, the Bay islands, over which British authority had been extended, were recognized as part of the republic of Honduras.

1862-1910.—Organization of colonial government.—Currency.—Railway.—Sale of crown timber.—As far back as 1836 the settlers had "managed their own affairs. From 1797 superintendents were regularly appointed by the Home Government. An Executive Council was established in 1839 to assist the Superintendent, and in 1853 a Legislative Assembly was constituted, consisting of eighteen elected and three nominated members. The settlement was declared a Colony on May 12, 1862, and a Lieutenant-Governor was appointed subordinate to the Governor of Jamaica. In 1870 the Legislative Assembly was replaced by a Legislative Council, which now [1922] consists of five official and seven unofficial members, with the Governor as President. On October 31, 1884, Letters Patent were proclaimed, constituting the office of Governor and Commander-in-Chief, which rendered the Colony independent of Jamaica. For administration the Colony is divided into the six districts. . . . By Ordinance No. 31 of 1864 the currency has been established on a gold basis, the United States gold dollar being adopted as the standard coin. Gold coins of the United States Mint are legal tender for the amounts of their respective denominations in standard dollars; also the British sovereign and half-sovereign for the amounts of \$4.867 and \$2.433 respectively. . . . A short railway leads from the town of Stann Creek, 25 miles inland. The first section was opened in 1908. The line was practically completed in 1910.

. . . A contract was signed in December, 1904, for the sale of the pine trees on Crown Land to Mr. B. Chipley, a citizen of the United States, at a price of 1 cent per tree.—W. H. Koebel, *Anglo-South American Handbook including Central America, Mexico and Cuba for 1922*, pp. 197, 199-201.

See also CENTRAL AMERICA; LATIN AMERICA.

**HONE, William** (1780-1842), English writer and bookseller. Suffered political persecution in 1817. See ENGLAND: 1816-1820.

**HONEIN, Battle of** (630). See MOHAMMEDANISM.

**HONG KONG**, or *Hiang Kiang* (*fragrant lagoon*), island situated off the southeast coast of China, near the mouth of the Canton river. By the Treaty of Nanking, at the close of the "Opium War" (see CHINA: 1839-1842), the island of Hong-Kong was ceded by China to Great Britain. "It is not without appropriateness that Hong-Kong has been styled the Gibraltar of the East. . . . For just as Gibraltar dominates the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea, and opens the strategical gate from the west to our dominions in India, so does Hong-Kong commercially dominate the entrance to the China Seas, and strategically close the road to India from the far East. Like Gibraltar, it lies in immediate contiguity to the mainland of an alien power; it has the same physical aspects—a rocky height rising abruptly from the sea with the town at the foot of its slopes."—*Her Majesty's colonies (Colonial and Indian exhibition, 1886, p. 485)*.—"By the Convention of Peking [1860], the promontory of Kowloon, opposite the island of Hong-Kong on the northern side of the harbour, was definitely ceded to Her Majesty's Government, having been already leased to them by the authorities at Canton. . . . Hong-Kong is a Crown Colony of the ordinary type, the local administration being in the hands of a Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council. . . . Along the northern shore the city of Victoria stretches for some 4 miles, and between the town and the mainland is one of the finest and most picturesque harbours in the world, with a water area of about 10 miles. As the promontory of Kowloon lies directly opposite, both sides of the harbour are in British hands."—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, v. 1, ch. 4, sect. 2.—Hong Kong island is 32 square miles in area; the total area of the territory, insular and mainland, is about 391 square miles. "The port is free [except for a tax on opium and intoxicating liquor. The imports for 1920, approximated 131,719,952 taels, and the exports, 45,804,536]. . . . Considerably over half a million vessels enter and leave annually; of ocean-going vessels the proportions under the British flag and under foreign flags are not far from equal, with the balance generally in favour of foreign ships."—A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth, *Oxford survey of the British empire: Asia*, pp. 439-446.—The total civil population in 1921 was 625,166.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; CHINA: Map.

1894.—Bubonic plague. See PLAGUE: Bubonic.

1898.—British lease of territory on the mainland. See CHINA: 1898 (April-August).

1911-1912.—Establishment of university.—The Hong Kong university, which came into existence in 1911, was built on the foundation of the Hong Kong school of medicine for Chinese, which had been in existence from the year 1887. In 1908 the school of medicine received \$60,000 as bequests from the estates of two Chinese gentlemen, and a building site from the government. The idea of

a university, for Chinese students, however, had been discussed for about three years, and it was suggested that the school of medicine should become the medical faculty of the university. The Hong Kong government accordingly presented an additional site of twenty-three acres; the buildings were provided by one person, and about the end of 1909 public subscription provided an endowment and equipment fund of more than a million and a quarter of dollars. To this fund the Chinese government, the merchants of Hong Kong, the people of Canton and other provinces, and Chinese residents abroad, contributed generously. The university is still small—in 1921 it had accommodations for 500 students only—but the degrees conferred are equal to those of the University of London.

ALSO IN: *Encyclopedia Sinica*, p. 239.

1919.—Child labor legislation. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1911-1919.

1920.—Famine relief measures.—The Association of British Chambers of Commerce in China and Hong Kong agreed to a proposed surtax on customs import dues for the relief of the famine, which was raging through China during 1920, for a definite term of twelve months, provided distribution was made subject to adequate foreign supervision, and publication of detailed accounts. The customs dues, however, were the dues imposed by the Chinese authorities of the mainland. Hong Kong is a free port and has no customs house.

1922.—*Status quo* maintained by Washington conference. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

**HONG MERCHANTS**, Chinese merchants. See CHINA: 1662-1838; 1839-1842; ASIA: 1500-1900.

**HONOLULU**, capital of the Hawaiian islands, situated on the southern coast of the Oahu island. Fortified in 1815; became the capital and commercial centre of the archipelago in 1820. It is an important relay station in the trans-Pacific cable system. Oahu College is located there. The city is thoroughly modern, and is known for its great natural beauty.—See also HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

**HONOR SYSTEM**: In American prisons. See PRISON REFORM: United States: Results of prison reform movement.

**HONORIUS III** (Cencio Savelli) (d. 1227), pope, 1216-1227. See CRUSADES: 1216-1220.

**HONORIUS, Flavius** (384-423), Roman emperor (Western), 395-423. See ROME: Empire: 394-395; 404-408; 423-450; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Fall of Rome; RAVENNA: 404.

**HONOURS, Escheated**.—When a great barony by forfeiture or escheat fell into the hands of the English crown, it was called an "escheated honour."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 11, sect. 120.

**HONSHU**. See HONDO.

**HOOD, Horace Lambert Alexander** (1870-1916), British admiral. Served on the Nile, 1897-1898; in the Somaliland expedition, 1903-1904; commanded squadron of battle cruisers in the battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 1; a, 9.

**HOOD, John Bell** (1831-1879), American general. Fought on Confederate side in Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-September: Georgia); (September-October: Georgia); (November: Tennessee); (December: Tennessee).

**HOOD, Samuel, 1st Viscount** (1724-1816), British admiral. Commander-in-chief in America, 1767-1771; sent to the West Indies, 1780; commander of British fleet in the Mediterranean dur-

ing the War of Coalition, 1793. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December); Progress of War of Coalition.

**HOOF, Pieter Cornelissen** (1581-1647), Dutch poet and historian. See HISTORY: 24.

**HOOG, village in Belgium**, situated west of Ypres. Was in the region of fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 19; 1915: II. Western front: e, 3; h; 1916: II. Western front: a, 1; d, 2; 1917: II. Western front: d, 9.

**HOOGSTRAETEN**, town of Belgium, in the province of Antwerp. It was made an agricultural beggar colony in 1870. See PRISON REFORM: Belgium.

**HOOKER, Joseph** (1814-1879), American general. Served in the Civil War; commander of the Army of the Potomac, 1863; in the Chattanooga campaign during the same year. See U. S. A.: 1863 (January-April: Virginia); (April-May: Virginia); (June: Virginia); (June-July: Pennsylvania); (July-November: Virginia); (October-November: Tennessee).

**HOOKER, Richard** (c. 1553-1600), English clergyman. Author of the "Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity." See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1530-1660.

**HOOKER, Thomas** (c. 1586-1647), New England clergyman. One of the founders of the Connecticut colony. See CONNECTICUT: 1634-1637.

**HOOKS AND KABELJAUWS, or Hooks and Cods**, political factions of the Netherlands in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. See NETHERLANDS: 1345-1354; 1482-1493.

**HOOPAHS, or Hupas**, tribe of American aborigines. See MODOCS.

**HOOPER, William** (1742-1790), American jurist. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

**HOOSIER STATE.** See INDIANA.

**HOOVER, Herbert Clark** (1874- ), American engineer, and public official. Chairman of American relief commission in London, 1914-1915; chairman of commission for relief in Belgium, 1915-1918; United States food administrator, 1917-1919; appointed secretary of commerce in President Harding's cabinet, 1921. See BELGIUM: 1914-1918: National distress; FOOD REGULATION: 1917-1918: Food control, etc.; 1920; INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: European relief council; Relief in Belgium, etc.; American relief administration; Russian famine relief; PRICE CONTROL: 1917-1919: United States; U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war; 1918-1920; 1921 (March): President Harding's cabinet.

**HOOVER'S GAP**, Battle at. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Tennessee).

**HOPE, Sir James** (1808-1881), British admiral. Commander of Chinese squadron, 1859-1862. See CHINA: 1856-1860.

**HOPE, John Adrian Louis.** See LINLITHGOW, 1ST MARQUESS OF.

**HOPETOUN, Lord.** See LINLITHGOW, 1ST MARQUESS OF.

**HOPI, or Moki**, tribe of American aborigines. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southwest area.

**HOPKINS, Esek** (1718-1802), commander-in-chief of American navy, 1775-1777. See U. S. A.: 1775-1776; Beginning of American navy.

**HOPKINS, Johns** (1795-1873), American philanthropist and financier. Founded and endowed Johns Hopkins Hospital and University. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1867.

**HOPKINS, Stephen** (1707-1785), colonial governor of Rhode Island, 1755-1768. One of the

signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

**HOPKINSON, Francis** (1737-1791), American patriot and author. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of the Declaration of Independence.

**HOPLETES**, Attic tribe of ancient Greece. See PHYLAE.

**HOPLITES**, foot-soldiers of the ancient Greeks. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.

**HOPPNER, John** (1758-1810), English painter. See PAINTING: English.

**HORACE** (Quintus Horatius Flaccus) (65-8 B.C.), Latin poet. See LATIN LITERATURE: B.C. 43-A.D. 14.

**HORDERE**, name of officer in the court of King Alfred the Great. See STALLER AND HORDERE.

**HOREB, Mount.** See SINAI.

**HORICONS.**—North of the Mohegans, who occupied the east bank of the Hudson river opposite Albany, and covering the present counties of Columbia and Rensselaer, dwelt the Algonkin tribe of Horicons, "whose hunting grounds appear to have extended from the waters of the Connecticut, across the Green Mountains, to the borders of that beautiful lake [named Lake George by the too loyal Sir William Johnson] which might now well bear their sonorous name."—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the state of New York*, p. 77.

**HORITES**, aborigines of Canaan,—dwellers in caves, Troglodytes. "At the time of the Israelitish conquest . . . there still existed many remains of the Aborigines scattered through the land. They were then ordinarily designated by a name which suggests very different ideas—Rephaim, or Giants."—H. Ewald, *History of Israel, introduction, sect. 4.*—See also JEWS: Early Hebrew history.

**HORIZONTAL COMBINATIONS.** See TRUSTS: Great Britain.

**HORMUZ, Battle of** (226 A.D.), battle in which the Parthian monarchy was overthrown by Artaxerxes I.

**HORN, Gustav, Count** (1592-1657), Swedish general. Served in the Russo-Swedish War, 1612-1614; distinguished himself in the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1632-1634; 1634-1639.

**HORN, Philip de Montmorency, Count of** (1518-1568), Dutch nobleman. Resisted Spanish rule in the Netherlands, and was executed as a traitor in Brussels. See NETHERLANDS: 1566.

**HORN, Werner**, German propagandist in the United States. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917.

**HORN, Cape**, most southerly point of South America, facing the south end of the island of Tierra del Fuego; discovered by Drake in 1578; rounded by Schouten in 1616. See AMERICA: 1572-1580.

**HORNE, Henry Sinclair, 1st Baron** (1861- ), British general. Served in the Boer War, 1890-1902; in the World War, 1914-1918; commanded the British 1st Army on the western front, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: c, 4; 1918: II. Western front: 1, 1.

**HOROSCOPE.** See ASTROLOGY: Theory and methods.

**HORSE, Domestication of.** See AGRICULTURE: Ancient: Domestic animals.

**HORSE GUARDS**, headquarters of the war office in London. The term is also used to designate the purely military part of the army organization as well as the oldest cavalry regiments of the British army.

**HORTENSIA**, Roman orator, daughter of Quintus Hortensius. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 300-A.D. 300.

**HORTENSIAN LAWS**, enacted under Hortensius, by which the people secured legal and political advantages. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 287.**

**HORTENSIUS**, Quintus (surnamed Hortatus) (114-50 B.C.), Roman orator and leader of the aristocratic party.

**HORTHY**, de Nagybanya, Nikolaus (1568- ), regent of Hungary, 1920-1921. Hungarian naval officer in the World War. See **HUNGARY: 1919-1920; 1921-1922.**

**HORTICULTURAL EDUCATION.** See **EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL:** England and Wales; Poland.

**HORUK.** See **BARBAROSSA, HORUK.**

**HORUS**, Hor, or Harpocrates, Egyptian deity. See **ABYDOS, EGYPT.**

**HOSAIN ALI**, Mirza (1817-1892), Babi religious leader. See **BAHAISM.**

**HOSEA**, or Hoshea, Hebrew prophet. See **JEWS: Religion and the prophets.**

**HOSEIN**, or Husein (d. 680), grandson of Mohammed and son of Ali. His martyrdom forms one of the tragic pictures of the early caliphate, and is largely responsible for the schism which has existed from his day among the followers of Islam.—See also **CALIPHATE: 680.**

**HOSKINS**, Sir Arthur Reginald (1871- ), British major-general. Member of Dongola and Nile expeditions; served in the World War, 1914-1918; commander-in-chief of the East African forces, 1917. See **WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 7; a, 10; a, 14.**

**HOSPES, HOSPITES, HOSPITIUM.**—"In the earlier stages of society, especially in Greece and Italy . . . it became common for a person who was engaged in commerce, or any other occupation which might compel him to visit a foreign country, to form previously a connection with a citizen of that country, who might be ready to receive him as a friend and act as his protector. Such a connection was always strictly reciprocal. . . . An alliance of this description was termed *Hospitium*, the parties who concluded it were termed *Hospites* in relation to each other, and thus the word *Hospes* bore a double signification, denoting, according to circumstances, either an entertainer or a guest. . . . In process of time, among both the Greeks and Romans, it became common for a state, when it desired to pay a marked compliment to any individual, to pass a resolution declaring him the *Hospes* of the whole community."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquity*, ch. 3.

**HOSPITAL SHIPS: Laws concerning.** See **HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention for adaptation to maritime warfare.**

In **World War.** See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: e.**

**HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM, Knights: 1118-1310.**—Origin and rise of the order.—"Some citizens of Amalfi, in Italy, who traded to the East, had [some time before the first crusade], with the permission of the Egyptian khaleefeh, built a convent near the church of the Resurrection [at Jerusalem], which was dedicated to the Virgin, and named Santa Maria de Latina, whose abbot and monks were to receive and entertain pilgrims from the West. A nunnery was afterwards added, and as the confluence of pilgrims increased, a new 'hospitium' was erected, dedicated to St. John Eleëmon ('compassionate'), a former patriarch of Alexandria, or, as is asserted, with perhaps more probability, to St. John the Baptist. This hospital was sup-

ported by the bounty of the abbot of Sta. Maria and the alms of the faithful, and the sick and poor of the pilgrims here met with attention and kindness. At the time of the taking of Jerusalem, Gerhard, a native of Provence, presided over the hospital; and the care taken by him and his brethren of the sick and wounded of the crusaders won them universal favour. Godfrey bestowed on them his domain of Monboire, in Brabant; his example was followed by others, and the brethren of the Hospital soon found themselves rich enough to separate from the monastery. They adopted the rule of the Augustinian canons, and assumed for their habit a black mantle, with a white cross of eight points on the left breast. Many knights who had come to Asia to combat the Infidels now laid aside their swords, and, as brethren of the Hospital, devoted themselves to the tending of the sick and relieving of the poor. Among these was a knight of Dauphiné, named Raymond Dupuy, who, on the death of Gerhard, was chosen to be his successor in office. Raymond, in the year 1118, gave the order its first regular organization."—T. Keightley, *Crusaders*, ch. 2.—To Raymond Dupuy "the Order owed its distinctly military character, and that wonderful organization, combining the care of the sick and poor with the profession of arms, which characterized the Knights of St. John during all their subsequent history. . . . A new and revised constitution was drawn up, by which it was provided that there should be three classes of members. First, the Knights, who should bear arms and form a military body for service in the field against the enemies of Christ in general, and of the kingdom of Jerusalem in particular. These were to be of necessity men of noble or gentle birth. Secondly, the Clergy, or Chaplains. . . . Thirdly, the Serving Brethren, who were not required to be men of rank, and who acted as Esquires to the Knights, and assisted in the care of the hospitals. All persons of these three classes were considered alike members of the Order, and took the usual three monastic vows, and wore the armorial bearings of the Order, and enjoyed its rights and privileges. As the Order spread and the number of its members and convents increased, it was found desirable to divide it further into nations or 'Langes' [tongues, or languages], of which there were ultimately seven, viz., those of Provence, Auvergne, France, Italy, Aragon, Germany, and England. The habit was a black robe with a cowl having a cross of white linen of eight points upon the left breast. This was at first worn by all Hospitaliers, to whichever of the three classes they belonged; but Pope Alexander IV. afterwards ordered that the Knights should be distinguished by a white cross upon a red ground. . . . It was not long before the new Order found a field for the exercise of its arms. . . . From this time the Hospitaliers were always found in the ranks of the Christian army in every battle that was fought with the Moslems, and the fame of their gallantry and bravery soon spread far and wide, and attracted fresh recruits to their ranks from the noblest families of every country of Europe. They became the right hand of the King of Jerusalem," sharing the fortunes of the nominal kingdom for nearly two centuries, and almost sharing its ultimate fate. The handful who escaped from Acre in 1291 (see **JERUSALEM: 1291**) took refuge in Cyprus and rallied there the Knights scattered in other lands. Rebuilding and fortifying the town of Limisso, they made that their citadel and capital for a few years, finding a new vocation for their pious valor. They

now took up war upon the naval side, and turned their arms specially against the Moslem pirates of the Mediterranean. They fitted out armed ships "which began to cruise between Palestine and European ports, conveying pilgrims, rescuing captives, and engaging and capturing the enemy's galleys." But not finding in Cyprus the independence they desired, the Knights, ere long, established themselves in a more satisfactory home on the island of Rhodes.—F. C. Woodhouse, *Military religious orders of the Middle Ages*, pt. 1, ch. 3-6.

ALSO IN: Abbe de Vertot, *History of the Knights Hospitallers*, v. 1, bk. 1-3.—A. Sutherland, *Achievements of the Knights of Malta*, v. 1, ch. 1-9.

1310.—Conquest and occupation of Rhodes.—"The most important conquest of the time . . . was that of Rhodes, by the Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, both from its durability and from the renown of the conquerors. The knights had settled in Cyprus after they had been expelled from Acre, but they were soon discontented to remain as vassals of the King of Cyprus. They aspired to form a sovereign state, but it was not easy to make any conquests from the Infidels in a position which they could hope to maintain for any length of time. They therefore solicited permission from the Pope to turn their arms against the Greeks. His Holiness applauded their Christian zeal, and bestowed on them innumerable blessings and indulgences, besides nine thousand ducats to aid their enterprise. Under the pretext of a crusade for the recovery of Christ's tomb, the knights collected a force with which they besieged Rhodes. So great was their contempt for the Greek emperor that they sent an embassy to Constantinople, requiring Adronicus to withdraw his garrisons, and cede the island and its dependencies to them as feudatories, offering to supply him with a subsidiary force of three hundred cavalry. Adronicus dismissed the ambassadors, and sent an army to raise the siege; but his troops were defeated, and the knights took the city of Rhodes on the 15th August, 1310. As sovereigns of this beautiful island, they were long the bulwark of Christian Europe against the Turkish power; and the memory of the chivalrous youth who for successive ages found an early tomb at this verge of the Christian world, will long shed a romantic colouring on the history of Rhodes. They sustained the declining glory of a state of society that was hastening to become a vision of the past; they were the heroes of a class of which the Norse sea-kings had been the demigods. The little realm they governed as an independent state consisted of Rhodes, with the neighbouring islands of Kos, Kalymnos, Syme, Leros, Nisyros, Telos, and Chalke; on the opposite continent they possessed the classic city of Halicarnassus, and several strong forts, of which the pictureque ruins still overhang the sea."—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: W. Porter, *History of the Knights of Malta*, v. 1, ch. 7-10.

1482.—Treatment of the Turkish Prince Jemshid or Zizim. See TURKEY: 1481-1520.

1522.—Siege and surrender of Rhodes to the Turks.—In 1522, the Turkish sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, "turned his victorious arms against the island of Rhodes, the seat at that time of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. This small state he attacked with such a numerous army as the lords of Asia have been accustomed, in every age, to bring into the field. Two hundred thou-

sand men, and a fleet of 400 sail, appeared against a town defended by a garrison consisting of 5,000 soldiers and 600 knights, under the command of Villiers de L'Isle Adam, the grand-master, whose wisdom and valour rendered him worthy of that station at such a dangerous juncture. No sooner did he begin to suspect the destination of Solyman's vast armaments than he despatched messengers to all the Christian courts, imploring their aid against the common enemy. But though every prince in that age acknowledged Rhodes to be the great bulwark of Christendom in the East, and trusted to the gallantry of its knights as the best security against the progress of the Ottoman arms,—though Adrian, with a zeal which became the head and father of the Church, exhorted the contending powers to forget their private quarrels, and, by uniting their arms, to prevent the infidels from destroying a society which did honour to the Christian name,—yet so violent and implacable was the animosity of both parties [in the wars of the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France], that, regardless of the danger to which they exposed all Europe, . . . they suffered Solyman to carry on his operations against Rhodes without disturbance. The grand-master, after incredible efforts of courage, of patience, and of military conduct, during a siege of six months,—after sustaining many assaults, and disputing every post with amazing obstinacy,—was obliged at last to yield to numbers; and, having obtained an honourable capitulation from the sultan, who admired and respected his virtue, he surrendered the town, which was reduced to a heap of rubbish, and destitute of every resource. Charles and Francis, ashamed of having occasioned such a loss to Christendom by their ambitious contests, endeavoured to throw the blame of it on each other, while all Europe, with greater justice, imputed it equally to both. The emperor, by way of reparation, granted the Knights of St. John the small island of Malta, in which they fixed their residence, retaining, though with less power and splendour, their ancient spirit and implacable enmity to the infidels."—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V.*, v. 1, bk. 2.

ALSO IN: C. Torr, *Rhodes in modern times*, ch. 1.—J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII*, v. 1, ch. 19.

1530-1565.—Occupation of Malta.—Improvement and fortification of the island.—Great siege.—Turks repelled.—"Malta, which had been annexed by Charles [the Fifth's] predecessors to Sicily, had descended to that monarch as part of the dominions of the crown of Aragon. In . . . ceding it to the Knights of St. John, the politic prince consulted his own interests quite as much as those of the order. He drew no revenue from the rocky isle, but, on the contrary, was charged with its defence against the Moorish corsairs, who made frequent descents on the spot, wasting the country, and dragging off the miserable people into slavery. By this transfer of the island to the military order of St. John, he not only relieved himself of all further expense on its account, but secured a permanent bulwark for the protection of his own dominions. . . . In October, 1530, L'Isle Adam and his brave associates took possession of their new domain. . . . It was not very long before the wilderness before them was to blossom like the rose, under their diligent culture. Earth was brought in large quantities, and at great cost, from Sicily. Terraces to receive it were hewn in the steep sides of the rock; and the soil, quickened by the ardent sun of Malta, was soon clothed with the glowing vegetation of the

South. . . . In a short time, too, the island bristled with fortifications, which, combined with its natural defences enabled its garrison to defy the attacks of the corsair. To these works was added the construction of suitable dwellings for the accommodation of the order. But it was long after, and not until the land had been desolated by the siege on which we are now to enter, that it was crowned with the stately edifices that eclipsed those of Rhodes itself, and made Malta the pride of the Mediterranean. . . . Again their galleys sailed forth to battle with the corsairs, and returned laden with the spoils of victory. . . . It was not long before the name of the Knights of Malta became as formidable on the southern shores of the Mediterranean as that of the Knights of Rhodes had been in the East." At length the Turkish sultan, Solymán the Magnificent, "resolved to signalize the close of his reign by driving the knights from Malta, as he had the commencement of it by driving them from Rhodes," and he made his preparations on a formidable scale. The grand-master of Malta, Jean Parisot de la Valette, had his spies at Constantinople, and was not long in ignorance of the Turkish project. He, too, prepared himself for the encounter with prodigious energy and forethought. He addressed appeals for help to all the Christian powers. "He summoned the knights absent in foreign lands to return to Malta, and take part with their brethren in the coming struggle. He imported large supplies of provisions and military stores from Sicily and Spain. He drilled the militia of the island, and formed an effective body of more than 3,000 men; to which was added a still greater number of Spanish and Italian troops. . . . The fortifications were put in repair, strengthened with outworks, and placed in the best condition for resisting the enemy. . . . The whole force which La Valette could muster in defence of the island amounted to about 9,000 men. This included 700 knights, of whom about 600 had already arrived [when the siege began]. The remainder were on their way, and joined him at a later period of the siege." The Turkish fleet made its appearance on the 18th of May, 1565. It comprised 130 royal galleys, with fifty of lesser size, and a number of transports. "The number of soldiers on board, independently of the mariners, and including 6,000 janizaries, was about 30,000,—the flower of the Ottoman army. . . . The command of the expedition was intrusted to two officers. One of these, Piali, was the same admiral who defeated the Spaniards at Gelves [see BARBARY STATES: 1543-1560]. He had the direction of the naval operations. The land forces were given to Mustapha, a veteran nearly 70 years of age. . . . The Turkish armada steered for the south-eastern quarter of the island, and cast anchor in the port of St. Thomas. The troops speedily disembarked, and spread themselves in detached bodies over the land, devastating the country. . . . It was decided, in the Turkish council of war, to begin operations with the siege of the castle of St. Elmo"—a small but strong fort, built at the point of a promontory which separates Port Musicette, on the west, from what is now known as Valetta harbor, then called the Great Port. The heroic defense of St. Elmo, where a mere handful of knights and soldiers withstood the whole army and navy of the Turks for an entire month, is one of the grand episodes of war in the 16th century. The few surviving defenders were overwhelmed in the final assault, which took place on the 23d of June. "The number of Christians who fell in this siege amounted to about 1,500. Of

these 123 were members of the order, and among them several of its most illustrious warriors. The Turkish loss is estimated at 8,000, at the head of whom stood Dragut," the famous pasha of Tripoli, who had joined the besiegers, with ships and men, and who had received a mortal wound in one of the assaults. After the loss of St. Elmo, "the strength of the order was . . . concentrated on the two narrow slips of land which run out from the eastern side of the Great Port. . . . The northern peninsula, occupied by the town of Il Borgo, and at the extreme point by the castle of St. Angelo, was defended by works stronger and in better condition than the fortifications of St. Elmo. . . . The parallel slip of land was crowned by the fort of St. Michael." Early in July, the Turks opened their batteries on both St. Angelo and St. Michael, and on the 15th they attempted the storming of the latter, but were bloodily repulsed, losing 3,000 or 4,000 men, according to the Christian account. Two weeks later they made a general assault and were again repelled. On August 25, the valiant knights, wasted and worn with watching and fighting, were relieved by long-promised re-enforcements from Sicily, and the disheartened Turks at once raised the siege. "The arms of Solymán II., during his long and glorious reign, met with no reverse so humiliating as his failure in the siege of Malta. . . . The waste of life was prodigious, amounting to more than 30,000 men. . . . Yet the loss in this siege fell most grievously on the Christians. Full 200 knights, 2,500 soldiers, and more than 7,000 inhabitants,—men, women, and children,—are said to have perished."—W. H. Prescott *History of the reign of Philip II*, bk. 4, ch. 2-5.—See also MALTA, ISLAND OF: 1530-1798.

ALSO IN: W. Porter, *History of the Knights of Malta*, v. 2, ch. 15-18.—S. Lane-Poole, *Story of the Barbary corsairs*, ch. 13.

1565-1878.—Decline and practical disappearance of the order.—"The Great Siege of 1565 was the last eminent exploit of the Order of St. John. From that time their fame rested rather on the laurels of the past than the deeds of the present. Rest and affluence produced gradually their usual consequences—diminished vigour and lessened independence. The 'esprit de corps' of the Knights became weaker after long years, in which there were no events to bind them together in united sympathies and common struggles. Many of them had become susceptible of bribery and petty jealousies. In 1789 the French Revolution burst out and aroused all European nations to some decided policy. The Order of St. John had received special favours from Louis XVI., and now showed their grateful appreciation of his kindness by cheerfully contributing a large portion of their revenue to assist him in his terrible emergencies. For this they suffered the confiscation of all the property of the Order in France, when the revolutionists obtained supreme power."—W. Tallack, *Malta*, sect. 8.—"In September, 1792, a decree was passed, by which the estates and property of the Order of St. John in France were annexed to the state. Many of the knights were seized, imprisoned, and executed as aristocrats. The principal house of the Order in Paris, called the Temple, was converted into a prison, and there the unfortunate Louis XVI. and his family were incarcerated. The Directory also did its best to destroy the Order in Germany and Italy. . . . All this time the Directory had agents in Malta, who were propagating revolutionary doctrines, and stirring up the lowest of the people to rebellion and violence. There were in the island 332 knights

(of whom many, however were aged and infirm), and about 6,000 troops. On June 9, 1798, the French fleet appeared before Malta, with Napoleon himself on board, and a few days after troops were landed, and began pillaging the country. They were at first successfully opposed by the soldiers of the Grand Master, but the seeds of sedition, which had been so freely sown, began to bear fruit, and the soldiers mutinied, and refused to obey their officers. All the outlying forts were taken, and the knights who commanded them, who were all French, were dragged before Napoleon. He accused them of taking up arms against their country, and declared that he would have them shot as traitors. Meanwhile sedition was rampant within the city. The people rose and attacked the palace of the Grand Master, and murdered several of the knights. They demanded that the island should be given up to the French, and finally opened the gates, and admitted Napoleon and his troops. After some delay, articles of capitulation were agreed upon, Malta was declared part of France, and all the knights were required to quit the island within three days. Napoleon sailed for Egypt on June 19, taking with him all the silver, gold, and jewels that could be collected from the churches and the treasury. . . . In the following September, 1798, Nelson besieged, and quickly obtained possession of the island, which has ever since remained in the hands of the English. In this way the ancient Order of St. John ceased to be a sovereign power, and practically its history came to an end. The last Grand Master, Baron Ferdinand von Hompesch, after the loss of Malta, retired to Trieste, and shortly afterwards abdicated and died at Montpellier, in 1805. Many of the knights, however, had in the mean time gone to Russia, and before the abdication of Hompesch, they elected the Emperor Paul Grand Master, who had for some time been protector of the Order. This election was undoubtedly irregular and void. By the terms of the Treaty of Amiens, in 1802, it was stipulated that Malta should be restored to the Order, but that there should be neither French nor English knights. But before the treaty could be carried into effect Napoleon returned from Elba, and war broke out again. By the treaty of Paris, in 1814, Malta was ceded to England. . . . In 1801, the assembly of the Knights at St. Petersburg . . . petitioned Pope Pius VII. to select a Grand Master from certain names which they sent. This he declined to do, but, some time afterwards, at the request of the Emperor Alexander, and the King of Naples, and without consulting the knights, the Pope appointed Count Giovanni di Tommasi Grand Master. He died in 1805, and no Grand Master has been since appointed. On his death-bed, Tommasi nominated the bailiff, Guevara Suardo, Lieutenant Master. . . . [Such] lieutenants have presided over an association of titular knights at Rome, which is styled 'the Sacred Council.' In 1814, the French knights assembled at Paris and elected a capitulatory commission for the government of the Order. . . . In or about the year 1826, the English 'Lange' of the Order of the Knights of Malta was revived. . . . A regular succession of Priors has been continued to the present time [1878], and the Duke of Manchester is the present Prior. The members of the Order devote themselves to relieving the poor, and assisting hospitals."—F. C. Woodhouse, *Military religious orders of the Middle Ages*, pt. 1, ch. 20.

1653.—Possession of St. Croix. See VIRGIN ISLANDS: Discovery and settlement.

1879.—Partial revival by Pope Leo XIII.—In 1870 Pope Leo XIII restored the title of grand master, which was bestowed upon Fra Giovanni Ceschi a Santa Croce. The headquarters of the order were established in Rome.

ALSO IN: W. K. P. Bedford, *Malta and the Knights Hospitallers*.—W. Porter, *History of the Knights of Malta*.—R. Park, *Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem*.

HOSPITALS, Development of. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 18th-20th centuries.

HOSPODAR, title of Slavonic or Russian origin meaning "lord."

HOSTAGES, enemy nationals handed over to a belligerent state or seized by it to insure the carrying out of an agreement or the prevention of treacherous acts. The practice has fallen into disuse in modern times, but was employed in the World War by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: c.

HOSTILE EMBARGO: Meaning. See EMBARGO: Definition.

HOSTIS, Latin term meaning stranger. See PEREGRIN.

HOT AIR ENGINES. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Hot air and gas engines.

HOTCHKISS, Benjamin Berkely (1826-1885), American inventor. Invented what is known as the Hotchkiss magazine gun, the Hotchkiss machine gun; also made several important improvements in projectiles and heavy ordnance. See ORDNANCE: 20th century.

HOTCHKISS GUN. See ORDNANCE: 20th century.

HOTEL DE VILLE, Massacre of (1652). See FRANCE: 1651-1653.

HOTTENTOTS, aboriginal races of South Africa. "This ridiculous appellation, now too firmly rooted to be dispensed with, is not the name of any tribe, but a nick-name applied by the early Dutch settlers to the natives they found at the Cape, who, they said, spoke no intelligible language, only an absurd gibberish which was nothing but 'hot' and 'tot.' The tribes who have kept their own language are the Namaqua and Korana; the rest have ceased to speak anything but Cape Dutch or an equally corrupt form of English"—A. Werner, *Language-families of Africa*, p. 26, note.—See also AFRICA: Races of Africa: Modern peoples; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Aboriginal inhabitants; 1486-1800; SOUTH-WEST AFRICA: 1919.

HOUGHARD, Jean Nicolas (1740-1793), French soldier. Commander-in-chief at Dunkirk. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Progress of War of Coalition.

HOUGHTON, Alanson Bigelow (1863- ), American diplomat. Ambassador to Germany, 1922. See GERMANY: 1922 (January-February).

HOUGHTON, William Stanley (1881-1914), English dramatist. See DRAMA: 1888-1921.

HOURS OF LABOR: Attempts at regulation.—Labor union demands.—Agitation for the eight hour day. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1801-1878; 1862-1920; 1901-1918; 1913-1919; 1918-1919; 1920; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875; 1843-1894; 1848-1918; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1910-1920; CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION; ADAMSON LAW.

HOUSATONIC, American vessel sunk by a German submarine, Feb. 3, 1917. See U.S.A.: 1917 (February-April).

HOUSE, Edward Mandell (1858- ), American diplomat. Personal representative of President Wilson to the European governments in 1914, 1915 and 1916; delegate to the inter-Allied confer-

ence of premiers and foreign ministers, November, 1917 (see U.S.A.: 1917 [November]); delegate to the Supreme War Council at Versailles, December, 1917; United States representative on armistice commission which drew up terms for armistice with Central Powers; member of the American commission to negotiate peace, 1918-1919. See AMERICAN COMMISSION TO NEGOTIATE PEACE; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Making of the league, etc.; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

**HOUSE GUARDS**, British. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 31.

**HOUSE OF COMMONS**, elective and lower legislative body of British Parliament. See PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH; KNIGHTS OF THE SHIRE; SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

**HOUSE OF KEYS**, legislative assembly of the Isle of Man. See MANX KINGDOM.

**HOUSE OF LORDS**, hereditary and upper legislative body of the British Parliament. See LORDS, BRITISH HOUSE OF; PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH.

**HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES**: United States, lower house of the Congress of the United States. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House of Representatives; Activities of the House and Senate: Powers; U.S.A.: Constitution.

**Australian**. See AUSTRALIA, CONSTITUTION OF.

**HOUSE, or HUT, TAX**, tax of five shillings imposed by the British on each house in three districts of Sierra Leone in 1898. The tax was deprecated but not removed by the British Commission appointed to investigate the subsequent uprisings. See SIERRA LEONE: 1896.

**HOUSECARLS**.—"No English King or Ealdorman had hitherto kept a permanent military force in his pay. But Cnut [or Canute, 1018-1035] now organized a regular paid force, kept constantly under arms, and ready to march at a moment's notice. These were the famous Thingmen, the Housecarls, of whom we hear so much under Cnut and under his successors. . . . The Housecarls were in fact a standing army, and a standing army was an institution which later Kings and great Earls, English as well as Danish, found it to be their interest to continue. Under Cnut they formed a sort of military guild with the king at their head."—E. A. Freeman, *Norman conquest*, v. 1, ch. 6, sect. 2, and appendix, note kkk.—See also COMITATUS.

**HOUSEHOLD FRANCHISE**, extension of the suffrage in England, introduced by Disraeli in 1867. It conferred a Parliamentary vote on male householders of twelve months' residence. See ENGLAND: 1865-1868.

## HOUSING

**Outline of the problem.**—Different agencies interested.—Though the World War and the following period of readjustment tended to make the housing problem acute and bring it more to public notice, it had existed for some time previous. So far the agencies most active in supplying the need for more and better housing have been either employers, some division of the government, or privately organized housing companies. At first the private agencies were mainly philanthropic pioneers, but more recently housing has been undertaken on a business basis. The employers have been interested in housing most often when their factories were located in small towns, which could not of themselves supply sufficient dwellings; sometimes the entire community has been created by the employer. During the World War the United States government, as a large-scale employer of manufacturing labor, much of which was temporary, undertook to house many of its employees. One difficulty arising where the employer controls the dwellings of its workers is that in case of any industrial dispute the employer has an unfair advantage in having the power to evict from their homes, on very short notice, striking workers and their families or workers who are discharged because they have taken a stand disapproved of by the employer. But often housing by the employer has been necessary if the workers were to live within a convenient distance from the factory. Governmental housing in Europe has been chiefly a matter of municipal enterprise. While the technical problem of the economical construction of suitable dwellings is one of the most important, much of the following description, covering about twenty countries, has to do either with the financing and business organization of housing enterprises, or with the arrangement of the houses, thus touching upon city planning (see also CITY PLANNING), or with the temporary alleviation of a housing shortage by rent and tenancy regulations.

**Belgium.**—"In Brussels as in other large cities all over the world, there exists an acute shortage of dwelling houses and apartments. The popula-

tion of Greater Brussels, which, at the end of 1913 was about 800,000, now [1920] is estimated at about 830,000. Needless to say there has been no new construction during the period of German occupation, nor has there been any considerable resumption since the armistice. Before the war the municipality of Brussels organized a corporation for the construction of dwelling houses which were to become the property of the city at the expiration of a 99-year lease. This corporation had undertaken but little work when the war broke out, and it is estimated that there is now immediate need for the construction of 7,000 houses and apartments in the city. . . . The reconstruction of the devastated regions is divided into sectors with a representative of the Government in charge of each. . . . Belgium has good expropriation and excess condemnation laws, and is now working actively on a compulsory town planning law. It already has good housing and sanitary laws."—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, pp. 16-17, 37.—"An intensive campaign for the construction of cheap homes has been begun in Belgium on the initiative of an organization known as La Société Nationale des Habitations et Logements à Bon Marché, which has a capital of 100,000,000 francs and which is under supervision of the State. In Antwerp 125 of these habitations have just been completed in the populous quarter of Looibroek, due to the intervention of the communal authorities. . . . About 18 local organizations are already in process of formation. . . . The Société Nationale is at the same time making experiments with material, apparatus, and processes of construction. It has constituted for this purpose what is termed a Comptoir National des Matériaux to facilitate the acquisition by officially recognized societies and at advantageous terms of new material and economical processes of building."—*American Architect*, Dec. 1, 1920, p. 715.

**Canada.**—"In common with many other countries, Canada at the termination of the Great War faced a serious house shortage. Whilst the war was in progress, building was at a minimum—



practically at a complete standstill. . . . At the conclusion of hostilities a huge army returned to the Dominion's shores, many of who had been overseas four or five years, bringing back with them wives and children. To cap this there commenced a heavy flow of immigration whilst settlers poured in from the United States at an unabated rate. The situation all over the country was serious, and still remains acute [written January, 1921]. . . . To aid in coping with this state of affairs, . . . to assist in the immediate necessity of erecting homes, and partly offset the high cost of construction by enabling tenants to borrow money to purchase homes, the Federal government established a housing scheme, appropriating [December 3, 1919] the sum of \$25,000,000 for the purpose. This was taken in varying sums by nearly all the provinces and supplemented by provincial appropriations. In Ontario, for instance, the total sum appropriated through both Federal and provincial channels amounted to nearly eleven million dollars. The scheme provides for a maximum loan to the individual of \$5,100. To soldiers and widows of soldiers killed in action, loans may be made to cover the entire cost of both land and home, if the land is obtained through the local housing commission. In other cases, the borrower must either own the land or advance ten per cent. of the total cost to the commission. In New Brunswick, about fifty houses have been built under the Federal scheme; in Quebec, both model garden suburbs and houses have been constructed; in the western provinces, hundreds of homes have been erected mainly for returned soldiers. During the early part of the year [1920], the scheme was not taken advantage of as readily as had been anticipated, there being some lack of understanding of its working. There were also difficulties in the way of shortage of material and labor. . . . Local corporations with a realization of the severity of the housing situation, have co-operated admirably in aiding the speeding up of the erection of dwellings. In Winnipeg, for instance, under the housing scheme, the commission makes loans of 85 per cent. of the net cost of the home and takes a first mortgage on the property for twenty years, repayable monthly at the rate of \$7.13 for each \$1,000 borrowed. The builder under the scheme selects his lot in any part of the city and may at any time pay off a portion or the whole of the borrowed money without interest. During the Summer [of 1920], the city let contracts for 300 houses for returned soldiers, the tender let for fifty of the residences representing an investment of \$185,000. In all Winnipeg has been loaned \$700,000 by the Provincial Government to finance the city housing scheme. . . . In St. Catharines, Ontario, the city council guaranteed 80 per cent. of the bonds of a company formed to erect twenty dwelling houses, to cost from \$3,000 to \$4,000 each, \$500 of which will be paid down by the purchasers. In Windsor, in the same province, the city council purchased one hundred lots on which to build houses to solve the congestion. The city of St. Johns', Quebec, borrowed from the government the sum of \$150,000 to assist in financing a civic housing scheme, and building operations were extensive during the summer of 1920. Fredericton, the New Brunswick capital, obtained the loan of \$200,000 from the provincial government's Better Housing Fund to construct dwellings for workmen. . . . A novel housing project was formulated by a city councillor of Woodstock, Ontario, who erected twenty-five houses and grades the rental according to the number of children in the in-

coming families. The larger the offspring the lower the rent. . . . There has been much activity in the last few years on the side of manufacturers to establish colonies and erect dwellings for employees. During 1920, the Laurentide Paper Co. purchased a farm of fifty acres at Grand'mere upon which to build houses for their employees. In British Columbia, the Imperial Oil Co. at Ioco is making progress with its town-site scheme for employees. Five hundred houses are being erected with ample garden allowance, the company's workers being given the opportunity of becoming owners on easy payments of long terms. Other firms are inaugurating similar projects in various parts of Canada, co-operating in relieving the existing congestion and endeavoring to get the housing situation back to normal condition."—Canadian Pacific Railway, *Agricultural and industrial progress in Canada, Jan., 1921.*

Denmark.—"In March, 1912, a small coöperative organization was formed by representatives of the building trades and the Coöperative Supply Association of Copenhagen, acting as a stock company [known as the Working People's Coöperative Association of Copenhagen]. Its avowed object was a reform of housing conditions 'by carrying over the principle of sharing to the production of houses, so that the stockholders by becoming joint possessors of their dwellings get a share in the profits, which through amortization of loans and in other ways can be carried over to members.' . . . The Association sought to procure the cheapest possible houses by the production and direct purchase of building material, by being itself wholly or partly its own contractor, and by purchase of ground when such could be acquired with advantage. The organization was formed on practically the same lines on which it is being carried on today [written in 1921]. Anyone can become a member by paying an entrance fee of two kroner, which entitles him to a membership card the number of which gives him his place on the list in selecting apartments. He becomes a voting member by paying an association share of forty kroner, payable at once or in instalments within two years' time. When this share is fully paid, he receives interest on it at four per cent and is entitled to a vote in the general assembly of the Association. He can then open up a savings account in which to save up the money for his housing share, an amount approximating two years' rent, which is his investment in the property in which he lives and which must be fully paid in before he can get an apartment. He receives four per cent interest on this money while it is still a savings account and also after it is turned over to the Association as a housing share. The money for the first building was borrowed from a small bank through the friendship of one of its directors with Mr. Jensen. The land was bought from a lawyer who took payment in a mortgage of ten per cent on the building. . . . In 1913 the house was built, housing 55 families. The Association could finance only ten per cent of its liabilities, mortgaging out the rest. The bank, seeing the house built and running, loaned for a second and third house. Then the war came. The small bank, threatened by larger ones, refused further aid. Fortunately a new venture was being made. The peasants desired to establish in Copenhagen a bank to handle their big dairy export accounts. They got together with Mr. Jensen [president of the Working People's Coöperative Building Association], and after hearing his plans, asked him to build them a bank. This is the big 'Axelborg,'

where the Association now has its offices free. The fourth house, meanwhile, financed by a state loan and a friend's loan, was going up. The fifth was financed by the new peasants' bank, the Danske Andels Bank. The Association, now firmly on its feet, started buying land, a forty-acre tract. At the same time it began to purchase its means of production. It bought a tile factory in the town of Taastrup, a few miles out of Copenhagen, and with it a farm of eighty acres, on which some day a new village may rise. It bought another tile factory on the island of Bornholm, with twenty-five acres of land. It set up cement works where it produced all the cement products necessary for its buildings at half the price it had been paying outside. . . . The Association has built fifteen completely running buildings, housing some fifteen hundred families; and it has four buildings under way which will house at least a thousand more families. It owns its own brick and cement works. It buys its timber direct from Sweden and has great yards full lying ready for future building. It has land enough to build on for years ahead. . . . At the same time that the Association was building itself up strongly from within, Mr. Jensen, as a member of the Rigsdag, was working to get state help for building, because he believes that housing, like education, is a social need and that good housing, like good education, is fundamental to good citizenship. He succeeded. In 1917 the Rigsdag passed a law which gave the city the right to remit taxes on new buildings and rents on ground purchased from the city. In 1918 the Rigsdag passed the first law in Danish history by which the state gives direct subsidy to building houses. This law authorized communities to give a direct subsidy of ten per cent to building, and when this was done the state would give a like amount. In 1919 a new law was passed authorizing communities to grant fifteen per cent where the state also gives fifteen per cent. With thirty per cent thus assured, the Association today is able to take care of the rest of its liabilities through its own shares of stock."—E. Bryner, *How Denmark is solving the housing problem* (Nation, Jan. 12, 1921).

"In order to cope with the situation caused by the shortage of dwellings in Denmark, the Government has issued a number of regulations since 1916 seeking to control conditions. In order to combat rent profiteering, a regulation has been adopted by which rents cannot be increased, nor can persons be made to give up their dwellings except by a resolution of the Municipal Authorities. A special board, very similar to the rent profiteering boards that were in operation in the United States during the War, is required to pass upon all such cases. This board is composed of 5 persons of whom 2 are owners and 2 are renters. Under the regulations, an increase of 10% in rent over the rent that was charged on August 1st, 1914, is allowable, and where dwellings are kept in good repair, a 20% increase is permitted. It is not within the power of the board to deny either of these increases, but increases beyond that amount must be approved by the board. The power to commandeer or seize vacant dwellings is also given to these boards, which are organized in most of the towns and also in several of the country districts. The regulations also prohibit the demolishing of existing dwellings during the shortage of houses and exempt all new dwelling houses from municipal taxes for a 10-year period. In order to stimulate building, loans are made by the State to building societies, the State loaning up to 4/10 of the entire

value of the property on second mortgage at 4%. As to government subsidies, in the case of municipal housing for poor, a subsidy equal to 24% of the entire building loan is granted to building societies, a subsidy representing 15% of the entire value of the development is made upon condition that the municipal authorities grant a similar subsidy of 15% and that the rents to be charged are controlled by the municipal authorities. To private individuals or corporations erecting dwellings for people of small means, a subsidy of 15% of the total investment is granted by the State upon the condition that a similar subsidy is granted by the municipality and that the owner submits to the control of rents by the municipal authorities."—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, pp. 15-16.—"The house famine which had existed is now considered to have passed, but the housing shortage is still great, as far as the city of Copenhagen is concerned, where it is stated that 10,000 dwellings are needed. Consequently the Housing Act providing for subsidies and state aid is being extended from year to year until the housing shortage has been met."—*Ibid.*, Jan., 1922, p. 40.

**France: Workmen's dwellings.**—**Industrial housing.**—"Workmen's dwellings in France have been made the subject of special legislation, the chief provisions of which are contained in the laws of 1906 and 1912, passed for the purpose of facilitating the acquisition of small property. The law of 1906 enacted, as the leading feature of this type of house, that builders, tenants or purchasers must be persons of small means—in particular, workers living chiefly upon their earnings; a maximum letting value was at the same time determined for each dwelling. . . . This indispensable task can be undertaken only by Companies or Public Offices for the housing of the working-classes; thus, Public Offices—whether municipal or departmental, regulated by the law of 1912, have increased in recent years, as was strongly advocated in 1918 by the Minister for Labour. . . . In particular, several offices have been established within the liberated regions (in the Department of Nord, for instance), where the urgent necessity for the building of new houses is more keenly felt than elsewhere. In order to facilitate the development of these institutions and the efficiency of their work, various modifications have on several occasions been introduced into pre-war legislation. Firstly, on April 24th, 1919, a law was passed for the purpose of regulating the situation brought about by the war in connection with Loan Societies dealing with real property and Workmen's Building Societies. Both of these were empowered to suspend payment of annual amounts on parts of such amounts falling due since August 1st, 1914, until the end of the sixth month after the declaration of the cessation of hostilities; this time limit was extended by one year in respect of houses which suffered damage during the war. Loan Societies dealing in real property, Workmen's Building Societies, Public Offices, Savings Banks, Charitable Societies, Asylums and Hospitals and holders of loans repayable by annual sums were authorized to suspend payment of such sums already due until the expiration of the same time limit; they are to utilize for the payment of these annual amounts the sums received from borrowers or tenants during this period. The State has undertaken responsibility for the total interest due during the same period by these Societies, with an annual increase of 50 per cent. on the total capital remaining due in virtue of

agreements signed, after deduction of interest paid to these Societies by borrowers or tenant purchasers. The law of October 24th, 1919, introduced the most important modifications in legislation previous to 1914. It began by raising the maximum letting values—which must not be exceeded at the time of building—for dwelling houses which are to profit by the benefits granted to houses intended for the working-classes. . . . This same law fixes at 200 million francs (normally £8,000,000) the total of the advances which may be made by the State to Loan Societies dealing with real property. It also decides that the Deposit Bank shall employ, for the purpose of loans to Public Offices and Building Societies connected with Workmen's Dwellings, the reserve and guarantee funds of the Savings Banks; this is authorized up to the amount of 300 million francs (normally £12,000,000), and within the limit of applications approved by the Managing Committee of the Deposit Bank. These loans are effected at the rate of 2 per cent. and the funds are employed to facilitate the purchase or construction of private houses for the working-classes or the purchase of small properties within the provision of the laws of 1906, 1908, and of more recent years. They are effected at the rate of 2.50 per cent. if the funds are employed for the purchase or construction of workmen's houses, or for the purchase of small properties intended for letting only. The State undertakes responsibility for the difference between these rates of interest and the average rate of income arising from all investments of Savings Bank funds effected by the Deposit Bank during the year preceding the carrying out of these loans, with the exception of short term credits. Lastly, the law also provides for the advance of funds required for the completion in accordance with the original plans, of houses left unfinished in consequence of the war. . . . Side by side with the work of the City of Paris itself, we find that of its Public Office for workmen's houses, established January 28th, 1914. In 1919 the Office received from the city—to enable it to meet expenses in connection with building—a grant of ten millions, supplemented by the sum of forty millions in March, 1920. The total required for the execution of the plans prepared will be completed by loans effected, either with the Deposit Bank or with some other Credit Establishment. The City of Paris guarantees the interest and the redemption of these loans, for the whole period of their duration; in order to enable the Office to meet its ordinary expenses, the City also guarantees interest at the rate of 2.50 per cent. upon the sums raised upon the supplementary grant and used in connection with workmen's houses. Several building sites have been granted to the Office; in the Rue de L'Ourcq, a group of buildings has been started, including 350 dwellings (probable net cost 15,888,250 francs); the group in the Rue de Fecamp and Rue de Tourneaux, also in course of erection, will include 628 dwellings (price 28,089,445 francs). Plans are still under consideration for the use of the land granted to the Office near the Montmartre Gate, on the site of Bastion No. 38 of the fortifications, which has just been razed. The work of the Municipal Office for workmen's houses is not limited to building: the Office will be responsible for the management of houses erected by the City itself, in proportion as they are completed."—H. Sellier, *Housing problem and public action in France (Garden Cities and Town Planning, Sept., 1921)*.

"The new village of Tergnier, France, was

officially 'opened' on the 10th of last July. This is one of several industrial towns constructed by the Nord Railway Company, which has been interested in providing shelter for its employees since 1883. The houses are mostly of 4 rooms with cellar, and cost on the average 25,000 francs each, the cost of land, water and electric light systems amounting to an additional 5,000 francs each. Large families are provided for by allowing 5% of 5-room houses, and 5% of 6 room houses. There are in all over 100 developments varying from 20 houses up to 1,400. Nearly all are provided with a plentiful distribution of drinking water and electricity, and have excellent sewage systems. There are public laundries, infirmaries, coöperative stores, schools, playgrounds and community buildings. Tergnier, which was built in 18 months, at a point where the devastation of the War was complete, now has 1,350 houses, and 18 miles of streets. . . . The company has similar developments in 26 other localities, containing in all about 8,700 houses, of which nearly 6,000 are of permanent construction. Among these are groups of 700 or more houses in or near Arras, Bethune, Lens and Lille."—*Housing Betterment, Jan., 1922, pp. 35-36*.

France: Housing policy.—Legislation.—Housing shortage in Paris.—"According to statements issued by the National Housing and Town Planning Council of England, the Government of France is contemplating embarking upon a housing policy similar to the housing policy adopted by the British Government in 1919. In this statement it is reported that the French Government has decided to ask Parliament to pass the necessary financial measures to permit the building of 500,000 houses in 10 years, the number to be constructed annually to be an average of 50,000 houses. One very important aspect in which the proposed policy of France differs materially from that of the British housing policy of 1919, is that the responsibility for getting the houses built in France will *not* be placed upon the shoulders of the local authorities, which was the essential feature of the British housing scheme. Instead, financial aid is to be given to Public Committees (*Offices Publique des Habitations à Bon Marché*) formed by municipalities, with a large number of nominated representatives as members, from various groups in each community, including employers of labor, workmen's associations, &c. It is stated that the Societies thus formed will work in close coöperation with the local authorities even though the finances of these societies will be separate and their administration outside the general scope of municipal affairs. Financial aid is also to be given to private Societies (*Sociétés des Habitations à Bon Marché*) organized on lines quite similar to the British Public Utility Societies. It is further stated that the French Government holds the view that in the present financial situation the payment of vast sums in grants of capital is not a practical policy and that it has therefore decided to give annual grants or subsidies instead. Newspaper dispatches from Paris in November [1921] stated that the Chamber of Deputies authorized the 'Union of Building Societies' to float a loan of 750,000,000 francs for the building of 100,000 cheap dwellings between the present time and 1930, most of these to be erected in the Devastated Regions, but about one-third to be put up in the suburban towns and villages around Paris, the Government guaranteeing the interest on the loan. It is stated that the bill in question was passed by almost unanimous vote. Under the

terms of the act the Building Societies which will receive these subsidies from the State will not be required to pay property taxes or income taxes; the State, however, reserves the right to revise the rents as the cost of living decreases and also the right of offering tenants an opportunity to become home owners on the installment plan."—*Housing Betterment, Jan., 1922, pp. 23-35.*—"Pending the approval by the Senate of France of a law which passed the Chamber of Deputies last December [1921] regarding rents and tenancies, a temporary law was rushed through and became effective on January 6th [1922]. This law provides that where the parties have been unable to agree among themselves, and where no final legal decision has been handed down, no tenant may be ejected before April 1st, 1922; subject, however, to the following conditions: (1) the tenants must have fulfilled all requirements of contract, local usage, or judicial decision; (2) the dwelling must be occupied by them or members of their family dwelling with them previously; (3) they must pay pending the stay, in addition to the present rent, an increase to be fixed by the court under whose jurisdiction the case falls. An exception is made where the owner or members of his family can show real need of the premises for his or their own use as a dwelling-place."—*Ibid., Apr., 1922, pp. 148-149.*—"The municipality of Paris has taken in hand the housing problem there and proposes to spend 1,700,000,000 francs (nominally about \$340,000,000) to solve it. It contemplates building 1476 new two-room workingmen's apartments at once, with 950 more to be erected later. They will be built in the heart of Paris and near the fortifications."—*American Architect, May 26, 1920, p. 656.*—"According to recent accounts which have been received from Paris, the housing shortage which has existed in Paris ever since the war is beginning to abate somewhat and the outlook for more normal conditions in the near future is said to be bright. The dwellings crisis was in part produced by the abundance of furnished apartments to let. In 1913 the number of such lodgings was—in the city, 3,051, and in the suburbs, 2,105. By 1920 these figures had increased to 9,166 and 5,308 respectively. As there was very little building during the years in question, the inference is that by 1920 there were nearly 10,000 fewer unfurnished flats and rooms at the disposal of the public. It is easy to understand, therefore, the severity of the dwellings crisis. The law prohibiting any further increase in the practice of subletting came several years too late. Just before the end of the war Allies and neutrals began to flock to Paris, and hotels were soon overcrowded and very dear. This gave speculators their opportunity. Furnished flats sprang up like mushrooms, syndicates were formed to take up empty flats, furnish them more or less sumptuously and sublet them. Flats of four rooms which the bourgeois was in the habit of renting for 2,000 francs a year were thus sublet, furnished, for 1,500 francs a month. An unfurnished room—generally on the fifth floor—the rent of which was 60 francs a month, rose to 250 francs a month, furnished."—*Housing Betterment, Apr., 1922, p. 147.*

Germany: Difficulties of the housing problem.—State and city legislation.—"The housing problem in the larger cities of Germany manifested itself not as a problem of providing homes and fixing the home interests of the worker, but as a pressing need for accommodations to meet the contingencies of the moment and to avoid

the very serious evils of congestion and high rents which result therefrom. The most important difficulty in the way of a constructive policy in the direction of housing reform in Germany was economic, and it was from this point of view that they approached the problem with characteristic thoroughness and promptness. The Compulsory Insurance Act, passed by the Reichstag in 1883 and amended in 1899, was the first means of placing at the disposal of the people funds for the construction of houses for the wage earners. This law made funds available for this purpose by the provisions which gave the government power to use part of the funds in meeting social needs. . . . The second difficulty in the way of housing reform was found to be in the high speculative value of land, and the limited areas available for building within the city limits. Professor Eberstadt, for example, cites a case where land increased in value 1,700 per cent in seventeen years. This increase in land values and the congestion which caused it, produced rental rates which increased with the increase in congestion rather than in proportion to the accommodations furnished. The little suburb of Rixdorf, outside of Berlin, which is inhabited mainly by working people, was found, upon investigation, to have a higher average rental rate than the city of Cologne, which is more or less of an exclusive and aristocratic community. It was, therefore, along these two lines—cheaper money and cheaper land—that the State and the individual cities undertook to solve their housing problems. But, since 1902, when the cities in the Rhein region began their effort in the direction of housing reform, to the present day, when the garden-city movement is finding its most ardent advocates, comparatively nothing of importance has been done to solve the housing problem from the point of view of the individual owners. . . . The first city to take a radical step in the direction of reducing the influence of land speculation upon the housing problem was Mannheim, which spent 11,000,000 marks in the purchase of land to be sold to local building associations at very reasonable rates. The practice of merely renting the land for a certain period, usually seventy-five years, prevails. To further aid in the building of homes, the cities of Germany, at their discretion, exempt from taxation and reduce the requirements for homes intended to be occupied by wage-earners. The limitation of the taxes generally covers a fixed period of years. An effort in the direction of reducing the desire for land speculation is being made in Frankfort and in Cologne, where, since 1904 in the former and 1905 in the latter, an unearned increment tax has been established. This tax amounts, sometimes, to as much as 10 per cent of the increment. This, however, has not produced the desired results, since the increment need not be paid until a sale is made, and consequently the owner can easily plan to add to the price the amount needed to pay the extra tax. Frankfort-am-Main, on the strength of the law of 1900, has acquired large tracts of land which the city has the power to gather in one holding and dispose of to building associations and private citizens. In 1907 the city of Crefeld bought 3,842 acres at a cost of 676,060 marks, which is being devoted to workingmen's homes. . . . Hamburg, which is a city of over one million population, did not begin to consider its housing problem until 1902, when a series of extensive municipal improvements were undertaken, and the community found itself face to face with the problem of accommodating large groups of

workers and their families. Some of the workers were compelled to leave their old abodes which had been included in the improved territory, while others were attracted to the city by the improvements which were being carried out. The city soon voted an appropriation of 1,200,000 marks, to be used as a loan fund for the assistance of building associations, which were to undertake the construction of workingmen's homes. The buildings constructed were exempt from taxation, and the loans were to be paid back to the city within ten years. This loan fund stimulated the building of three thousand homes, which are accommodating a population of approximately 11,000 people. As in the case of Frankfurt, the Hamburg policy does not promote private ownership, and the tenement type of dwelling has been the only type provided."—C. Aronovici, *German housing reform*, pp. 3-6.—"Owing to the scarcity of houses in Germany, measures are being taken by some local authorities to prevent people from other districts from coming to live in the towns where the shortage is acute. At Königsburg the local authority has taken this course, making an exception only in the case of sick persons who have medical certificates to prove that they cannot obtain adequate treatment in the neighboring towns. In Stuttgart notices have been published forbidding the entry of any new residents; no house-letting contracts are to be sanctioned by the Town Housing office and severe penalties are threatened in the case of the persons, who, having bought houses, intend to move into them. At Frankfort-on-Main the State Housing Commissioner has authorized the Local Authority to issue an order prohibiting until July 15, 1919, negotiations between landlords and tenants which have not the sanction of the Rent Arbitration Office; negotiations with individuals outside the town are strictly forbidden; this order affects rooms of all sorts including those in hotels and boarding houses. The Local Authority has also instructed the Housing Office to come to an arrangement with the Food Ministry with regard to the stopping of food supplies to any prospective residents from other neighborhoods. . . . In the fine residential suburb of Charlottenburg, as well as in the Friedrichshafen and Friedenau districts, the local authorities have, according to the Berlin press, obtained permission from the State Commissioner of Housing to force the owners of large houses not entirely occupied to reconstruct them so as to make parts of them available for tenants, and to place them at the disposition of the local housing boards. Houses of from eight to twelve rooms occupied by only from four to six persons come under this ruling. The summer residence villages and towns in the neighborhood of Berlin are taking steps to make use of the houses of their transient inhabitants during the rest of the year. The community of Helligensee, embracing the summer colonies of Konradshöhe, Tegelort, and Jörsfelde, has received the right to take possession of all its unused houses and to rent them to the public, and other places are about to follow this example, reports the *Vorwärts* of September 3. The town of Grünau has ordered the occupants of bachelor apartments and cottages to offer them for rent. On August 29 [1919], following the example of Potsdam, Spandau and some other districts, the City Council of Greater Berlin ordered that no leases were to be renewed, nor were any apartments, houses or shops to be rented to any one without first being placed on the list of the housing board, which would then issue the necessary permits to the owners, if the renting

conditions appeared satisfactory. In making out new leases, the landlords are allowed to add enough to the rents to compensate them for the additional outlay for coal, labor, etc., now unavoidable. According to a Berlin cablegram of October 1, the municipality was renting cells in the old city jail for use as flats. Outside cells were bringing the best rates."—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, pp. 17-19.—"The territory which Germany has surrendered to Poland under the terms of the Versailles treaty is dumping thousands of homeless fugitives into already overcrowded Berlin, according to Dr. W. Laporte, municipal housing commissioner. 'Investigation has shown that in a single house seventy-nine persons were fugitives from Polish Germany. There are approximately 32,000 families seeking homes in Berlin. We have today only 320 apartments at our disposal,' said Dr. Laporte. The Berlin housing commission has proposed the immediate construction of 5,000 two-room apartments or huts to accommodate the families who are now exposed to disease, sleeping in cellars."—*American Architect*, May 5, 1920, p. 557.—See also BERLIN: 1910-1917.

Germany: Convention of the League of German Tenants' Associations.—National rent law.—"At the annual convention of the League of German Tenants' Associations held in Dresden this fall [1922], socialization of rented dwelling houses, flats, apartments and offices was demanded as the only satisfactory remedy for the housing shortage which is becoming worse in Germany from day to day. At this same meeting of the Tenants' Associations, said to represent 1,000,000 rent payers, it was urged that the various rent rules and regulations be unified in one single national law which would cover all contingencies and all phases of the renting question. . . . In a recent article reviewing the whole subject it is estimated that it will be necessary to build from 750,000 to 1,000,000 dwellings to meet the housing shortage throughout the country. It is pointed out that at the present rate of building, with government supervision and subsidies, not more than a small fraction of the demand is being met."—*Housing Betterment*, Jan., 1922, pp. 48-49.—"The Reichstag (Parliament) on March 3rd [1922] passed a national rent law extending until April first, 1926, the present restrictions on rents. . . . The new law was put through the Reichstag by only a small majority and according to the Berlin correspondent of the *Kölnische Zeitung*, it pleases nobody, as the tenants will soon experience a material rise in rents while the landlords will not get anything near the returns they had hoped for. The property owners are wrath over the feature of the law providing for the legal establishment of 'Tenants' Councils' empowered to send representatives from each house to participate in the adjustment of rents and other matters, while the proponents of the socialization of housing are indignant at the Reichstag's failure to establish a common fund out of which landlords were to be paid for important necessary improvements at the general expense of all rent payers. Under the new law a special account will be opened for each house and aid will be extended only in cases where the tenants and owners are in straightened financial circumstances. Business buildings are also covered by the regulations, with provision for special rent increases. In general the provincial authorities are to fix rents on the prewar basis, with all sorts of allowances for repairs, increases in carrying and maintenance charges and ability of the tenants

to pay. . . . *Die Rote Fahne*, the Communist organ, in an article attacking the Government for its failure to compel the War and Treasury Departments to place alleged empty army barracks and public buildings at the disposal of the public, asserted that there were 135,000 homeless persons in Berlin and that 386,000 families with children were obliged to live in one-room flats."—*Ibid.*, Apr., 1922, pp. 157-158.

Great Britain: Legislation.—"Lord Shaftesbury was the first social reformer [in Great Britain] to approach the question of housing from a practical standpoint. The Labourers' Friendly Society, afterwards the Society for Improving the Condition of the Labouring Classes, was largely the result of his agitation in 1842. . . . The main development of Housing Reform was a late one, for the first general Act dealing with the problem was not placed on the Statute Book until 1851. . . . The first real attempt to grapple with the situation was made under the auspices of the short-lived Derby-Disraeli Ministry of 1866 to 1868. The Torrens Act of 1866, introduced as a private Bill by a Liberal member, was sent to a Select Committee, presided over by Lord Chelmsford. The Government fell almost immediately afterwards, and the new Conservative Administration took the matter up so vigorously that they placed a remodelled version of it on the Statute Book in less than a year. The Torrens Acts (The Artisans' and Labourers' Dwellings Acts, 1868, 1870 and 1882—31 & 32 Vict. c. 130, 42 & 43 Vict. c. 64, 45 & 46 Vict. c. 54) are concerned with matters coming under Part II of the Act of 1890, and are the foundation of all subsequent legislation under this head. They were limited in their application to towns and boroughs, but otherwise the machinery of the law remains practically unchanged though the area of its working has been extended. . . . The object of these Acts was clearly stated in the 14th section of the Statute of 1870, which declared the purpose of the Act to be—(1) The providing, by the construction of new buildings, or the repairing of existing buildings, the working classes with suitable dwellings, situate within the jurisdiction of the local authority. (2) The opening out of closed or partially closed alleys or courts inhabited by the labouring classes, and the widening of the same by pulling down any building, or otherwise leaving such open spaces as may be necessary to make such alleys or courts healthful. By 1875, however, it had become apparent that any action taken under the Torrens Act—or to use the modern phraseology, under Part II—could only be applied successfully in a limited number of circumstances. . . . Their object was to do on a large scale that which the Torrens Acts intended to do for small areas. . . . In the region of social reform the year 1884 is notable for the appointment of the Royal Commission on the Housing of the Poor, which was gazetted on the 4th March. . . . The Report of the Commissioners appeared (1885) in two large volumes, and contains almost all the recommendations which housing reformers, then and since, have urged upon Parliament. . . . Unfortunately, the legislative result was in no way equal to the ability and earnestness of those who worked on this Commission; but much was brought to light, especially in the sympathetic evidence of the Earl of Shaftesbury, which it has been highly advantageous for the country to hear and to discuss. . . . The Royal Commission having reported, in 1885 the Conservative Ministry produced an Act whose aim was described as the wide one of 'the provision

of suitable dwellings for the working classes.' The most important provision in the Act was the extension of the Artisans' and Labourers' Dwellings Improvements Act, which had applied only to boroughs of over 25,000 inhabitants, to all urban sanitary districts. The passing of the 1885 Act was, however, very ineffective in making local authorities take adequate action, and after five years of comparative inactivity the Government passed the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, an Act of comprehensive and extensive power which left no excuse for the slothfulness of any local authority. This Act is now known as the principal Act, and consolidates all the legislation passed from 1851 onwards. For twenty years it governed the activities of local authorities in this direction. With the amending Acts of 1900 and 1903, it constituted until 1909 the chief legislative measure for housing reform. The Act contained little that was new, and far less than the Commissioners had recommended; it was rather a consolidating Act, collecting and revising such measures as had been adopted in the Torrens Acts and Cross Acts. The Act consists of seven parts, three only of which need to be described in any detail. The division of legislation into Parts I, II, and III, represents not a legislative fiction, but a real—if not antagonistic—distinction between points of view on the best means of carrying out reform. The various great municipalities generally tend to work more under one or other of the Parts of the parent Act. Liverpool, for instance, prefers not only to act almost entirely under Part I, but to re-house on the spot the exact number of people displaced, and to indulge in no schemes for re-housing on the outskirts. Birmingham, on the other hand, after the first great clearance scheme carried out by Mr. Chamberlain in 1876, prefers to act through Part II, and to insist rigidly, by means of closing orders, on the duty of every individual owner to keep his house or houses in a proper state. This method of action is also preferred by Hull. Glasgow, on the other hand, approximates more nearly to Liverpool, while London, having carried out many important schemes under Part I has turned its attention towards a policy of reinforcing slum clearance in the centre by large housing schemes, under Part III, outside. . . . Part I, which applies to the London County Council and all Urban District and Borough Councils, provides for the clearance, by the sanitary authority concerned, of large unhealthy areas. . . . Part II, which applies to all urban and rural sanitary authorities (the London Borough and Rural District Councils must seek ratification of the County Council above them), provides a means of dealing with small areas. . . . Part III, the most valuable part of the Act for practical housing reform, enables local sanitary authorities to erect workers' dwellings, whenever they consider it necessary to do so, and without any clearance of other areas. . . . The object of the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1900, was to amend Part III of the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890. . . . In 1902 attention was drawn to the fact that several railway companies, by acquiring property without first obtaining Parliamentary powers to enable them to do so, or by acquiring land through secret agents, had attempted to evade their responsibilities for providing accommodation for persons of the labouring classes in connection with various schemes. A Joint Select Committee of the House of Lords and the House of Commons was appointed. . . . Following the report of the Select Committee of

1902, the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1903, was passed, providing that in cases in which any land was acquired, whether compulsorily or by agreement, under the powers given by any Local Act or Provisional Order, or Order having the effect of an Act, by any authority, company, or person, or where such land was acquired compulsorily under any general Act other than the Housing Act, the requirements with respect to the provision of dwelling accommodation for persons of the working class set out in the schedule to the Act, should apply. . . . The Housing of the Working Classes Act of 1890, whatever may have been its effect in the towns, did little to improve housing in the country districts. The Select Committee on the Housing of the Working Classes Amendment Bill, 1906 (H. of C. 376, p. 9), reported that most Rural District Councils had taken practically no advantage of the Act [see also IRELAND; 1906]. This committee, which was appointed to consider a Rural Housing Bill introduced into the House of Commons, collected a large amount of valuable information. The evidence, together with the Report, forms a considerable addition to the information on the subject. Some of its more important recommendations were embodied in the Housing and Town Planning, etc., Act of 1909. . . . The Act is a long and complicated measure consisting of four parts, having no less than seventy-six sections and six schedules. Part I deals with the acquisition of land for Housing purposes, with amendment of procedure for closing and demolition orders, the granting of loans and other amendments in general. Part II deals wholly with Town Planning, and is the newest and probably the most important part of the Act. Part III deals with the appointment of county medical officers, housing committees of the County Councils, etc., Part IV gives supplementary provisions as to commons, open spaces, royal parks, etc. The first section of Part I is extremely important, for it provides that in the future Part III of the Housing of the Working Classes Act (1890) need no longer formally be adopted by an urban or rural district authority. Modern housing legislation, to adopt the nomenclature of the great Act of 1890, and the subsequent Act of 1909, is based on a triple conception, and may be said to be remedial, constructive, and preventive. It is remedial by providing for the clearing and improvement of slum areas. It is constructive by providing for the erection of new houses where required. It is preventive by providing for the maintenance to an approved standard and the improvement of existing houses."—J. J. Clarke, *Housing problem*, pp. 5, 7, 8-9, 15, 17, 21-23, 26, 28-29, 31, 33-34.—"The new Housing and Town Planning Act, adopted by the House of Commons on May 28th, 1919, permits a Local Authority to prepare or adopt a town planning scheme without having to obtain the authorization of the Local Government Board, except where the scheme includes land outside of the limits of the borough. Within 3 years after January 1st, 1923, every borough with over 20,000 inhabitants and any other Local Authority which the Local Government Board may require must prepare and submit to the Board a town planning scheme in accordance with provisions to be determined by the Board with reference to any land within the area of the Local Authority. The Board can oblige the Local Authority to carry accepted plans into effect. If the Local Authority fails to act satisfactorily in any part of this procedure the Board may do the work itself at the expense of

the Local Authority. This law was greatly aided in its passage by the French compulsory town planning law."—*Housing Betterment, Feb., 1920.*

**Great Britain: National Housing and Town Planning Council.**—Government building program.—"The National Housing and Town Planning Council under the leadership of its energetic executive officer, Mr. Henry R. Aldridge, is carrying on a campaign throughout all England stimulating and guiding public sentiment to the end that a housing policy may be adopted which will insure the building of houses. Members of Parliament will evidently not be allowed to allow the Government's housing policy to go by default. In a recent memorandum issued by this organization it is stated that: Whilst it is urged that at the present stage enquiry should be concentrated upon administrative work in carrying through to success the policy entered upon in 1919, it is however clearly recognized that even when 500,000 houses are built the terrible problem presented by the persistence in many centres of populations of wretched congeries of miserable dwellings in which life is lived at only half values, will remain unsolved. It will not be possible until the detailed Census Figures are published, to determine whether general housing conditions have greatly improved since 1911. The Census figures then recorded that out of the 8,005,290 separate homes in England and Wales upwards of a quarter of a million (254,710) of these were one-room homes, two thirds of a million (660,472) two-room homes, more than a million (1,107,873) three-room homes, and nearly two million (1,981,428) four-room homes. . . . It has therefore been decided that the National Council shall set up a Housing and Town Planning Enquiry Committee for the purpose of framing a National Policy sufficient in its scope and character to secure not simply the amelioration of present conditions but the provision of such conditions both in regard to housing and town planning as an enlightened community may regard as providing a solution of a problem which vitally affects the national honor. This Committee will be in effect a Voluntary Commission set up by the Council for the purpose of defining in clear terms the greatest common measure of agreement amongst housing and town planning experts concerning an adequate National Housing and Town Planning Policy and including the constructive steps essential to its realization."—*Ibid., Jan., 1922, pp. 13-14.*—"In addition to the handicaps of high prices and scarcity of building material, England's efforts to catch up to the demand for dwelling houses are being seriously retarded by a shortage of some 200,000 workers in the building trades, due to the results of the World War. Talking to London newspaper men recently [written in April, 1920] Sir Kingsley Wood, Parliamentary Private Secretary to the Minister of Health, pointed out that 60,000 of the 840,000 men engaged in building houses before the war had been killed, many thousands had been disabled and a host of others had gone into other trades. Sir Kingsley went on to say that, including the 500,000 houses that the Government building program called for, there must be at least 1,630,000 dwellings put up during the next ten years in order to house the people at all adequately, and that there would be more than enough work for 1,000,000 men during that period. He said there was a shortage of 15,000 bricklayers in sight if the requisite number of houses were to be got under way this year, and that there was no prospect of any unemployment in the building

trades, even if the workers now in the army were all to return to their old places. Since the Government mapped out its building program the Ministry of Health has approved nearly 120,000 plans for new houses embraced in some 4,500 'schemes,' covering about 37,000 acres of land in the leading cities of England. On February 20 [1920] Dr. Addison, the Minister of Health, laid the first brick in the Hayes building 'scheme,' the largest one under way in the Metropolitan district, which aims at constructing 2,000 dwellings."—*American Architect*, Apr. 21, 1920, p. 493.

—"In announcing the changed policy Sir Alfred Mond, the Minister of Health, stated [1921] that, under an arrangement made between his predecessor (Dr. Addison) and the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, the number of housing schemes which the Government contemplated had been reduced from 500,000 to between 200,000 and 300,000 houses; that now it was proposed to limit the number of houses to 200,000, of these 176,000 houses were to be built by the local authorities, and in addition 24,000 or 25,000 houses were to be built by private builders under the Subsidy Scheme. He added that the country now had a permanent burden for 60 years of ten million pounds (£10,000,000) a year on their taxes in order to provide these houses. . . . The latest figures available with regard to the progress of the various Government housing schemes in England is that issued by the Ministry of Health under date of November 18th as follows:

Estimates for 165,000 houses have been approved.

Contracts signed for 159,400 houses.

Houses commenced 141,500.

Houses completed (November 1) 62,000."

*Housing Betterment*, Jan., 1922, pp. 5, 21.

See also CITY PLANNING: Great Britain; PUBLIC HEALTH: Great Britain.

**Holland.**—"Holland, through its Government, is doing some progressive housing work as described by the president of the Nederlandsch Instituut voor Volkschuisvesting (Dutch Housing Institute), Mr. D. Hudig. 'Our Housing Act of 1901 empowers the Government to grant loans to local authorities for the purpose of buying land and building working class houses themselves or by the aid of public utilities societies. The money is not directly advanced by the central government to these societies but by way of the local authorities which have the power to allow or refuse a loan—a system that affords the opportunity for more efficient control over the societies than could be exerted by a central department. The money is advanced on mortgage repayable in 50 years by equal annual instalments, the rate being fixed at the rate indicated by the market quotation of the State debentures on the Amsterdam Exchange. The local authority is responsible for the payment of the interest and instalments on the loan so that there is no financial risk to the State. The Government is willing to grant 100% of the total building cost. Local authorities on granting the loan may impose such conditions on the society as they think fit to secure efficient management, proper repairs, etc. The public utilities societies have a semi-public character. They must be authorized by the Government; the interest on their shares is limited to 4%; the capital and profit are only to be applied to the improving of housing and the members can be given no right to buy their houses. Nearly 750 public utilities societies are now authorized. About 250 are organized in the National Housing Council, this corporation being exclusively a federation of public utility housing societies

and local building authorities. Up to the end of 1914, 461 loans had been granted, 371 of public utility societies and 90 on behalf of local authorities building themselves; 9,900 houses had been built and loans in total had been approved for the building of 16,251 houses. Since the beginning of the war private enterprise has been practically out of business. Working class houses have only been built by public utility societies and some local authorities. The housing shortage is growing every day; at least 100,000 houses are now wanted. In Amsterdam and Rotterdam about half of the newly married people cannot get houses. In the next five years 250,000 should be built. Immediately after the war the State fixed the interest chargeable on state loans at 3-7/8%, being the interest indicated by the market quotation of the State debentures on the Amsterdam Exchange the day before it was shut. A subsidy was granted to meet the difficulties caused by the rise in prices of materials. The local authorities were obliged to partake in this subsidy. After many tribulations the scheme now in practice was settled upon, providing an annual subsidy of the amount of the deficit incurred by the societies, 75% being afforded by the State, 25% by the local authority. Since the war more loans than ever have been granted, the total number of loans at the end of 1917 being 810, of which 636, amounting to 71,500,000 florins (about £6,000,000) were granted on behalf of public utility societies; 174, amounting to 27,500,000 florins, on behalf of municipal building, including a loan to Amsterdam of 15,000,000 florins. From May, 1918, to the end of July, 1919, loans and subsidies were granted for the building of about 15,000 houses, the monthly number growing rapidly. The fixing of rents must now be approved by the State, and there is a tendency to put them up. But as the cost of living is about 92% above the cost before the war and the raising of rents of private houses is under the control of rent committees and as the cost of building is still increasing, and wages, though raised, have not in general reached a level at which economic rents may be paid, the deficit will be very great, in some cases growing to nearly 300 florins (£25) per annum. This will go on for a long time. The capital cost now varies from 5,000 florins (£417) to 8,500 florins (£709) and an economic rent would be about 9 florins (15s.) or 12 florins (£1) per week (rates are not included in rents), whereas the normal pre-war rent for newly built houses was 4 florins (6s. 8d.) in Amsterdam and some other towns."—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, pp. 25-27.

"The overcoming of the housing shortage is attributed largely to the effect of the various schemes by which government-aid to housing was furnished. . . . The government subsidy for housing in 1905 amounted to 46,000 florins (\$18,400 at par) and covered 31 houses. In 1920 this appropriation amounted to 150,000,000 florins (\$60,000,000 at par). While the Government has employed a number of different means of stimulating the construction of houses, that found most generally effective has been the one by which a subsidy is given to municipalities, to building societies and to private individuals erecting houses not exceeding 450 cubic meters in size. While the subsidy is limited to 20 florins (\$8 at par) per cubic foot and the total amount is similarly limited to 2,000 florins (\$800 at par) for each dwelling, no restriction is placed upon the final disposition that may be made of the dwellings. They may be sold, rented, or occupied by the



owner himself, if he so chooses."—*Ibid.*, Jan., 1922, p. 45.

Italy.—The United States trade commissioner at Rome, under date of January 15, 1920, submitted to the Department of Commerce the following statement, . . . which was published in Commerce Reports (Washington) for March 14: "Under the existing provisions, whereby the State participates in the payment of the interest on loans made to building organizations and co-operative societies, the Government has already assumed annual interest charges amounting to about 2,500,000 lire [\$482,500, par]. The following municipalities have so far been granted aid by the State in this connection: Milan, Reggio Emilia, Pozzuoli, Caldebosco, Sivignano, and Vezzano, as well as the institutes for popular houses of Catania, Bergamo, Bologna, Florence, Milan, Modena, Rome, Turin, Treviso, and Venice, and various co-operative organizations at Rome, Parma, and Reggio Emilia. Many additional proposals are now under consideration, and a number of local bodies have already begun construction without awaiting the definite allotment of funds from the Government. It is calculated that at this time there are under construction in Italy popular houses the cost of which will exceed 200,000,000 lire [\$38,600,000, par], without including in this sum the construction undertaken at Rome, where the work already under way will provide 25,000 rooms. Every effort is being made to simplify the formalities connected with the granting of loans, and provision has now been made whereby commercial, industrial, and agricultural organizations can also obtain aid from the State for the construction of houses for their own employees, provided separate accounts are kept in this connection, and the interest derived from their investment does not exceed 5 per cent. Such houses can not be used for any purpose other than that for which they were originally intended. There has been a demand for such aid on the part of certain large industrial establishments, especially at Milan, and it is believed that these companies will now undertake construction on a large scale. Another stimulus to building activities will consist in the complete exemption from customs duties of building materials imported. The exemption from the normal tax and the supertax will also be considerably extended. Houses coming under the definition of popular or economical houses, as well as popular hotels and dormitories constructed by municipalities and bodies not organized for profit, will enjoy such exemption for 20 years; other houses not belonging in the above classes, but at the same time not of a luxurious character, will be exempt for 10 years, and this exemption may be extended for an additional 15 years. In addition to encouraging new construction efforts are being made to assure the most advantageous use of housing facilities already available. By a decree . . . published [in 1919], Government commissioners [were to] . . . be appointed in cities possessing over 100,000 inhabitants on December 31, 1919, to see that tenants receive the full protection afforded them by law in connection with the leasing of apartments, furnished rooms, etc., and in regard to evictions. By this decree it is also provided that civil and military offices of the Government, having a temporary character owing to the war, must be removed within three months from private buildings heretofore occupied, and established in temporary buildings which will be constructed. Furthermore, by virtue of a decree of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor, buildings in-

tended for use as hotels previous to the war, which have been sold for other purposes but are not yet converted, can be redeemed at the selling price, without further compensation, for their transfer to persons who will use such buildings as hotels and guarantee to continue to make such use of them for not less than 10 years."—United States Department of Labor, *Monthly Labor Review*, May, 1920, pp. 1260-1270.—"The National Housing Conference held in Milan, Italy, some months ago [written in April, 1922]. . . . was called to consider how the housing shortage might be met and what steps would be taken to meet the situation caused by the shortage of skilled labor in the building trades in Italy. Three years have elapsed since the last annual congress held in Rome in 1918, from which resulted the Italian housing law of November 30, 1916, during which time the housing problem has become more and more acute and the necessity for those interested in housing reform in Italy getting together to discuss the subject became apparent. Those calling this conference were of the view that the solution of Italy's present housing problem would come through action by the municipalities themselves and through semi-public institutions known as Boards of Popular Building Construction. It was stated at the conference that, compared with the number of buildings produced by the Co-operative Societies and by private initiative, a very great increase in house production has come through the activity of these Boards of Popular Building Construction, acting in co-operation with municipalities. Although the cause of the Building Co-operative Societies was warmly advocated by a number of speakers at the Milan Conference, the Conference apparently did not go on record as believing that such an agency would be the most effective one in producing the much needed houses."—*Housing Betterment*, Apr., 1922, pp. 158-159. See also CITY PLANNING: Italy.

New Zealand.—"The 1916 census revealed the fact that the population of New Zealand was crowded into 32,000 dwellings. Since that time comparatively few new homes have been built and the population of the country has increased materially. The Board of Estimate in 1918 stated that there was a demand for at least 20,000 additional dwellings of four and five rooms each. The New Zealand Government has interested itself in the erection of homes for workers, and already the government has 155 homes under construction, and provision has been made for the erection of 700 more. Besides this the different municipalities are attempting to aid in the matter of more and better homes for the wage earner, with the result that the New Zealand Government, the municipal authorities of the Dominion, and private enterprises are expected to supply 5,000 homes within the next year or 18 months."—*American Architect*, Oct. 13, 1920, p. 485.—"Thirty-nine acres have been set aside on which to erect forty new homes in Taihape for the working people in that section, principally railway employees; and seventy acres at Taurarunui for the erection of homes on lots 70 by 100 feet. It is expected that at this place sixty or eighty houses will be erected. . . . A tract of land at Frankton has been divided into 180 lots on which homes are to be erected as soon as a sawmill, equipped with modern American automatic milling machinery, is completed. This scheme . . . includes the erection of a large number of workmen's homes. The New Zealand government has announced that it expects to construct 600 dwell-

ings for workmen in different parts of the Dominion, and it is intimated that an attempt will be made to construct these at as low a price as possible, even though it becomes necessary for the government to import some of the supplies."—United States Department of Commerce, *Reports*, Jan. 8, 1921, p. 142.

Norway.—"The first Compulsory Town Planning laws in Europe were put into effect in Norway 60 years ago. There were several big fires at that time and the early Commissions that rebuilt the towns were composed of shoe-makers and tailors who loved straight lines and sacrificed much of the personality of the towns. The Norwegian towns have gone in heavily for the municipal ownership of land; some have bought for 200 years ahead; some own all of the land immediately around the town and can control housing and speculation. They usually tax the land much more than the housing on it. . . . The Norwegian Housing and Town Planning Association . . . has been giving lectures all over Norway. . . . They have received an appropriation of 1500 pounds for their work and further sums locally. They do not hesitate to attack the Government in their propaganda, the result being that they are securing interest in town planning all over the country."—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, p. 36.—"In building our towns there has, . . . in the last few years, been a determined break with the old bad habit of building large tenement houses which have made our larger towns gloomy, ugly and unhealthy, spoiling both the effect of our beautiful landscape and the comfort and prosperity of the inhabitants. During the [World] War the building of houses for the masses has, in our towns—owing to the high cost of building—practically entirely been taken over by our town councils. Several of our municipalities have gone in very heavily for the buying of land, and rather heavily for house building. For instance, our capital, Christiania (260,000 inhabitants) has during the last three years—1916 to 1919—built 2,500 houses for a sum of 45,000,000 kroner netto (£2,500,000), . . . and planned the building of at least 1,000 new houses annually in the years to come. These houses built by the municipalities are either let direct at rents subsidized up to 50 per cent., or sold or let to public utility societies on the same basis. Building costs . . . are very high in our country, a good deal higher than in England. The municipal letting of houses has many drawbacks. We are therefore endeavoring, as far as possible, to hasten the formation of public utility societies for disposing of the houses in a way that safeguards against speculation. We are trying to form in every town of 8,000 to 10,000 inhabitants and upwards, one public utility society—a sort of municipality within the municipality, a building-municipality with the sole object of building and letting houses—which endeavours to absorb and organize building demand existing within the town: the demand being created by those who now or later on will form a family and found a home, those who are unsatisfactorily housed and wish to build a better home, those who have immigrated, and so forth. We hope thereby to carry building enterprise forward precisely by those who are most interested, and to enable the communal authorities, in recognition of the communal significance of this cause, to give these societies sufficient support with guaranteed loans, building loans, and capital to start, and in times such as these, sufficiently large subsidies to enable the societies to let the houses to their members for a rental within their means."

C. Gierlöf, *Housing in Norway* (*Garden Cities and Town Planning Magazine*, Mar., 1920).

Russia.—"Mr. Zakharoff describes housing conditions in Russia as follows: 'Only in the great Russian cities are hot water, elevators, gas for heating purposes, and sanitary devices to be found. In the towns the heights of houses is limited to five or six stories, and in Petrograd the greatest altitude is 77 feet. According to tradition, this arbitrary limitation was fixed by one of the czars, who forbade the townfolk to build their houses higher than his own living quarters—the Winter Palace. There is a great difference between the elaborate architecture of public buildings and the construction standards of the homes of the masses, where modern improvements and sanitary conditions particularly have been greatly neglected. In the villages Russian peasants live in wooden houses that are nothing more than huts. They are called *izba* and consist of one story, containing one or two large rooms with a big Russian stove. A stable is usually adjoining. The stove, besides its use for cooking, serves as a bed for the proprietor and his family. Through centuries the methods of hut construction have remained substantially unchanged. They are built from logs and covered with wooden or straw roofs. This kind of construction makes fires frequent. The damage to them by fire reaches 320,000,000 rubles a year. The ruble at pre-war exchange was equal to fifty cents. Before the war the Government sought to correct this hazardous situation. The *zemstvos* erected several small factories for the production of fire-proof material, and the Minister of Agriculture organized a series of popular lectures on the methods of fire-resisting construction. As soon as orderly conditions are restored in Russia, it is to be expected that steps will be taken to revamp "wooden Russia." . . . On December 11th, 1913, the Kingdom of Prussia passed a more or less complete town planning law, which was applied by the Germans in the rebuilding of a large part of the 34,000 buildings that had been destroyed up to that time in Russia.'"—*Housing Betterment*, Feb., 1920, pp. 22, 37.—"The London Daily Mail's Petrograd correspondent, in a dispatch, gives an outline of the projected law respecting housing as printed in the *Pravda*, according to which every person paying a rent below 1200 rubles is exempted from paying rent for the next six months. Lodgers renting rooms are also to be exempted, and evictions will not be permitted without a decision of the Revolutionary Court."—*Housing Betterment*, May, 1918, p. 53.

South America: Uruguay.—Argentina.—Brazil.—Peru.—"Even South America has not been free from the general situation of housing shortage and high rents which have affected all parts of the civilized globe. Uruguay last June enacted a new rent-control law limiting the maximum of rent that may be charged to that which prevailed on December 31st, 1919. The legislation is emergency legislation, as in New York, and is limited in its application to a 3-year period from the time of its enactment (June 20, 1921). One unique feature of this legislation is the provision that a landlord who attempts to collect a larger amount than the maximum imposed by law will incur a fine equivalent to 3 months' rent, the fine in question to be devoted to the state's funds for public relief. Provision is made for an appeal to a Rent Commission both on the part of the landlord and the tenant. The decisions of such Commissions are final and may not be revised for 12 months. The law contemplates

the appointment of such commissions in all important cities and towns. Uruguay has evidently modeled its legislation somewhat on that of New York and has adopted also the New York scheme for the stimulation of new building construction through tax exemption. New buildings begun after the promulgation of the law and completed during its 3-year term of operation will have 50% of the property tax remitted for a period of 10 years from the time they are completed. In addition, the builders of new dwellings built within the time prescribed may upon application have refunded to them all custom's duties paid on any building material used in their construction which may have been imported into the country. . . .

"The high cost of building materials since 1911, is said to be chiefly responsible for the slowing up of construction and a consequent shortage of housing facilities and increased rents. As a result of this situation, after 2 years' agitation and discussion of proposed legislation to cope with the rapidly rising cost of rent, the National Congress of Argentina in September of this year passed 3 measures designed to alleviate this situation. These laws follow to a considerable extent the New York laws. One of them provides that for a period of 2 years after the promulgation of the law the rent for houses, rooms and apartments for residential purposes throughout the Republic shall not be increased beyond the rate which prevailed on January 1, 1920, and that under certain prescribed conditions all legal proceedings for dispossessing tenants for non-payment of rent shall be stopped. Further details of the measures in question are as follows: One provision nullifies any clause in a lease which is designed to exclude children; another amendment regulates subletting; a third measure deals with the procedure to be followed in carrying out judgments of the court permitting eviction of tenants."—*Housing Betterment, Jan., 1922, pp. 54-56.*—"Startling living conditions as the result of high rents in Buenos Aires are disclosed in a report by Alejandro Bunge, director general of national statistics. Eighty of each hundred families occupy only one room, he says. Of this 80 per cent., 'nineteen families consist of four persons, twenty of five, eleven of six, four of eight, two of nine and one of seven persons, all living in one room in each case.'"—*American Architect, Sept. 20, 1920, p. 432.*—"Recent reports from Buenos Aires describe a plan which the municipal authorities of that city have recently inaugurated and embodied in an ordinance enacted by the Municipal Council which contains many unusual features, as a means of stimulating building construction of dwelling houses and meeting the housing shortage. The city will use such of its real estate as is unimproved or is occupied by old and inadequate structures as sites for the construction of modern houses. It will hand over such property for a period of 25 years, without any kind of annual rental or remuneration, to concessionaires, who will be required to erect houses thereon representing a minimum value of twice the value of the land occupied by such buildings. The buildings must conform to the municipal regulations, and must be for residential purposes only, except that the first floor may be used for business purposes. It is further required that the work of construction be begun and finished within specified periods. A deposit equal to 10% of the value of the building plot is required of the concessionaires and is returned to them when the building has been covered with a roof. Exemption from the usual building taxes and exemption for a period of five years from the pay-

ment of current rates, such as for lighting, road cleaning, etc., is granted; the latter, however, applying only to houses built in the years 1921, 1922, and 1923. The contracting parties may not charge rent exceeding an amount calculated to give a 9% return on the capital invested in the construction of the building. They are further required to attend to and pay the cost of upkeep of such buildings. At the end of the 25-year period the buildings pass into the control and ownership of the municipality without any indemnity to the concessionaires. In certain instances the municipality may administer the property for the last five years of the contract period."—*Housing Betterment, Jan., 1922, pp. 57-58.*

"The Federal and Municipal governments are taking action to relieve the shortage of houses in Rio de Janeiro. A bill has been introduced in the Chamber of Deputies, providing for a special bond issue of \$50,000,000 for the construction of houses for working people. In the municipal council a measure was presented providing that all workers' houses built in the next two years be free from the usual municipal taxes. The federal bill proposes the construction, under the municipal administration, of 20,000 houses in various districts of the capital wherever land is available. It is intended that the houses shall be sold to heads of working families, payment being spread over a period of 20 years. The bill also provides for the construction of two huge apartment houses, for families and for bachelors, respectively, with common kitchens and other communal installations, the rent being placed at a very low figure."—*American Architect, October 13, 1920, p. 484.*

"A Peruvian law, dated December 28, 1918, details a plan to build 100 workmen's dwellings, for sale to public employees of over five years' service receiving wages of not more than 15 libras (\$75), Peruvian gold. The executive department is to sell sufficient Government land in Lima to a financial institution—either the Savings Bank of Lima (*la Caja de Ahorros de Lima*) preferably, or a combination of the National Insurance Companies (*Compañías Nacionales de Seguros*) in Lima under the Mortgage Trust Company (*Credito Hipotecario del Peru*)—which will build the houses according to plans and estimates approved by the executive department. The price of the houses is stipulated as 'the value invested in land and construction.' They will be sold on terms of either 10 or 20 years, 5 per cent cash payment, and balance in monthly payments. These monthly payments will include, beside principal, 6 per cent interest per year, a fixed charge or commission of 1 per cent per year, and an aliquot part payment of a fire insurance premium. If the buyer desires to insure the property to his family, an aliquot part payment on life insurance is included in his monthly payments. The houses are sold on lease contracts, the titles not passing until full payment has been made; and until full title has been acquired, the buyer is not permitted to dispose of a house except through the institution that built it. Bonds may be issued by the building institution in the amounts and with the guaranties stipulated in existing laws on the subject. All contracts and procedure required by this law are free from the usual taxes and fees that are required for registration, stamps, papers, and incomes, and shall remain exempt from any such imposts laid in the future. The Government guarantees the capital invested in these 100 houses, the 6 per cent annual interest on the same, and the fixed charge of 1 per cent per year."—United

States Department of Labor (*Monthly Labor Review*, Oct., 1919, p. 283).

Switzerland.—“*La Vie Urbaine* publishes the following statement of the housing situation in Switzerland. ‘The effect of the War on the housing situation in Switzerland was identical with that observed in Holland. Together with a greatly increased demand for housing facilities on account of numerous refugees and wounded, came a suspension of construction due to the mobilization of the army. In addition, Switzerland by reason of its peculiar location geographically and politically, had to increase considerably its own governmental activities and at the same time provide quarters for the greatly enlarged staffs of the agencies of other governments. The natural consequence of this state of affairs was an all around increase of rents, and the disappearance of the normal percentage of “empties.” At Zurich, this difficulty was met in part by activities of a Housing Bureau (*Wohnungsnachweis*), under the Hygiene Department, which publishes regularly a bulletin giving statistics on current standard rentals and lists of vacancies. Since August, 1918, the declaration of empty apartments has been compulsory. Similar housing bureaus are to be found in many other Swiss cities, notably Bâle and Berne, where the organizations date from 1911 and 1910 respectively. Building is seen to be, here as elsewhere, the only way out, and the obstacles are the same, namely, the high cost of materials and labor, and the difficulties of financing. Municipal building is not unknown in Switzerland. The city of Lausanne has built and manages a certain number of workingmen’s dwellings. Some of these were built in 1904-1905, and are said to pay 4 to 5%; others built more recently (1917-1918) paying only 3%. These dwellings are provided with water, gas and electricity. The city bears the expense of water supply and of lighting the hallways of tenements. A recent development of importance in Switzerland is the organization of the *Union Suisse pour L’Amélioration du Logement*. This is a Society whose object is given as “Housing reform from social, hygienic, technical and economic viewpoints, with especial emphasis on encouraging the construction of pleasant healthful homes of substantial value.” It has an extensive program, including such items as the organization of expositions, conferences and competitions, the preparation of model codes, the establishment of a bureau of information and advice on housing problems, aid in procuring improved legislation, campaigns against land speculation, coöperation with other similar societies and the publication of periodicals.”—*Housing Betterment*, Apr., 1922, pp. 155-157.

United States: Fluctuation in construction.—Federal legislation.—“The beginning of the present housing shortage in the United States dates back to the year 1907, since which date less and less cubic feet of construction has been available per person. The low water mark was reached in November, 1918, when construction was but 4 per cent of normal. During the succeeding months construction gradually picked up and reached its maximum in October, 1919. Authorities agree that during the gradual slowing down of construction from 1907 to 1919, the United States fell behind at least one year in its building output and that it will take several years, under favorable conditions, to make this shortage good. . . . It was estimated by the United States Labor Department at the close of the war that the United States was in need of a million homes. General construction for the year 1919 was prob-

ably slightly above normal, being about 25 per cent above the average for the past five years, and totaling two and a half billion dollars for the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio river compared with an average of two billion in present day prices, for the past five years. Two-thirds of this construction was undertaken during the last half of the year. . . . Residential construction for the year 1919 in the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio Rivers (roughly, a billion dollars) was 36 per cent of the total in that area and included from 100,000 to 125,000 of the higher grades of residential buildings of all kinds. The revival of construction, however encouraging, does not seem yet to have relieved conditions or at the present rate to promise to do so, although, unlike the English situation, the conditions apparently are not growing worse. The work of the Housing Corporation was small in volume and had no appreciable effect upon the housing situation in general except to point the way in an admirable manner. It was not until March, 1918, that Congress authorized the Shipping Board to spend money for housing purposes. It was not until July, 1918, that the newly authorized Housing Corporation was permitted to spend the funds appropriated. The Act provided for emergency war housing and recommended the employment of the Supervising Architect. . . . There has been little criticism as to the quality or design of the permanent construction, except that it was too good. . . . For nearly eighty years the United States has followed a program that has never deviated from the idea that beneficiaries of legislation should be enabled to acquire property through their own labor. These laws have covered rural homes and culminated in the Farm Loan Bank Bill. . . . The first Redemption Law was enacted in 1841 and contained all the elements that made the later Homestead Law so notable. Subsequent enactments were as follows: Act of 1843 amending the Act of 1841 to prevent fraud; Act of 1853 extending preemption to reserved sections of railroad grants and allowing payments to be made in soldiers’ land-grant warrants; Act of 1854, granting all rights of preemption to bona fide settlers of railroad lands. The act of 1862, known as the Homestead Law, allowed every citizen over 21, who was the head of a family, to take up either 80 or 160 acres of surveyed public lands upon the payment of \$1.25 per acre, except in certain Southern states, where 40 to 80 were the limits. The conditions of the law required actual residence and certain work to be done for a prescribed period. . . . The Act of 1864 allowed soldiers to file proofs of claim if in service; the Act of 1866 put the exempted land in Southern states under the provisions of the Homestead Law; the Act of 1874, known as The Timber Culture Law, by which the homesteader obtained title at the end of three years, if for two years he had one acre planted with trees, for each sixteen acres of his holding. Other legislation is the Act of 1877, known as the Desert Land Act, relating especially to irrigable lands, the Act of 1878, relating to stone and timber lands, and the Kincaid Act of 1904, also relating to irrigable lands. The Farm Loan Act of July 17, 1916, made it possible for farmers to borrow money from a specially organized Federal banking institution for the purchase and development of farming lands, the necessary money to be obtained by the banks from the sale of tax-exempted bonds. The Calder, Nolen and Hill Bills provide for the lending of money to people who desire to build their own homes, the

money to be supplied through a Federal banking institution especially created for that purpose, the money to be procured by the banks through the public sale of bonds secured by real estate mortgages of the individual borrowers and guaranteed by the building and loan associations or other banking institutions with which the borrowers were doing business. . . . During the months of January, February, and March, 1919, the activity of the building industry was promoted through an educational campaign by the U. S. Department of Labor, and during the months of April, May, and June, the construction of public works was encouraged by the U. S. Department."—F. T. Miller, *Housing situation in England and the United States*, pp. 19-20, 25-26.

**United States: National Housing Association.**  
—Government housing during the World War.  
—Congressional inquiry.—One of the manifestations of the interest current in housing conditions in the United States prior to the World War was the founding in 1910, in New York, of the National Housing Association. The organization is supported by private funds, and publishes a quarterly, *Housing Betterment*. These are its purposes: 1. To improve housing conditions, both urban and suburban, in every practicable way; 2. To bring home to each community the importance of right housing conditions and the consequences of bad ones; 3. To study in various cities the causes of the drift of the population into the cities, and the methods by which the population may be distributed over larger areas; 4. To encourage the formation of improved housing associations where they do not exist, and to aid in the work of all such associations by advice and direction; 5. To act as a clearing house of information for such agencies, and to furnish advice and suggestions to those interested in housing reform, and generally to promote popular interest in the subject; 6. To aid in the enactment and enforcement of laws that will—*a.* Prevent the erection of unfit types of dwellings; *b.* Encourage the erection of proper ones; *c.* Secure their proper maintenance and management; *d.* Bring about a reasonable and practicable improvement of the older buildings; *e.* Secure reasonable, scientific and economic buildings laws; 7. To aid in defending such laws when once enacted, from the attacks of adverse interests, and in correcting them from time to time to suit changing conditions and meet new needs as they develop; 8. To train and equip workers for the various phases of housing reform work.

As soon as the effect of the World War in causing the concentration, often temporary, of industry in certain centers had become noticeable, it was evident that special effort would be necessary to provide dwellings for the increased number of workers in those centers, particularly in the case of the munition and shipbuilding industries. (See BOSTON: 1917-1919; WASHINGTON, D. C.: 1917-1920.) On October 9, 1917, a committee on housing was appointed by the Council of National Defense, with Otto M. Eidlitz as chairman. During that fall the United States Shipping Board set aside \$10,000,000 for the construction of houses at the Hog Island plant and undertook housing developments at other shipbuilding centers. An act of March 1, 1918, authorized the Emergency Fleet Corporation to acquire land, construct houses, and undertake similar business, and appropriated \$50,000,000 for that work. Later the sum of \$45,000,000 was added to that fund and A. Merritt Taylor was made housing director. Other work along this line was done for a while by the Hous-

ing Branch of the Ordnance Department, but was later taken over by the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation. This bureau was formed within the Department of Labor in February; in June an appropriation of \$60,000,000 of which \$10,000,000 was reserved for housing in Washington, D. C., made possible its activity. Later the appropriation was increased by \$40,000,000. On July 9, 1918, the United States Housing Corporation was incorporated under the laws of the state of New York. Congress appropriated \$100,000,000 for its work. By September, building projects had been undertaken in sixty-five communities. After the signing of the armistice only the well advanced projects were completed. The housing corporation made its report December 3, 1918. "An important step looking toward the solution of the serious problem presented by the acute, nation-wide housing shortage was taken by the Senate on April 17 [1920] when it passed a resolution introduced by Senator Calder of New York (S. Res. 350) providing for the appointment of a Senate Committee to investigate and report upon it. . . . Vice-President Marshall . . . appointed the following Committee: Senator William M. Calder of New York, Chairman, and Senators Kenyon of Iowa, Walcott of Delaware, Edge of New Jersey and Gay of Louisiana."—*Housing Betterment*, May, 1920.

**United States: Industrial housing.—Company housing in bituminous coal fields.**—"The vast increase in the population of Akron, Ohio, during the last few years, has caused evil housing conditions, and has forced many of the employees of the Firestone Rubber and Tire Co. to sleep in unhealthy surroundings. To overcome this condition so far as possible, the company purchased a plot of ground, called it 'Firestone Park,' and proceeded to improve it and erect homes at reasonable purchase rates for its employees. Their scheme is worked out along these lines. The workers purchase the lots or houses by a payment of five per cent. with their order, after which they make monthly payments of one per cent. Out of this one per cent. the company pays interest on the investment, insurance and taxes. The houses are erected by a real estate company formed by the company as a subsidiary corporation, if the workers so desire, and are sold to them at a [price] . . . which is based on actual cost. Any persons other than employees desiring to make purchases are allowed to do so, but must pay ten per cent. more and also have to pay ten per cent. down with their purchase. This scheme enables the workers of this company to own their own homes. . . . The American Blower Company of Detroit, Mich., has undertaken to aid its employees to buy their own homes, through arranging to lend the difference between the amount that can be realized on a first mortgage and the cost of erecting the house. Suppose an employee was able to put up about 25 per cent. in cash, he may then borrow 60 per cent. from a Savings and Loan Society and the company will advance the remainder through the Society, making one mortgage cover the two loans. The loans are paid off on the usual building and loan rate of one per cent. a month, which is about equal to the rent the employee would be paying for his house in that city.

"The City of Cleveland, Ohio, is another city that has worked out a plan to help home buyers. A threefold combination of a bureau of the Chamber of Commerce, some local banks and building and loan associations has been made whereby the home builder will be assured that the home he

has purchased is 'up to specifications.' The Bureau which has been established for this purpose, composed of architects, engineers and construction experts, will pass upon all the plans for all homes and apartments, determining whether they are suitable in design and floor plan, in quality of material, in permanence of value and in neighborhood. This helps determine the amount to be loaned upon the buildings and acts as a guarantee to the mortgagee. If the plan proves successful it may be extended to office and factory buildings, and thus put a check on expensive building costs brought about by the superabundance of middlemen in building operations. A definite policy of making it easy for their employees to own their own homes is at the bottom of a simple plan followed by Eastman, Gardiner & Co., of Laurel, Miss. When an employee informs the company that he wishes to have a home of his own he is allowed to select a lot, and is given advice in regard to the building plans. Having selected a design, the company contracts for the erection of the house at an agreed price. When it is completed the home is turned over to the employee, who is given from three to five years to pay for it in monthly installments, with six per cent. interest. These houses are of attractive design, situated on a good sized piece of ground allowing ample room for gardens. In case of death or inability to continue payments, whatever money has been paid in is returned and the house reverts to the company. This plan has worked out to the entire satisfaction of everyone concerned, and practically all of the company's employees of the better paid class own their own homes."—W. G. Castle, *Solving the housing problem (Industrial Management, Dec., 1920)*.—"The Merchant Shipbuilding Corporation was early to recognize the economic fact that proper housing of mechanics is a necessity in the stabilizing of labor and industrial progress. No sooner had work begun on the great shipyard plant at Bristol than the Corporation began to lay plans for a comprehensive housing development to take care of the social needs of its workmen and their families. A building program was determined on which departs radically from that followed in many industrial developments where unsightly views of dwellings possessing no architectural merit, frequently not well planned, greet the eye, and often develop into slums in which the tenants have no pride in their homes or surroundings. . . . To avoid the waste and unsatisfactory results incident to construction of temporary barracks, frames and covering were erected for buildings which could, after their temporary occupancy by construction forces, be completed into substantial and permanent form for the shipbuilders who would follow. A general plan was then laid out providing for all usual and necessary community facilities, including schools, stores, restaurants, churches, playgrounds, and parks, as well as various types of buildings for housing bachelors and families of all classes of employees, from the common labor type to skilled mechanics, foremen, superintendents and executive forces. This plan has been consistently followed, and provides for an equitable and appropriate distribution of the various types of buildings. . . . This town is a splendid object lesson to large industrial communities as to what can and should be done to make their employees comfortable."—C. H. Pratt, *Bristol, Pennsylvania (Homes for Workmen, pp. 126, 131)*.—"An increase in population variously estimated at from 5,000 to 10,000, due to the labor demands of the New York Air Brake Company and the new gov-

ernment plant just completed,' is complicating the housing situation in Watertown. The initial efforts to meet the situation include a canvass of the residential districts to ascertain the whereabouts of vacant houses and of available rooming quarters. . . . Work . . . was started . . . by Charles E. Marshall, an Albany contractor, on 25 houses . . . near the new gun cartridge plant of the New York Air Brake Co. . . . An appropriation for improving the streets of this new residential section has been made by the Common Council."—*Housing Betterment, Dec., 1917, p. 67*.

In the latter part of 1916 the Bureau of Labor Statistics completed a comprehensive survey of housing by employers in the United States. This investigation comprised communities maintained by coal mining companies in Western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Colorado, and Wyoming and included almost exclusively the better types of communities. Certain facts stand out as a result of this study, namely: "1. The responsibility for the housing of a large proportion of the miners has been undertaken by the mine operators. The isolation of the average mining town, its dependence upon the one industry of mining, and frequently its impermanence and almost universal lack of local self-government, as well as the shifting character of the labor force, have compelled the mine owner to assume that responsibility. 2. The average company mining town has few of the amenities of ordinary community life. There is a dull uniformity in the appearance of the houses and an absence of trees and natural vegetation. Streets and alleys are open dirt roads almost without exception. Sidewalks are very rare. 3. The miner's house is without the ordinary inside conveniences found in the house of the city worker. Less than two per cent of the homes in the bituminous coal regions have inside toilets, and running water is rare. Stoves and grates are depended upon for heating. 4. The average house of the miner includes about four rooms, in which he must accommodate a family and frequently take in boarders when there is a housing shortage. 5. The rents of the miners' houses are comparatively low, most of them (12,343 out of 18,377, or 65.4 per cent) renting in 1916 for less than 8 dollars per month. The rent in some instances probably constitutes a subsidy to the wages of the miner who lives in a company house."—L. Magnusson, *Company housing in the bituminous coal fields (Monthly Labor Review, Apr., 1920)*.

United States: New York state legislation.—Housing conditions in New York City.—Lockwood Committee inquiry.—Results.—"Besides the action taken by the Federal government several of the states have in time past made efforts to aid people in securing homes. The State Land Bank Act of New York is an example of judicious legislation. This measure provided a means whereby the assets of the building and loan associations of the State were made available for new loans to be expended on dwellings. Although the bank had functioned but three years, at the outbreak of the war it had issued bonds to the extent of \$700,000, which had been taken up by savings banks as a gilt-edge investment for their funds. The imposition of a Federal Tax on the income of these bonds killed their use and prevented the sale of similar issues. Thus the war activities of the Federal government cut off this source of aid to the home builder. In the matter of municipal housing New York City has always been in the van. Although the word 'tenement' does not appear in the records until

1862, it is evident that the problems which the tenements represent run back for at least a century, as in 1827 the physicians of New York City complained of the crowding and unsanitary conditions existing in certain parts of the city. In 1834 Dr. John H. Griscoon issued a report on the housing conditions. In 1846 there was an attempt to inspire private enterprise to improve conditions through competitions in plans for model houses. Conditions, however, grew worse just prior to the Civil War, and at its close New York City experienced a building shortage as recorded in the *Record and Guide* of March 21, 1867. In parts of the city the rent of stores and offices rose 100 to 150 per cent, while 'as for dwellings, not more than one-fiftieth of the applicants can be supplied.' In 1885 an efficient tenement housing law was enacted, which, with later legislation, has made New York City the most healthful of great cities. During the past year special committees appointed by the State Legislature, the Governor of New York State and the Mayor of New York City, have been considering the housing shortage, but the action of none of them has so far increased the supply of housing."—F. T. Miller, *Housing situation in England and the United States*, p. 27.—"That rent profiteering should be regulated without hampering the ownership of property is the attitude taken by the Real Estate Board in New York, according to advices from the State capital. The legislative representative of this board is quoted as saying, 'The housing situation in New York City and in every city in the United States is acute. The high wages forced by organized labor has drawn heavily upon the country workers and has overcrowded the cities. In New York State alone there are over 25,000 vacant farm houses as a result of the drift toward the cities, whereas, in contrast, in New York City 200,000 apartments are needed to meet the demand.' Crowded conditions necessitated the construction of 50,000 apartments in 1919 and 1920 in New York City, yet last year only 1,183 new apartments were built. In 1915 there were 934,822 apartments in Greater New York; in 1919 there were 982,015, an increase of only about 48,000 in five years."—*American Architect*, Apr. 14, 1920, p. 470.—A housing and building inquiry was begun October 20, 1920, and continued in 1921, by the joint state legislative committee on housing, of which Senator Charles Lockwood was chairman, and Mr. Samuel Untermyer chief counsel. Among the evils disclosed by the investigation were extortion of money from contractors and of unreasonable dues from building workers, trust control of building material prices, and collusive bidding on a good many contracts for public buildings in New York City. Eventually several convictions were secured. "On December 20th, last, representatives of the Building Trades Unions in New York met with Samuel Untermyer, counsel for the Lockwood Committee, and agreed to most of the demands which the Committee had made on the unions in the interest of better conditions. . . . Following this action in New York, Attorney-General Daugherty in Washington on February 24th entered into an agreement with the representatives of the Bricklayers' International Union in the form of a 'consent decree' entered in the United States Court in New York. . . . The Federal Government was on the point of prosecuting the unions on charges of conspiracy to restrict production, to force payments of questionable fines and claims, intimidation of workmen to the end that they reduce their effort, and practices which amounted to boycotting makes of materials. The

chief features of this agreement may be summarized as follows: 1. There is to be no limit to the productive capacity of the individual workmen within the working day or any other time. 2. There is to be no limit upon the right of the employers to purchase their material wherever and whenever and from whomever they may choose, whether those materials be union-made or otherwise. 3. There is to be no favoritism shown by labor toward employer or trade associations and no discriminations are to be indulged in against the independent employer who may not be a member of such an organization. 4. The labor organization is not to be used, or permit itself to be used, by material men or contractors or subcontractors as an instrument for the collection of debts or enforcement of alleged claims. . . . In the meantime the New York legislature has given a new lease of life to the Lockwood Committee which was responsible for the enactment of the New York rent laws, and a chain of new legislation, 9 bills in all, has been passed at the session of the New York legislature which has recently ended [written in April, 1922]. Influenced by the Report of the Lockwood Committee and from statements that there are still needed in New York City 80,000 low-priced homes for 400,000 people, the legislature has responded . . . to the Committee's recommendations and has practically enacted into law all of the recommendations which had a direct bearing upon the rent control situation. . . . A series of very important measures have been enacted by the legislature, notwithstanding the fact that the Lockwood Committee did not introduce its measures until almost the closing days of the legislative session. Of the bills which passed, one of the chief ones was that permitting life insurance companies to invest 10% of their assets in the erection of buildings for dwelling purposes. This was intended primarily to enable the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company to invest \$100,000,000 in model dwellings, the rentals for which cannot exceed \$9 a room per month under the terms of the bill. While this measure has been very widely heralded by its sponsors, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has given no assurance that it will invest its funds in such a project, especially in view of the fact that the possibility of a profitable investment in New York City, at the maximum rentals fixed by law at the present time, with the prices that control for building labor and building materials, is extremely doubtful. A second measure enacted by the legislature was that extending the present emergency rent laws until February 15, 1924. Another extends the time within which new buildings in New York City may be erected and secure the benefits of tax exemption under the present tax exemption law. This time has been extended one year so that new dwellings erected before April first, 1923, may avail themselves of the tax exemption privileges, provided they comply with the other conditions of the tax exemption law."—*Housing Betterment*, Apr., 1922, pp. 179-181.—See also U.S.A.: 1921: Housing problem.

See also CITY PLANNING; CIVIC BEAUTY; PUBLIC HEALTH.

ALSO IN: *Report of the Toronto Housing Company, Ltd.*, 1913.—*State loans for cheap dwellings in France* (*Monthly Labor Review*, Feb., 1920).—Current files of *Réforma Sociale* and *La Vie Urbaine*.—T. C. Horsfall, *Dwellings in Berlin* (*Town Planning Review*, 1915, pp. 10-10).—R. Unwin, *Nations' new houses*.—Current files of the *Municipal Journal*.—C. Aronovici, *Housing and the housing problem*.—L. Veiller, *Housing reform*:

*Model housing law.*—E. Bournaker, *Housing of the working classes.*—G. W. W. Hanger, *Housing of working people in United States by employers.*—M. T. Reynolds, *Housing of the poor in American cities.*—A. F. Bacon, *Beauty for ashes.*—W. G. Savage, *Rural housing.*—H. B. Bashoe, *Overcrowding and defective housing in the rural districts.*—E. E. Wood, *Housing of the unskilled wage earner.*—L. H. Allen, *Home building for wage earners.*—W. A. Hamlin, *Low-cost cottage construction in America* (Harvard University).—M. Knowles, *Industrial housing.*—J. Robertson, *Housing and the public health.*—*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Jan., 1914.—Publications of the National Housing Association.—Lockwood Committee inquiry (*Nation*, Nov. 17, Dec. 29, 1920, July 6, 1921.—*Survey*, Jan. 1, 1921.—*New Republic*, Jan. 12, 26, 1921).

**HOUSING OF THE WORKING CLASSES ACT, England.** See **HOUSING: Great Britain: Legislation.**

**HOUSTON, David Franklin** (1866- ), American educator and cabinet officer. President of the university of Texas, 1905-1908; chancellor of Washington university, St. Louis, 1908-1916; secretary of agriculture in President Wilson's cabinet, 1913-1920; secretary of treasury, February, 1920-March, 1921. See U.S.A.: 1919-1920.

**HOUSTON, George Smith** (1811-1879), governor of Alabama, 1874-1878. See **ALABAMA: 1874.**

**HOUSTON, Sam** (1793-1863), American soldier and governor. Served in the United States army, 1813; Indian agent among the Cherokees, 1817-1818; adjutant-general of Tennessee, 1819; member of House of Representatives, 1823-1827; governor of Tennessee, 1827-1829; commander-in-chief of Texan army, 1836; president of Texas, 1836-1838, 1841-1844; United States senator, 1846-1859; governor of Texas, 1859-1861. See **TEXAS: 1835-1836; 1836-1854; U.S.A.: 1841-1844.**

**HOUTHULST FOREST**, wood in Belgium, five miles southeast of Dixmude. In 1914, during the World War, the Belgians and French were driven out by the Germans; its borders were reached by the British in their 1917 offensive; in 1918 it was finally retaken by the Allies. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: q.**

**HOVAS**, powerful middle-class tribe of Madagascar, of Malayo-Indonesian origin. See **MADAGASCAR: Area.**

**HOVERING ACT, England.** See **TARIFF: 1784-1786.**

**HOWARD, Bronson** (1842-1908), American dramatist. See **DRAMA: 1865-1913.**

**HOWARD, Frank Key** (1826-1872), American journalist. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1861-1865.**

**HOWARD, Sir Henry** (1843-1921), British diplomat. Minister at The Hague and Luxembourg, 1896-1908; minister plenipotentiary in British mission to the pope, 1914-1916. See **PAPACY: 1915.**

**HOWARD, John** (1726-1790), English philanthropist. As high sheriff of Bedfordshire he became interested in prison reforms, and undertook an investigation of the prisons throughout Europe. Through his instrumentality laws were passed in Great Britain in 1774, improving the sanitary conditions of the prisons and abolishing jailors' fees. He also inspected the infection hospitals of Europe. The results of his investigations appeared in his "State of the Prisons in England and Wales, with . . . an Account of some Foreign Prisons" and in his "Account of the Principal Lazarettos in Europe." See **PRISON REFORM: Howard and Beccaria.**

**HOWARD, Oliver Otis** (1830-1909), American general. Commander of brigade at the battle of Bull Run; participated at Gettysburg and in Atlanta campaigns; commander of Army of the Tennessee, 1864, which he led on the "March to the Sea"; promoter of welfare of freedmen; president of Howard university, 1869-1873; superintendent of West Point, 1881-1882. See **ARIZONA: 1877; IDAHO: 1869-1878; U.S.A.: 1865-1866.**

**HOWARD, Thomas, 1st Earl of Arundel, Earl of Surrey and 2nd Duke of Norfolk** (1443-1524), English commander. Defeated Scotland's invading army at Flodden Field, 1513. See **SCOTLAND: 1513: Battle of Flodden.**

**HOWARD, Thomas, 2nd Earl of Arundel, Earl of Surrey and of Norfolk** (1586-1646), celebrated patron of the arts. Presided at the trial of Strafford, 1641; gathered a large collection of paintings; also made a valuable collection of coins, books, statues and inscribed marbles; the latter, known as the Arundel marbles, were presented to Oxford University in 1667 by the heirs of the estate.

**HOWARD OF EFFINGHAM, Charles, 2nd Baron.** See **NOTTINGHAM, CHARLES HOWARD.**

**HOWAT, Alexander A.**, "the czar of the Kansas coal fields." See **ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1920-1921: Kansas court, etc.**

**HOWE, Elias** (1810-1867), American inventor. See **INVENTIONS: 19th century: Sewing machine.**

**HOWE, Frederick Clemson** (1867- ), American author and lecturer on economic and sociological subjects. Commissioner of immigration at port of New York, 1914-1919. See **U.S.A.: 1919 (September-December).**

**HOWE, George Augustus, Viscount** (1724-1758), British general. Was killed at Ticonderoga, New York. See **CANADA: 1758.**

**HOWE, Joseph** (1804-1873), Canadian statesman and orator. Prosecuted for libelling magistrates of Halifax, 1835; member of Nova Scotia legislature, 1836-1863; commissioner of railways, 1854; provincial premier, 1863; entered cabinet of Sir John Macdonald, 1869; appointed lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, 1873. See **NOVA SCOTIA: 1867.**

**HOWE, Julia Ward** (1810-1910), American poet and miscellaneous writer. Wrote the "Battle Hymn of the Republic," 1861; one of the organizers of the American Woman's Suffrage Association, 1869; delegate to the Prison Reform Congress in London, 1872, where she founded the Woman's Peace Association.

**HOWE, Richard, Earl** (1726-1709), British admiral. Served in the West Indies, the American Revolution, and the war against France in 1793-1794. See **U.S.A.: 1776 (August); FRANCE: 1794 (March-July).**

**HOWE, Robert** (1732-1785), American soldier and patriot. Served in the assembly and provincial congresses; major-general in command of the Department of the South, 1777. See **U.S.A.: 1778-1779: War carried into the South.**

**HOWE, Samuel Gridley** (1801-1876), American philanthropist. Superintendent of Perkins Institution for the Blind, 1832-1876; commissioner to Santo Domingo, 1871. See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble minded: Blind.**

**HOWE, William, 5th Viscount** (1729-1814), British general. Served with Wolfe in Canada; appointed lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Wight, 1768; commander-in-chief in America, 1775; fought in the battles of Bunker Hill, Long Island, White Plains, Brandywine and German-



town. See U.S.A.: 1775 (April-May); (June); 1776 (August); (September-November); 1776-1777: Washington's retreat through New Jersey; 1777 (January-December); 1778 (June).

**HOWELL CODE**, laws adopted by the Arizona legislature. See ARIZONA: 1864 (November).

**HOWELLS**, William Dean (1837-1920), American novelist and man of letters. United States consul at Venice, 1861-1865; editor of *Atlantic Monthly*, *Cosmopolitan Magazine*, and *Harper's Magazine*. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1894-1895.

**HOXIE**, C. A., American inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Wireless or radio: 1918-1920.

**HRINGS OF THE AVARS**. See AVARS, RINGS OF THE.

**HROLF**. See ROLLO.

**HSUAN-TUNG (Pu-Yi)** (1905- ), emperor of China, 1908-1912. See CHINA: 1908 (November); 1912 (January).

**HSU SHIH-CH'ANG** (1853- ), Chinese statesman. President of China, 1918-1922. See CHINA: 1917-1918; 1920; 1922 (June).

**HSU SHU-TSENG** (Little Hsu), Chinese militarist leader, driven from power, 1920. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties; Failure of victorious generals to unite China.

**HUALAPAI**, or Walapai, American aboriginal tribe of the Yuman stock. See APACHE GROUP.

**HUAN SHI-KAI**. See YUAN SHI-KAI.

**HUANCAS**, aborigines of Peru. See PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas.

**HUANGCHOW LIBRARY**. See LIBRARIES: Modern: China.

**HUA SANG**, Massacre at. See CHINA: 1895 (August).

**HUASTECS**, American aboriginal tribe of eastern Mexico. See MAYAS.

**HUAYNA CAPAC**, or Huaina Capac (1450-1525), eleventh and greatest Inca ruler of Peru. See PERU: Empire of the Incas; ECUADOR: Aboriginal kingdom of Quito.

**HUBALDUS**. See HUCBALD.

**HUBBARD**, John (1849- ), American naval officer. See U. S. A.: 1914-1921.

**HUBERTI**, Gustave Léon (1843-1911), Belgian composer. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalities: The Netherlands: Belgium.

**HUBERTUSBURG**, Peace of (1763). See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war; GERMANY: 1761-1762.

**HUCBALD**, or Hubaldus (c. 840-c. 930), Benedictine monk. Wrote "Harmonica Institutio," a treatise on music containing his system of part writing. Copies of this treatise (the only known work of his preserved) are in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris and in Corpus Christi college, Cambridge, England. See MUSIC: Medieval: 900-1050.

**HUCH**, Ricarda (1864- ), German novelist. See GERMAN LITERATURE: 1900-1922.

**HUDSON**, George (1800-1871), English financier, known as the "Railway king." See RAILROADS: 1750-1831.

**HUDSON**, Henry (d. 1611), English explorer and navigator. See AMERICA: 1607-1608; 1609; also Map showing voyages of discovery; ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1527-1773; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

**HUDSON**, revenue cutter, in action during the Spanish-American War. See REVENUE-CUTTER SERVICE.

**HUDSON BAY**, in northeastern British America, forming a link between the Atlantic and Arctic oceans. It is 1,300 miles long and 600 miles wide. See CANADA: Geographical description.

**HUDSON RIVER**, in New York state, rising in the Adirondacks and flowing into New York bay.

Sighted by Verrazano.—Hudson's voyage. See AMERICA: 1524; 1609.

Aborigines of the valley. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

Early Dutch settlements along the banks. See NEW YORK: 1621-1640.

Struggle for possession during the American Revolution. See U. S. A.: 1776 (August); (September-November); 1777 (July-October); 1778-1779: Washington guarding the Hudson.

**HUDSON TUNNEL**. See NEW YORK CITY: 1919-1923; NEW JERSEY: 1909.

**HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION**, commemorating the discovery of the Hudson river in 1609, and the beginning of steam navigation in 1809. See NEW YORK: 1909.

**HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY**, British company formed for the purpose of fur trading with the Indians in North America. It was chartered in 1670. See CANADA: 1670.

1807-1866.—Strength in British Northwest.—Control of Vancouver.—War with the settlers.—Claims to Oregon.—American and British methods of colonization. See CANADA: 1805-1866; 1811-1816; OREGON: 1749-1859; 1818-1846; BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1858-1871.

1868.—Transfer of territory, privileges and rights to the Dominion of Canada. See CANADA: 1869-1873.

**HUE**, Treaty of (1884). See INDO-CHINA: 1787-1801.

**HUECOS**, or Wacos, aboriginal tribe of Texas. See PAWNEE FAMILY.

**HUERTA**, Victoriano (1854-1916), Mexican president. Suppressed insurgents under Orozco in Madero's regime; conducted the defense of the Maderistas against Diaz; accused of being the instigator of the murder of Madero, 1912; proclaimed himself provisional president of Mexico, 1913. The refusal of the United States government to recognize him as president greatly weakened his hold, and he was forced to resign, 1914; went to Spain the same year; came to the United States, 1915, where he was arrested on the charge of fomenting a revolution against Mexico. See MEXICO: 1910-1913; 1913-1914; U.S.A.: 1913 (October); 1914 (April); A.B.C. CONFERENCE: Mediation.

**HUGH CAPET** (c. 938-996), king of France, 987-996. Founder of the Capetian dynasty. See FRANCE: 877-987; 987.

**HUGH DE LUSIGNAN**, or Hugh III, king of Cyprus, 1267-1285. See JERUSALEM: 1201.

**HUGH THE GREAT** (d. 956 A.D.), French nobleman, son of King Robert. See BURGUNDY: 888-1032.

**HUGH THE GREAT**, of Vermandois (d. 1102), French nobleman, brother of King Philip I, one of the leaders of the first Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099; 1101-1102.

**HUGHES**, Charles Evans (1862- ), American jurist and statesman. Counsel for various committees of New York legislature, 1905-1906; governor of New York, 1907-1910; associate justice of United States Supreme Court, 1910-1916; Republican candidate for president, 1916; appointed chairman of Draft Appeals Board of New York City, 1917; secretary of state in President Harding's cabinet since March, 1921. See NEW YORK: 1906-1910; U.S.A.: 1909 (July); 1916 (February-November); 1921 (March): President Harding's cabinet.

Note to Panama in regard to boundary dispute. See COSTA RICA: 1914-1918.

Discussion on state objections to woman suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851-1920.

Declaration against expulsion of Socialist legislators. See NEW YORK: 1920.

Air service report. See U. S. A.: 1918 (February-October).

Refusal to aid Russia. See U. S. A.: 1921 (March): Note from Soviet government.

Communications with Germany refusing mediation on reparations question. See U. S. A.: 1921 (April-May): German appeal for mediation.

First American recognition of the Permanent Court of International Justice. See INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF.

Rejection of Polish appeal for support in Silesian controversy. See U. S. A.: 1921 (May): Hughes rejects Polish appeal.

Reply to allied invitation to Genoa Conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

Chairman at Washington conference. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

**HUGHES, David Edward** (1831-1900), Anglo-American electrical inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

**HUGHES, Sir Samuel** (1853-1921), Canadian soldier and statesman. Elected to the Dominion Parliament, 1892; served in South African War, 1899-1900; became minister of militia and defence, 1911; served in World War in France, 1914-1915.

**HUGHES, William Morris** (1864- ), Australian statesman. Minister for external affairs, 1904; delegate to the Imperial Navigation Conference, 1907; attorney-general, 1908-1916; prime minister, 1915-1921; member of imperial cabinet and delegate to the Paris peace conference, 1919. See AUSTRALIA: 1917; 1919; 1919-1920; 1921; BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: a.

**HUGO, Victor Marie** (1802-1885), French poet, dramatist and novelist. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1885; DRAMA: 1800-1900.

**HUGUENOTS**.—First appearance and disputed origin of the name.—Formation of the Calvinistic Protestant party in France. See FRANCE: 1559-1561.

1528-1562.—Ascendancy in Navarre. See NAVARRE: 1528-1563.

1554-1565.—Attempted colonization in Brazil and Florida.—Massacre at Fort Caroline.—Huguenot pirates. See FLORIDA: 1562-1563; 1567-1568; BUCCANEERS: French.

1560-1598.—Religious wars in France. See FRANCE: 1560-1563; 1593-1598.

1598-1599.—Edict of Nantes. See FRANCE: 1598-1599.

1620-1622.—Their formidable organization and political pretensions.—Continued desertion of nobles.—Leadership of the clergy.—Revolt and unfavorable Treaty of Montpellier. See FRANCE: 1620-1622.

1625-1626.—Renewed revolt.—Second Treaty of Montpellier. See FRANCE: 1624-1626.

1627-1628.—War between France and England.—Huguenot revolt.—Richelieu's siege and capture of La Rochelle.—End of political Huguenotism in France. See FRANCE: 1627-1628.

1661-1680.—Revived persecution under Louis XIV. See FRANCE: 1661-1680.

1681-1698.—Climax of persecution in France.—Dragonnades.—Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.—Great Exodus. See FRANCE: 1681-1698.

1702-1710.—Camisard uprising in the Cévennes. See FRANCE: 1702-1710.

**HUI KWAN**, Chinese guild. See GUILDS: Modern times.

**HUKUANG**, name given to the combined Chinese provinces of Hup-eh and Hu-nan, situated in southeastern China. The section of the Canton-Hankow railway running through these provinces was built by British engineers and financed by British capital. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921; 1910-1917.

**HULAGU**, Huluku, or Khulagu (1217-1265), Mongol chief. Destroyed the sect of the Assassins, captured Bagdad and overthrew the Abbasid caliphate. See MONGOLIA: 1220-1294; BAGDAD: 1258; 1393-1638; ALEPPO; ASSASSINS; PERSIA: 1258-1393.

**HULDE**, basis of vassalage and the act of conferring (investiture) which established the real right of the man to the fief. See FEUDALISM: Continental growth.

**HULL, Isaac** (1775-1843), American naval officer, commanded the *Constitution* when she captured the *Guerrière* in 1812. See U.S.A.: 1812-1813; Indifference to the navy.

**HULL, William** (1753-1825), American general. Served in American Revolution and in the War of 1812; governor of Michigan Territory, 1805-1814. See U.S.A.: 1812 (June-October).

**HULL** (Kingston-upon-Hull), seaport in the East Riding of Yorkshire, England, at the confluence of the Hull and Humber.

1643.—Siege by the Royalists.—Hull, occupied by the parliamentary forces under Lord Fairfax, after their defeat at Adwalton Moor, was besieged by the Royalists under the earl of Newcastle, from September 2 until October 11, 1643, when they were driven off.—C. R. Markham, *Life of the great Lord Fairfax*, ch. 12.—See also WINCEBY FIGHT.

1893.—Dockers' strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1893.

**HULL**, city on the Ottawa river in the province of Quebec, Canada. See CITY PLANNING: Canada.

**HULLS, Jonathan** (fl. 1737), English inventor. See STEAM NAVIGATION: Beginnings.

**HULLUCH**, town of France, about ten miles southeast of Bethune. It was attacked by the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: i, 3; i, 5.

**HULSEMANN LETTER** (1850). See U. S. A. 1850-1851.

**HULST**, town in the Netherlands, about twenty miles northwest of Antwerp. In 1746 it was taken by the French. See BELGIUM: 1746-1747.

Battle of (1642). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

**HUMANISM**. See CLASSICS: Renaissance; EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Italy the center, etc.; Humanist aims in education; 17th century: Milton; ETHICS: 5th-15th centuries; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Various Italian humanists; Erasmus and the Reformation; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1348-1826; CHRISTIANITY: 11th-16th centuries; HISTORY: 22.

**HUMAYUN** (1508-1556), Mogul emperor of Delhi, succeeded his father, Baber, in 1530. Driven from India by the Afghan, Sher Shah, but regained his throne in 1555. See INDIA: 1399-1605.

**HUMBERT, Georges Louis** (1862- ), French general. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: a, 7.

**HUMBERT I** (Italian Umberto) (Ranieri Carlo Emanuele Giovanni Maria Ferdinando Eugenio) (1844-1900), king of Italy, 1878-1900. See ITALY: 1870-1901; 1899-1900; ROME: Modern city: 1871-1907.

**HUMBLE PETITION AND ADVICE** (1656), petition drawn up by Parliament in England, providing for an upper house and offering Cromwell the title of king. See ENGLAND: 1654-1658.

**HUMBOLDT, Alexander, Baron von** (1769-1859), German traveler and naturalist. Contributed directly and indirectly to many branches of science and may be considered the founder of the science of physical geography; published his first important work, "Über die Basalte am Rhein, nebst Untersuchungen über Syenit und Basanit der Alten," 1790; accompanied by Aimé Bonpland, a distinguished French scientist, he explored Venezuela, Cuba, Peru, and Mexico, 1799; published "Voyage aux régions équinoxiales du Nouveau Continent," 1807; "Kosmos," in four volumes, 1845-1858.—See also PANAMA CANAL: 1800-1850.

**HUME, David** (1711-1776), English philosopher, political economist and historian. Wrote his chief work "Treatise upon Human Nature," in three books, during his first residence in France, 1734-1737; librarian to the faculty of law in Edinburgh, 1752-1757; served as secretary to General St. Clair and later to Lord Hertford, 1763-1766; under-secretary of state, 1767-1769. His fame during his lifetime rested upon his achievements as an historian rather than upon his philosophical works. Among his other writings are "Political Discourses," "Four Dissertations," and a "History of England."—See also HISTORY: 25; DEISM: English.

**HUMPERDINCK, Engelbert** (1854-1921), German composer. Studied with Hiller, Lachner and Rheinberger; assisted Wagner at Bayreuth, 1880-1881; taught in the conservatory of Barcelona, Spain, 1885-1886; Hoch conservatory, Frankfurt, 1890; produced his fairy opera "Hänsel und Gretel," at Weimer, 1893; became director of the Meisterschule, Berlin, 1900; produced "Die Königskinder" in Metropolitan Opera House, New York, 1910. See MUSIC: Modern: 1847-1921.

**HUMPHREY, Duke of Gloucester.** See GLOUCESTER, HUMPHREY, DUKE OF.

**HUMPHREY, J. Otis** (1850-1918), American jurist. See TRUSTS: United States: 1903-1906.

**HUNDRED.**—"The union of a number of townships for the purpose of judicial administration, peace, and defence, formed what is known as the 'hundred,' or 'wapentake'; a district answering to the 'pagus' of Tacitus, the 'hærrud' of Scandinavia, the 'huntari' or 'gau' of Germany. . . . The name of the hundred, which, like the wapentake, first appears in the laws of Edgar, has its origin far back in the remotest antiquity, but the use of it as a geographical expression is discoverable only in comparatively late evidences. The 'pagus' of the Germania sent its hundred warriors to the host, and appeared by its hundred judges in the court of the 'princeps.' The Lex Salica contains abundant evidence that in the fifth century the administration of the hundred was the chief, if not the only, machinery of the Frank judicial system; and the word in one form or other enters into the constitution of all the German nations. It may be regarded then as a certain vestige of primitive organisation. But the exact relation of the territorial hundred to the hundred of the Germania is a point which is capable of, and has received, much discussion. It has been regarded as denoting simply a division of a hundred hides of land; as the district which furnished a hundred warriors to the host; as representing the original settlement of the hundred warriors; or as composed of a hundred hides, each of which furnished a single warrior. The

question is not peculiar to English history, and the same result may have followed from very different causes as probably as from the same causes, here and on the continent. It is very probable, as already stated, that the colonists of Britain arranged themselves in hundreds of warriors; it is not probable that the country was carved into equal districts. The only conclusion that seems reasonable is that, under the name of geographical hundreds, we have the variously sized pagi or districts in which the hundred warriors settled. . . . The hundred-gemot, or wapentake court, was held every month; it was called six days before the day of meeting, and could not be held on Sunday. It was attended by the lords of lands within the hundred, or their stewards representing them, and by the parish priest, the reeve, and four best men of each township. . . . The



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criminal jurisdiction of the hundred is perpetuated in the manorial court lect."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, ch. 5, sect. 45.—"By the 13th century the importance of the hundred had much diminished. The need for any such body, intermediate between township and county, ceased to be felt, and the functions of the hundred were gradually absorbed by the county. Almost everywhere in England, by the reign of Elizabeth, the hundred had fallen into decay. It is curious that its name and some of its peculiarities should have been brought to America, and should in one state have remained to the present day. Some of the early settlements in Virginia were called hundreds, but they were practically nothing more than parishes, and the name soon became obsolete, except upon the map, where we still see, for example, Bermuda Hundred. But in Maryland the hundred flourished and became the political unit, like the township in New England. [q. v.] The hundred was the

militia district, and the district for the assessment of taxes. In the earliest times it was also the representative district. . . . The hundred had also its assembly of all the people, which was in many respects like the New England town-meeting. These hundred-meetings enacted by-laws, levied taxes, appointed committees, and often exhibited a vigorous political life. But after the Revolution they fell into disuse, and in 1824 the hundred became extinct in Maryland; its organization was swallowed up in that of the county. In Delaware, however, the hundred remains to this day."—J. Fiske, *Civil government in the United States*, ch. 4, sect. 1.—See also COURTS: Early Teutonic.

**HUNDRED DAYS.**—The period of Napoleon's recovery of power in France, on his return from the Isle of Elba, and until his overthrow at Waterloo and final abdication, is often referred to as the Hundred Days. See FRANCE: 1814-1815; 1815 (June-August).

**HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (1337-1453).** See FRANCE: 1337-1360; 1360-1380; 1415; 1420-1431; 1431-1453; EUROPE: Modern: Rise of the nation state, etc.

**HUNG-SIU-TS'EUEN, or Hung-Hsiu-Chuan (1812-1864),** Hakka schoolmaster, who was the leader of the Taiping rebellion. See CHINA: 1850-1864.

## HUNGARY

**Location.** — **Area.** — **Population.** — **Geographical features.** — **Natural resources.** — "Hungary stretches from about 16° E. to 24° E., and irregularly between 45° N. and 49° N. Astride the Danube—a river which carries twice as much water as the Nile—but entirely landlocked, Hungary remains essentially a continental area, controlling the main east and west water route of Central Europe."—A. R. H. Moncrieff, *New world of to-day*, v. 2, p. 257.—Before the World War, as an integral part of the former Dual Monarchy, it covered an area of 125,600 square miles; Hungary proper had 109,188 square miles and Croatia-Slavonia 16,421. By the provisions of the Treaties of Versailles and Trianon the new Hungary is reduced to one-third of its former area (35,184 square miles), and the reduction in population corresponds to that of territory. The population, according to the census of 1921, is 7,840,832 as compared with the pre-war figures of twenty-one millions; "but the mass of the population is now more or less strictly Hungarian. Budapest is still the largest town. . . . Hungary consists of three distinct areas: (1) In the south-east, forming the mass of the country, is the Great Hungarian Alföld, or plain, with an average elevation of not more than 350 ft. It is a well-watered area, being drained by the Danube and Theiss, running in curiously parallel courses from north to south, and receiving long tributaries from the west and east, on their right and left banks respectively. (2) The Bakony Wald, with the extension as far as Miskolcz, forms a region of highland, from 1000 to 1500 ft. high, running from south-west to north-east, between the Alpine Foreland and the Carpathians, and dividing the Great Alföld to the south-east from the Little Alföld to the north-west. The region is divided into two sections by the defile of the Danube, or the Hungarian Gate, where the river breaks through to the south-eastern plain. (3) The Little Alföld lies north-west of the Bakony Wald, and east of the Alps, and is bounded approximately by the Danube to the north. It lies at an elevation of 600 ft., with a very even surface, drained by the lesser tributaries of the Danube. Hungary was and remains essentially an agricultural country, a large proportion of the area being under tillage, and nearly 70 per cent of the population, before the war, finding occupation on the land. . . . The agricultural products consist chiefly of wheat and maize. . . . Owing to the restricted area, the Hungary of to-day will not produce to the same extent, but there will still be a surplus when internal affairs are more settled. Other products include flax, hemp, tobacco, and fruits. Of the total wine yield in Austria-Hungary before the war, 72 per cent was grown in Hungary; and

though the vineyards in the new area are very much reduced, a considerable quantity is still produced and can be exported. The wine-growing areas lie in the more northerly latitudes, on the south-eastward facing slopes, near Tokay and Soforon, and the Keskemet district, which is also famous for its fruits. The pusztas of Hungary offered special facilities for the rearing of cattle and horses. . . . It is estimated that the stock of cattle has been reduced by 62 per cent, of horses by 50 per cent, and of sheep by 67 per cent. The reduced number of sheep has resulted in a serious deficiency in the supply of raw material for the woollen industry. New Hungary has lost 86 per cent of her former area of forests and woods, the oak woods being reduced by 74 per cent, the other deciduous woods by 87 per cent, and the pine woods by 95 per cent. This loss of timber involves a considerable deficiency of raw material for furniture factories, paper-works, etc., and for fuel. The change in the distribution of mineral resources is of vital importance to the future of the kingdom. Hungary is poor in carboniferous coals, but contained extensive deposits of Tertiary lignites along the Carpathians and in Transylvania in the Zill valley. Within the new territory there exist only two coal-mines of any importance, at Salgo-Tarjan, and at Pecs. There are [also] certain deposits of lignite to the north and north-west of Budapest. . . . The supplies of salt, iron and other ores, and of crude oil, which old Hungary produced in sufficient quantity to allow of export, have been almost entirely lost. Of all the iron-ore deposits (to the north-east) there remains now but one, at Witkowitz, which was neither one of the richest nor one of the largest mining areas. While the pre-war output of pig-iron amounted to 2,000,000 tons per annum (of which 500,000 tons were exported), the iron and machine factories will, under the new conditions, be entirely dependent on imports for their supplies of iron-ore."—A. R. H. Moncrieff, *New world of to-day*, v. 2, pp. 257-258.—See also DANUBE: B.C. 5th-A.D. 15th centuries.

**Ancient.** See DACIA; PANNONIA.

**Avars in possession.** See AVARS.

**Huns in possession.** See HUNS.

**Origin of the Hungarians or Magyars.**—"The Magyars, according to the finding of modern scholars, belong to the Finno-Ugrian branch of the Ural-Altai peoples. This question has already been decided by philologists, for unfortunately we have no data of an anthropological or racial character enabling us to approach the question from these points of view. The racial characteristics and exterior of the Hungarians of today would justify us in including them among

the Indo-Germanic peoples. The names for many common things are the same, philologically, as those we find in Finnish and other Finno-Ugrian languages. Natural phenomena, the elements, many common or uncommon (but indispensable) natural products, etc., have names in Finnish corresponding to those existing in Magyar. Proofs of this kind might be multiplied, but would be of little use to English readers. What is important is, that we now know pretty certainly *who* the Magyars were, though the presence of Turco-Tartar elements cannot be denied. Far more difficult to answer are the questions: Whence did the Magyars come? What drove them to settle in Hungary? Tradition is rife as to the spot whence 'the people of Arpad' started out on their journey to Europe. In the Caucasus, we are told, on the banks of the Kama stand the ruins of a town still called Madzsar. Round this town tradition has weaved the story of a great people who once dwelt there civilised and urbane, receiving emperors as their guests. They were of fine and noble manners and life and believers in one God. Mysteriously enough they went forth from the city, and no man has since dwelt within it, though its walls still stand and great part of the town itself, though overgrown with moss and grass. All that is told of its people is that they moved away to the east. Many travellers have endeavoured to find the original home of the Magyars on the slopes of the Ural range; but none has found it yet. And yet—the path of their wanderings from the valleys of the Kama and the Upper Volga, of the Petchora and the Ural, through Baskiria (or Greater Hungary), the district between the Volga and the Ural to the north of the Caspian Sea, to their second resting-place in *Lebedia* (830-889), can be traced pretty distinctly on the map. They had not yet taken to agriculture, and lived in tents. Consequently, when, in the last year of the ninth decade of the ninth century, the warlike Petchenegs attacked them as they had done in Baskiria, they struck their tents once more and wandered further westwards, to the district called *Etelköz*, situated between the Dnieper and the Szereth, and watered by the Bug, the Dniester, and the Pruth. Here they seem to have remained until the year 895, when they turned towards the Promised Land. Of these two stages in their wanderings westwards we have definite historical records. *Leo Grammaticus* informs us that, in 836, the Bulgarians appealed to the Magyars for aid against their Greek 'prisoners,' who were endeavouring to escape. In 860, *St. Cyril*, the Slav apostle, seems to have met—and to have been chivalrously treated by—some Magyars on his way to the Khagan of the Khazars. The Arabian writer *Ibn Rosteh* tells us that the 'Mazsgars' were 'Turks,' lived in tents on the shores of the Black Sea, and moved about in all directions to find suitable pasture for their cattle. They had about 20,000 mounted warriors, under the leadership of a certain 'Kende.' They had a large tract of wheat-producing ground. They worshipped idols. They ruled over their Slav neighbours, from whom they exacted tribute and whom they sold to Greek slave-merchants at Kark (Kherson).—A. B. Yolland, *Hungary*, pp. 12-14.—"The original abode of the Hungarians was in the country called Ugría or Jugoria, in the southern part of the Uralian mountains, which is now inhabited by the Voguls and Ostiaks, who are the eastern branches of the Finnish race. . . . Ugría is called Great Hungary by the Franciscan monk Piano Carpini [called the first noteworthy European explorer of the Mongol empire] who travelled in 1246 to the court of

the Great Khan. From Ugría the Hungarians were expelled by the Turkish tribes of Petchenegs and Chazars, and sought refuge in the plains of the Lower Danube, where they first appeared . . . between 829 and 842. They called themselves Magyars, but the Russians gave them the name of Ugri, as originating from Ugría; and this name has been corrupted into Ungri and Hungarians. Although it is difficult to believe that the present Magyars, who are the foremost people in Eastern Europe, are of the same race as the degraded Voguls and Ostiaks, this fact is not only attested by historical authority, and the unerring affinity of language; but, when they first appeared in the central parts of Europe, the description given of them by an old chronicler of the ninth century (quoted by Zeuss, p. 746) accords precisely with that of the Voguls and Ostiaks."—W. Smith (E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 55, note).—Not without interest is this speculation: "That a Majiar female ever made her way from the Ural Mountains to Hungary is more than I can find; the presumptions being against it. Hence it is just possible that a whole-blooded Majiar was never born on the banks of the Danube. Whether the other elements are most Turk or most Slavonic is more than I venture to guess."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 11.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

ALSO IN: F. Palgrave, *Magyars*, v. 1.

Language of the Magyars. See PHILOLOGY: 20.

9th century.—Moravian kingdom of Svato-pluk. See MORAVIA: 9th century.

896.—Migration of Magyars to Europe and settlement in Hungary under Arpad.—"The Magyars . . . about the end of the 9th century . . . suddenly struck their tents, and pressed irresistibly forward to the very heart of Europe. . . . Immediately after crossing the eastern frontier (889), the Magyars elected for their chief Arpad, the son of Almos, who conducted them to the frontiers of Hungary. . . . The whole body under Arpad's guidance consisted of about a million, numbering among them about 200,000 warriors, and divided into seven tribes, each having its chief. The country which they prepared to take possession of, and the central part of which was then called Pannonia, was broken up into small parts, and inhabited by races dissimilar in origin and language; as Slavonians, Wallachians, a few Huns and Avars, as well as some Germans. . . . Arpad soon descended with his followers on those wide plains, whence Attila, four centuries before, swayed two parts of the globe. [Hence the Magyars were confounded with the Huns by Western peoples.] Most dexterous horsemen, armed with light spears and almost unerring bows, these invaders followed their leader from victory to victory, soon rendering themselves masters of the land [ancient Pannonia] lying between the Theiss and the Danube, carrying at the same time their devastations, on the one hand, to the Adriatic, and, on the other, towards the German frontiers. Having achieved the conquest, Arpad took up his residence on the Danubian isle, Csepel, though the seat of the court was Buda or Attelburg. . . . The love of their new dominion was far from curbing the passion of the Magyars for distant bloody adventure and plunder."—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, pt. 1, ch. 1.—See also BALKAN STATES: Races existing; EUROPE: Introduction to historic period; Migrations; RUMANIA: B.C. 5th century-A.D. 1241.

900-924.—Ravages in Italy. See ITALY: 900-924.

907-972.—Successors of Arpad.—Zoltan and Taksony.—“Arpad died in 907. It was the year in which the Magyars, at *Banhida*, routed the Bavarian hosts of Liutpold, who had invaded the country to avenge the inroads of 904. The delight caused by the brilliant triumph of their army was soon overshadowed by grief at the loss of the wise and statesmanlike prince whom they justly regarded as the ‘father of their country.’ . . . His youngest son, Zsolt [or Zoltan] (907-944), succeeded. . . . The Hungarians began that series of marauding expeditions into neighboring countries which is indelibly connected with the legendary exploits of *Budcsu*, *Lehel*, and *Botond*, and which, if not stopped in time, must have proved fatal to their existence as an independent nation. . . . Away they rode, westwards to Germany, plundering the fertile regions of Saxony and Thuringia, crossing the Rhine into France, pushing forwards as far as Bremen, carrying the terror of their name wherever they went. They penetrated—scattered bands of them—into Spain. . . . The reign of Val or Vaisz (944-947) was uneventful. He was a weak prince, with less individuality even than Zsolt, but Taksony (947-972)—apparently Zsolt’s second son—was of an entirely different character. The final blow to the Magyars’ lust of adventure—a blow that cured them effectually and led them to think more seriously of consolidating their own polity—was delivered during his reign.”—A. B. Yolland, *Hungary*, pp. 20-22.—The most daring deeds were undertaken by single chiefs, during the reign of Zoltan and his successor Taksony, which filled up the first part of the tenth century. The enervated and superstitious population of Europe thought the Magyars to be the scourge of God, directly dropped down from heaven; the very report of their approach was sufficient to drive thousands into the recesses of mountains and depths of forests, while the priests increased the common panic by mingling in their litanies the words, ‘God preserve us from the Magyars.’ . . . The irruptions of the Magyars were simultaneously felt on the shores of the Baltic, among the inhabitants of the Alps, and at the very gates of Constantinople. The emperors of the East and of Germany were repeatedly obliged to purchase momentary peace by heavy tributes; but Germany, as may be conceived from her geographical position, was chiefly exposed to the ravages of these new neighbours.”—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, pt. 1, ch. 1.—See also GERMANY: 911-936.

934-955.—Military prowess of Magyars.—Their power broken by Saxon princes.—Henry the Fowler and Otto the Great.—“The extraordinary successes which the Magyars obtained during the first thirty years of the tenth century were far more the result of their enemies’ divisions and ill-governance than of their own strength. The marvellous swiftness of their incursions made it hard to catch them; but if the eastern frontier of Germany and the passes of the Venetian Alps had been properly guarded by the systematic fortification of the chief strategical points, and if the mounted levies of all the frontier districts had been taught to act in unison, they could have been held back. Neither in Italy nor in Germany were these measures taken: the perpetual civil wars of the period 900-918 prevented any common action against the enemy. . . . Only once was a general levy of all Germany called out against the Magyars (910), and then it fought in three separate divisions many miles apart. . . . But their great

irruption into Venetia in 899, followed by an almost equally destructive raid into Bavaria in 900, was a complete surprise to the Christians, who had never suffered a serious invasion from the East since Charles the Great had crushed the Avars ninety years back. The moment which the Magyars chose for their invasion was an unhappy one for Italy and Germany. In the former country King Berengar was but lately freed from his first rival, Lambert of Spoleto, and was just about to start on his contest with a second pretender, Lewis of Provence (900-901). He was also much distracted by Saracen raids on Latium and Tuscany. In the German kingdom Lewis the Child wore the crown—he was a boy of no more than seven years old, the first minor who had worn the Carolingian crown. No strong regent governed for him, and the great vassals who had of late established themselves in the new duchies were about to plunge into a series of bloody and useless civil wars. . . . It was their rapid movement, far swifter even than that of the Danes, which alone made the Magyars formidable. The wide sweeps which some of their expeditions made far exceed in length any Viking raid. The most formidable of all were those of 924, 926, and 954. In the former they swept through Bavaria and Swabia, crossed the Rhine, ravaged Elsass and Lorraine, penetrated into Champagne, turned eastward again from the Ardennes and returned across Franconia to the Danube. In the second raid—a still more astonishing feat of horsemanship—they passed the Venetian Alps, swept over Lombardy (taking Pavia on their way), and then endeavoured to cross the Pennine Alps into Burgundy. Checked in the passes by Rodolf of Little Burgundy and Hugh, Count of Vienne, they turned south, and, taking a more unguarded route, burst into Provence and Septimania [southern France]. On their return journey Rodolf and Hugh cut off many of them, but the bulk seem to have got safely back to the Danube.”—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, pp. 117, 119.

“The deliverance of Germany and Christendom was achieved by the Saxon princes, Henry the Fowler and Otho the Great, who, in two memorable battles, forever broke the power of the Hungarians.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 55.—“It was not till the advent of Henry the Fowler (or Henry the Builder, as contemporaries more wisely called him) that any check was set to the Magyars by either of the necessary expedients. Henry from his first accession showed himself a far more powerful prince than his unfortunate predecessors. . . . He set the whole population to work day and night to build . . . strongholds, and to construct houses inside them; these being finished he settled that each ninth man should dwell therein, and take care of the eight neighbouring houses which his companions were to occupy in time of war, while the eight were to pay the indweller in return one-third of the net products of their lands. . . . At first the new strongholds were little more than thinly-inhabited places of refuge, but ere long most of them became real towns. The founding of Merseburg, the easternmost and the most exposed bulwark of Saxony, deserves a special notice. Henry peopled it by sparing the life of every ‘strong thief’ that he caught, on condition that he should go to dwell at Merseburg and receive a grant of land in its environs. Strangely enough, this ‘legio collecta a latronibus,’ as the chronicler calls them, did very well in their new settlement, and, like Romulus’s robber band, made their city the centre of a



ARPAD TAKING POSSESSION OF HUNGARY  
(After painting by M. von Munkacsy)





strong community in a very few years. . . . When the [Magyar] invaders threw themselves on Thuringia, their smaller bands were cut to pieces by the local forces, who were now able to follow them at equal speed. Their main army was attacked by Henry himself, who had called up the cavalry of the neighbouring Franconian and Bavarian lands to join the Saxons and Thuringians. By showing only a small force, the levy of Thuringia alone, 'cum raro milite armato,' *i.e.*, with few mail-clad men, he enticed them to attack him. But when the whole German host suddenly displayed itself and charged, the Magyars broke and fled without staying to fight. A few were caught and slain, a good many were drowned in the Unstrut (which lay behind them), but the majority got off in safety and returned to Hungary. Such was the battle at Riade, which modern historians have generally called the battle of Merseburg, though it seems really to have been fought nearer to Erfurt than to the other city. Three years later Henry the Builder died, and was succeeded by his still more famous son, Otto the Great."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, pp. 120-121.

Twenty years after their defeat by Henry the Fowler (934) the Hungarians invaded the empire of his son, "and their force is defined, in the lowest estimate, at 100,000 horse. They were invited by domestic faction; the gates of Germany were treacherously unlocked, and they spread, far beyond the Rhine and the Meuse, into the heart of Flanders. But the vigour and prudence of Otho dispelled the conspiracy; the princes were made sensible that, unless they were true to each other, their religion and country were irrecoverably lost; and the national powers were reviewed in the plains of Augsburg. They marched and fought in eight legions, according to the division of provinces and tribes."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 55.—"The expedition of 954 was the most dreadful as it was the last, of all the great Magyar raids. In that year the invaders wasted first Bavaria, then Franconia: they crossed the Rhine near Wurms. Then the rebel Duke Conrad wickedly made a pact with them, and sent them guides to lead them to the lands of his private enemy, Reginald, Duke of Lower Lorraine. After harrying that duchy as far as Maestricht, they turned south, and suddenly descended the Meuse into France, where no one was expecting them. After burning every open village in the territories of Laon, Rheims, and Chalons, they swooped down on Burgundy. Here they met considerable resistance, but, forcing their way through the Burgundians, they dropped down into Italy, apparently by the Great St. Bernard, and finally hurried across Lombardy and over the Carnic Alps back to their own land. It was fortunate for Christian Europe that the Lechfeld victory was to fall into the next year, and that the wings of the Magyar vultures were to be forever clipped by Otto the Great (955). . . . The great Magyar invasions of 954 and 955 were a last rally of the plundering hordes, conscious that their prey was escaping them, and determined to try one more bold stroke before it was too late. The chroniclers record the fact that they had put every available horseman into the field, and that no such host had ever been seen before. We may compare the Hungarian army that marched on Augsburg in 955 to the Turkish army that marched on Vienna in 1683—it was the last desperate effort of a power conscious that its superiority was slipping from it. Nevertheless, King Otto had every

right to be proud of his victory on the Lechfeld on St. Lawrence's Day. His realm was still disturbed with the last throes of the great rebellion which he had put down in the previous year, and, as there were dangerous movements still working among the Slavs of the Lower Elbe and on the Lotharingian frontier, he had not been able to call out the full levy on his kingdom. There were hardly any Saxons, Thuringians, or Lotharingians, and very few Franconians with him. His army was composed of the cavalry of Bavaria and Swabia, with a thousand Franconians, and the same number of his Slavonic vassals the Bohemians, under their prince Boleslav. Hearing that Augsburg was besieged, and that its garrison was in great danger, Otto marched rapidly to its rescue, without waiting for further reinforcements. . . . On hearing of the king's approach, the Hungarians hastily raised the siege of Augsburg, and drew themselves up on the broad and level Lechfeld, a region very well adapted for the practice of their usual Parthian tactics. Otto, however, moved to meet them through broken ground which was unsuitable for their manoeuvres, and then camped by the side of the Lech. . . . The Magyars soon came in sight—a confused weltering mass of hundreds of small troops; the German chronicles say that they were a hundred thousand strong, and, however exaggerated the figure may be, they no doubt many times outnumbered Otto's host. Led by Duke Conrad, a lately pardoned rebel who had to win back his reputation for loyalty, the Franconian horse charged with such a fierce shock that the Magyars were completely routed, and fled in disorder to join their main body. Otto meanwhile, with his own division and the Bavarians, had been watching and containing the rest of the Magyars. When he saw the horde which had turned his flank crushed by Conrad, he hastily rearranged the disordered left wing, and ordered a general charge of his whole line. The Magyars, dismayed by the disaster which had befallen their detached corps, made a poor resistance. They were indeed wholly incapable of standing up to the Germans man to man: their horses were smaller, and very few of them wore any defensive armour. After letting fly a few volleys of arrows, they wheeled off and fled. . . . Three great chiefs who fell into Otto's hands were incontinently hung. So ended, as Witikind remarks, the greatest victory which Christendom had won over the heathen for two hundred years. . . . Since 933 Germany had found the raiders much less formidable than before, and the invasion of 955 was a desperate final rally. Just as in the history of the Ottoman assaults on Christian Europe we place the real moment of greatest danger during the siege of Vienna in 1529, not during that in 1683, so the most threatening time of the Magyar attack was undoubtedly in 933, when they had never yet received a check of importance, and not in 955, when they had already been met and turned back many times by Otto and Otto's generals. The danger, at any rate, was now wholly past. . . . In less than a generation after the Lechfeld the rôles of German and Magyar were wholly changed: the Christian is always advancing and the pagan recoiling. Otto, too, was able to cut a new 'march' out of the Pannonian lands which the Magyars had devastated and occupied in his grandfather's time. This was the new Bavarian Ostmark (073), destined to be famous under the name of Austria for many a future generation."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, pp. 119, 123-125.

ALSO IN: W. Menzel, *History of Germany*, v. 1, ch. 135.—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 2, pp. 656-665.—A. W. Grube, *Heroes of history and legend*, ch. 8.

972-1116.—Conversion of Magyars to Christianity.—Kingship conferred on the duke by the pope.—Annexation of Croatia and conquest of Dalmatia.—“Hungary was enclosed within limits which she was never again able to cross, and even within these limits the Magyars were not the only inhabitants; in almost every part they were surrounded by Slavs, whose language and laws were to exercise over them a lasting influence, and on the south-east they touched on that Romance or Wallachian element which, from the time of the Roman colonies of Trajan, had continued to develop there. Numerous marriages with these neighbours gradually modified the primitive type of the Magyars. . . . Geiza I. had married as his second wife [Sarolta] a sister of the duke of Poland, Mieczyslaw. She had been converted to Christianity, and, like Clotilde of France, this princess knew how to use her influence in favour of her religion. She persuaded her husband to receive the missionaries who came to preach the Gospel in the country of the Magyars, and Pilgrim, archbishop of Lorch, undertook the systematic conversion of the nation. The mention of him in the ‘Nibelungen Lied’ in connection with Etzel (Attila), king of the Huns [who died more than five hundred years before] is doubtless due to the memory of this mission. He sent priests from his diocese into Hungary, and in 974 he was able to announce to the pope 5,000 conversions. . . . The great Chekh apostle, St. Adalbert or Vojtech, bishop of Prague, continued the work begun by Pilgrim. About 994, he went to Gran (Esztergom), where the duke of Hungary then dwelt, and solemnly baptized the son of Geiza, to whom he gave the name of Stephen. Henceforth the court of the duke became the resort of knights from all the neighbouring countries, but especially from Germany, and these knights, entering into intimate relations with the native nobility, drew Hungary and the empire into still closer union. Prince Stephen, heir presumptive to the throne, married the princess Gisella, daughter of the duke of Bavaria, while one of the daughters of Geiza became the wife of the Polish duke Boleslaw, and another married Urseolus, doge of Venice. Through these alliances, Hungary obtained for itself a recognized place among European states, and the work begun so well by Geiza was completed by Stephen [the Pious (997-1038)], to whom was reserved the honour of establishing the position of his kingdom in Europe and of completing its conversion [to Latin Christianity, and not to the Orthodox or Uniate Greek]. . . . ‘Hungary became Catholic,’ says a Magyar historian, ‘not through apostolic teaching, nor through the invitation of the Holy See, but through the laws of king Stephen’ (Verböczy). . . . Stephen sent an ambassador to Rome, to treat directly with pope Sylvester [II], who graciously received the homage done by him for his kingdom, and, by a letter dated the 27th of March, 1000, announced that he took the people of Hungary under the protection of the Church. By the same brief he granted the royal crown to Stephen. . . . Besides this, he conferred on him the privilege of having the cross always borne before him, as a symbol of the apostolic power which he granted to him. The authenticity of this pontifical letter has indeed been disputed; but, however that may be, the emperor of Austria, king of Hungary, still bears the title of Apostolic Majesty. . . . Under

this great king, Hungary became a completely independent kingdom between the two empires of the East and West. . . . The laws of Stephen are contained in 56 articles divided into two books. His ideas on all matters of government are also to be found in the counsels which he wrote, or caused to be written, for his son Emerich. . . . The son for whom the great king had written his maxims died before his father, in 1031, and is honoured as a saint by the Church.”—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 5.—Stephen “was destined to be one of the heroes of his nation. . . . [He] reigned altogether forty-two years—four years (997-1000) as prince and thirty-eight years (1000-1038) as ‘apostolic’ king. He was determined to continue the work of his father in consolidating the foundations of the Hungarian monarchy; but his zeal for the cause of Christianity was not based on merely political motives. . . . The closing years of Stephen’s reign were disturbed by rivalries and plots. He died on August 15, 1038, and was succeeded by his nephew, Peter, son of the doge Urseolus. The undisguised contempt of the new monarch . . . for the Magyars and his policy of conciliating his German and Italian friends by gifts of large estates created enormous dissatisfaction, even among those who had been loyal to Stephen. The very existence of the Church seemed jeopardised. His threat that he would reduce Hungary to the position of a vassal of the Roman Empire was the signal for open revolt. [Peter was driven out and] Samuel Aba, Stephen’s brother-in-law (1041-44) was elected King by the insurgents. The new monarch at once put the wicked counsellors of Peter to death; and the wretched creature fled for refuge to the Court of Henry III. Peter told the Emperor that the Christian faith was in danger in Hungary and that German influence was on the wane. Nothing more was needed to persuade the Emperor, who looked upon the spread of Christianity and the expansion of German power as the two main objects of his life, to invade Hungary. For two years the country had to suffer from the ravages of warfare, until in 1043, when Henry had penetrated as far as the Raba, Samuel craved for peace, which he obtained by the restoration of the territory acquired by Stephen (west of the Lajtha) and by gifts of incalculable wealth. This action of his was looked upon by many of the Hungarian nobles as disloyal and cowardly. Samuel heard of their disaffection and resolved to crush it by cruel treachery. Simulating a desire to accommodate their wishes, he invited fifty of the most prominent to meet him in a house at Csanád, where he had them surrounded and put to the sword. This act of wicked despotism merely added fuel to the flames of discontent. The flower of the Hungarian nobility rose against him. The Emperor took advantage of the internal discord to invade Hungary once more. At the battle of Ménfő (July 5, 1044) Samuel’s army was routed; the King himself was taken prisoner; the Emperor withdrew to Székesfehérvár, where he had Peter crowned. . . . The following year, at Whitsuntide, Peter invited the Emperor to his capital, where he took the oath of fealty to the Roman Empire, promising the payment of tribute and presenting Henry with the golden lance which symbolised the royal power of Hungary. Thus Peter reduced his country to the degrading position of a vassal state. . . . The whole nation rose in revolt against the man who had humiliated their pride; and, when the freemen despatched envoys to the exiled princes of the House of Árpád, Endre and Levente, who were in Russia,

they demanded the restoration of the ancestral faith. They had come to regard the Church, with her foreign priests, as a danger to their national existence. It was no difficult matter to impart their hatred to the masses, who dreaded the 'foreign intruders' and felt the burden of the tithes imposed on them by Stephen. Peter was taken prisoner; his eyes were put out; and he was cast into prison."—A. B. Yolland, *Hungary*, pp. 27, 40-41.—The Hungarians deposed Samuel Aba and elected Andrew, son of Ladislas the Bald (1046). Andrew was dethroned by his brother Bela in 1061. Both Andrew and Bela had bitter struggles with revived paganism, which was finally suppressed. "According to the Asiatic custom, which still prevails in Turkey, he was succeeded by his nephew Solomon. . . . This prince was only twelve years of age, and the emperor, Henry IV., took advantage of his youth to place him in a humiliating position of tutelage. . . . The enemies of Solomon accused him of being the creature of the Germans, and reproached him for having done homage to the emperor for a state which belonged to St. Peter. Pope Gregory VII, who was then struggling against the emperor [see PAPACY: 1056-1122], encouraged the rebels. 'The kingdom of Hungary,' he said, 'owes obedience to none but the Church.' Prince Geiza was proclaimed king in the place of Solomon, but he died without having reigned. He was succeeded by Ladislas the Holy (1077), who was able to make himself equally independent of emperor and pope. . . . The dying Ladislas chose his nephew Koloman as his successor. . . . The most important act of this reign [Koloman's, 1095-1116] was the annexation of Croatia. In 1090, St. Ladislas had been elected to the throne of Croatia, and he, on his death, left the government of it to his nephew Almos, who very soon made himself unpopular. Koloman drove him out of Croatia, and had himself proclaimed king. He next set about the conquest of Dalmatia from the Venetians, seized the principal towns, Spalato (Spljet), Zara (Zadir), and Trogir (Trau), and granted them full power of self-government. Then (1102) he had himself crowned, at Belgrade, king of Croatia and Dalmatia. From this time the position of Croatia, as regarded Hungary, was very much the same as the position of Hungary in regard to Austria in later times."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 5-6.—Koloman died in 1116. "The ferocity of his treatment of his brother and wife, due without doubt to the ravages of incipient madness brought on by bodily suffering . . . cannot overshadow . . . his greatness as a legislator and statesman, or the brilliance of his military exploits."—A. B. Yolland, *Hungary*, pp. 55-56.—See also BOSNIA: Origin of the name.

1096.—Hostilities with the first Crusade. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099.

1116-1301.—German settlements in the Banat and Transylvania.—Golden Bull of Andrew II.—Invasion and frightful devastation by the Tatars.—End of the Arpad dynasty.—"Coloman was succeeded on the throne by his son Stephen [I], 1116-1131], who . . . was succeeded by Bela the Blind. The most important event of these reigns was the war with Venice about the possession of Dalmatia, and the annexation to the Hungarian crown of Rama, a part of Servia. In 1147, Geiza II. ascended the throne of St. Stephen. His reign was marked by several important events. Having entirely reduced Transylvania, he invited many Saxons and Flemish into his kingdom, some of whom settled in the Banat, in the south of Hungary."—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and pres-*

*ent*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—Other "Flemish and Low-German settlers established themselves in Transylvania; who, under the name of Saxons, retain to this day the manners, customs, and institutions of their fatherland. By patience and industry, they have converted the land from a desert into a blooming region, with rich towns and prosperous villages, and have vigorously defended their liberties against all attacks."—G. Weber, *Outlines of universal history*, p. 195.—"In this principality the German settlers received from the king a separate district, being, besides, exempted from many taxes and endowed with particular privileges. . . . The following years of the 12th century, filled up by the reigns of Stephen III., Bela III., and Emerick, are marked by the continuance of the Venetian war, but present no incidents deserving of particular notice. More important was the reign of Andrew II., who ascended the throne in 1205. . . . Andrew, by the advice of the Pope, set out with a large army to the Holy Land [1216—see CRUSADES: 1216-1220], nominating the Ban, called Banko, viceroy of Hungary. While the Hungarian king spent his time in Constantinople, and afterwards in operations round Mount Tabor, Hungary became a scene of violence and rapine, aggravated by the careless and unconstitutional administration of the queen's foreign favourites, as well as by the extortions committed by the oligarchy on their inferiors. Receiving no support from the king of Jerusalem, Andrew resolved on returning home. On his arrival in Hungary, he had the mortification of finding, in addition to a disaffected nobility, a rival to the throne in the person of his son Bela. As the complaints of the nobles became daily louder, . . . the king resolved to confirm the privileges of the country by a new charter, called the Golden Bull [which somewhat resembles the English *Magna Carta* of 1215]. This took place in the year 1222. The chief provisions of this charter were as follows:—1st, That the states were henceforth to be annually convoked either under the presidency of the king or the palatine; 2d, That no nobleman was to be arrested without being previously tried and legally sentenced; 3d, That no contribution or tax was to be levied on the property of the nobles; 4th, That if called to military service beyond the frontiers of the country, they were to be paid by the king; 5th, That high offices should neither be made hereditary nor given to foreigners without the consent of the Diet. The most important point, however, was article 31st, which conferred on the nobles the right of appealing to arms in case of any violation of the laws by the crown. Other provisions contained in this charter refer to the exemption of the lower clergy from the payment of taxes and tolls, and to the determination of the tithes to be paid by the cultivators of the soil. [See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1318.] Andrew died soon after the promulgation of the charter, and was succeeded by his son Bela IV. The beginning of this prince's reign was troubled with internal dissensions caused by the Cumans [an Eastern tribe which invaded Hungary in the latter half of the 11th century] who, after having been vanquished by St. Ladislaus, settled in Hungary between the banks of the Theiss and Marosch. But a greater and quite unexpected danger, which threatened Hungary with utter destruction, arose from the invasion of the Tartars. . . . Their leader Batu [Khan] . . . laid waste Poland and Silesia and poured with his innumerable troops into the heart of Hungary. Internal dissensions facilitated the triumph of the foe, and the battle fought on the banks of the

river Sajo (1241) terminated in the total defeat of the Hungarians. The Tartar hordes spread with astonishing rapidity throughout the whole country, which in a few weeks was converted into a chaos of blood and flames. [See also MONGOLIA: 1229-1294.] . . . The king Bela, in the meantime, succeeded in making his way through the Carpathian Mountains into Austria; but instead of receiving assistance from the arch-duke Frederick, he was retained as a prisoner. Having pledged three [western] counties of Hungary to Frederick, Bela was allowed to depart. . . . In the meantime Batu [Khan] was as prompt in leaving Hungary, in consequence of the death of the Tartar khan [Ogotai] . . . Bela was succeeded on the throne by his son Stephen, in the year 1270." The reign of Stephen was short. He was followed by Ladislaus IV, who allied himself with Rudolph of Hapsburg in the war which overthrew and destroyed Ottoacar or Ottocar, king of Bohemia (see AUSTRIA: 1246-1282). "The reign of this prince, called the Cuman, was, besides, troubled by most devastating internal dissensions, caused by the Cumans, whose numbers were continually augmented by fresh arrivals . . . from their own tribe as well as from the Tartars." Ladislaus, dying in 1290, was succeeded by Andrew III, the last Hungarian king of the house of Arpad. "This prince had to dispute his throne with Rudolph of Hapsburg, who coveted the crown of Hungary for his son Albert. The appearance, however, of the Hungarian troops before the gates of Vienna compelled the Austrian emperor to sue for peace, which was cemented by a family alliance, Andrew having espoused Agnes, daughter of Albert. . . . Nor did this matrimonial alliance with Austria secure peace to Hungary. Pope Nicholas IV. was bent upon gaining the crown of St. Stephen for Charles Martel, son of Charles d'Anjou of Naples, who put forward his claims to the Hungarian crown in virtue of his mother, Mary, daughter of king Stephen V.," transferring them at his death to Charles Robert, nephew of the king of Naples. Andrew III, the last Arpad, died in 1301.—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, pt. 1, ch. 2.

13th century.—Appearance of Jews. See JEWS: Austria-Hungary: 12th-19th centuries.

13th-18th centuries.—Recurrent conflict with Rumania, Walachia and Moldavia. See RUMANIA: 13th-18th centuries.

1250-1299.—Hungarian supremacy in Bosnia. See BOSNIA: 1250-1322.

1301-1442.—House of Anjou and House of Luxemburg.—Conquests of Louis the Great.—Beginning of wars with the Turks.—House of Austria and the Jagellon dynasty.—On the extinction of the line of Arpad, in the male line of descent, by the death of Andrew III, in 1301, the crown was "contested by several competitors, and at length fell into the hands of the House of Anjou, the reigning family of Naples [see ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389]. Charles Robert, grandson of Charles II., King of Naples, by Mary of Hungary, outstripped his rivals [1310], and transmitted the crown to his son Louis, surnamed the Great [1342]. This prince [made Buda the capital]. . . . He conquered from the Venetians the whole of Dalmatia, from the frontiers of Istria, as far as Durazzo; he reduced the princes of Moldavia, Wallachia, Bosnia and Bulgaria to a state of dependence; and at length mounted the throne of Poland, on the death of his uncle, Casimir the Great [1370]. Mary, his eldest daughter, succeeded him in the kingdom of Hungary (1382). This princess married Sigismund of Luxemburg [afterwards emperor, 1411-1437—see GERMANY:

1347-1493], who thus [for a time] united the monarchy of Hungary to the Imperial crown. The reign of Sigismund in Hungary was most unfortunate. . . . He had to sustain . . . war against the Ottoman Turks; and, with the Emperor of Constantinople as his ally, he assembled a formidable army, with which he undertook the siege of Nicopolis in Bulgaria [see TURKEY: 1389-1403]. In his retreat he was compelled to embark on the Danube, and directed his flight towards Constantinople. This disaster was followed by new misfortunes. The malcontents of Hungary offered their crown to Ladislaus, called the Magnanimous, King of Naples, who took possession of Dalmatia, which he afterwards surrendered to the Venetians. Desirous to provide for the defence and security of his kingdom, Sigismund acquired, by treaty with the Prince of Servia, the fortress of Belgrade (1425), which, by its situation at the confluence of the Danube and the Save, seemed to him a proper bulwark to protect Hungary against the Turks."—C. W. Koch, *Revolutions of Europe, period 5*.—“Albert, afterwards the Emperor Albert II., was the first prince of the House of Habsburg that enjoyed the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, which he owed to his father-in-law, the Emperor Sigismund, whose only daughter, Elizabeth, he had married. Elizabeth was the child of Barbara von Cilly, Sigismund's second wife, whose notorious vices had procured for her the odious epithets of the 'Bad,' and the 'German Messalina.' Barbara had determined to supplant her daughter, to claim the two crowns as her dowry, and to give them, with her hand, to Wladislaus, the young King of Poland, who, though 40 years her junior, she had marked out for her future husband. With this view she was courting the Hussite party in Bohemia: but Sigismund, a little before his death, caused her to be arrested; and, assembling the Hungarian and Bohemian nobles at Znaym, in Moravia, persuaded them, almost with his dying breath, to elect Albert as his successor. Sigismund expired the next day (Dec. 9th, 1437). Albert was soon after recognised as king by the Hungarian diet, and immediately released his mother-in-law Barbara, upon her agreeing to restore some fortresses which she held in Hungary. He did not so easily obtain possession of the Bohemian crown. . . . The short reign of Albert in Hungary was disastrous both to himself and to the country. Previously to his fatal expedition against the Turks in 1439, . . . the Hungarian diet, before it would agree to settle the succession to the throne, forced him to accept a constitution which destroyed all unity and strength of government. By the famous 'Decretum Alberti Regis,' he reduced himself to be the mere shadow of a king; while by exalting the Palatine [a magistrate next to the king in rank, who presided over the legal tribunals, and discharged the functions of the king in the absence of the latter], the clergy, and the nobles, he perpetuated all the evils of the feudal system. . . . The most absurd and pernicious regulations were now adopted respecting the military system of the kingdom, and such as rendered it almost impossible effectually to resist the Turks. . . . On the death of Albert, Wladislaus [Ladislaus] III., King of Poland [the second Polish king of the dynasty of Jagellon], was . . . elected to the throne of Hungary. . . . Albert, besides two daughters, had left his wife Elizabeth pregnant; and the Hungarians, dreading a long minority in case she should give birth to a son, compelled her to offer her hand to Wladislaus, agreeing that the crown should descend to their issue; but at the

same time engaging that if Elizabeth's child should prove a male, they would endeavour to procure for him the kingdom of Bohemia and the duchy of Austria; and that he should moreover succeed to the Hungarian throne in case Wladislaus had no issue by Elizabeth. . . . Scarcely had the Hungarian ambassador set off for the court of Wladislaus with these proposals, when Elizabeth brought forth a son, who, from the circumstances of his birth, was christened Ladislaus Posthumus. Elizabeth now repented of the arrangement that had been made; and the news having arrived that the archduke Frederick had been elected Emperor of Germany, she was induced to withdraw her consent to marry the King of Poland. Messengers were despatched to recall the Hungarian ambassadors; but it was too late—Wladislaus had accepted her hand, and prepared to enter Hungary with an army. . . . The party of the King of Poland, especially as it was headed by John of Hunyad, proved the stronger. Elizabeth was compelled to abandon Lower Hungary and take refuge at Vienna, carrying with her the crown of St. Stephen, which, with her infant son, she intrusted to the care of the Emperor Frederick III. (August 3rd, 1440). . . . In November 1442, Elizabeth and Wladislaus had an interview at Raab, when a peace was agreed upon, the terms of which are unknown; but it is probable that one of the chief conditions was a marriage between the contracting parties. The sudden death of Elizabeth, Dec. 24th, 1442, not without suspicion of poison, prevented the ratification of a treaty which had never been agreeable to the great party led by John of Hunyad, whose recent victories over the Turks gave him enormous influence."—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe, introduction, v. 1.*

1364.—Reversion of the crown guaranteed to the House of Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

1381-1386.—Expedition of Charles of Durazzo to Naples. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1389.

1393.—Agreement with Dahisa of Bosnia.—Decline of Bosnian kingdom. See BOSNIA: 1391-1444.

15th-19th centuries.—Map showing development and growth of Hapsburg power. See AUSTRIA: Map showing Hapsburg possessions.

1408-1471.—Matthias joins the crusade against George Podiebrad of Bohemia and claims the Bohemian crown. See BOHEMIA: 1458-1471.

1419-1434.—Campaigns against reformers in Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

1436.—Sigismund acknowledged head of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457.

1442-1444.—Wars of John Hunyadi with the Turks. See TURKEY: 1402-1451.

1442-1458.—Minority of Ladislaus Posthumus.—Regency of Hunyadi.—His defeat of the Turks and his death.—Matthias chosen king.—Peace between the factions was brought about by an agreement that "the Polish king should retain the government of Hungary until Ladislaus attained his majority; that he should be possessed of the throne in case the young prince died without issue; and the compact was sealed by affiancing the two daughters of Elizabeth to the King of Poland and his brother Casimir. The young Ladislaus was also acknowledged as King of Bohemia; and the administration during his minority vested in two Regents: Mainard, Count of Neuhaus, chosen on the part of the Catholics; and Henry Ptarsko, and after his death George Podiebrad, on that of the Hussites. The death of Wladislaus in the memorable battle of Warna [1444] again left Hungary without a ruler; and as Frederic III. persisted in retaining the young Ladislaus and the

crown of St. Stephen, the Hungarians entrusted the government to John Corvinus Huniades, the re-doubted defender of their country." In 1452, when the Emperor Frederic returned from Italy into Germany, "he found himself involved in a dispute with the Austrians, the Bohemians, and the Hungarians, in respect to the custody of the young Ladislaus. . . . As Ladislaus had now arrived at the age of thirteen, his subjects, but more particularly the Austrians, grew impatient of the detention of their sovereign at the imperial court. Whilst Podiebrad continued regent of Bohemia, and Huniades of Hungary, the affairs of Austria were directed by Frederic; and the unpopularity of his government caused a general anxiety for a change. But to give up the custody of his ward was contrary to the policy of the Emperor, and in the hope of silencing the Austrians he marched with a force against them. His enemies, however, proved too numerous; he was himself endangered by a siege in Neustadt; and compelled to purchase his deliverance by resigning the person of Ladislaus. The states of Austria, Bohemia, and Hungary then assembled at Vienna; Podiebrad and Huniades were confirmed in their regencies; and the administration of Austria, together with the custody of Ladislaus, was confided to his maternal great-uncle, Ulric, Count of Cilli. The resentment of Frederic does not appear to have been vehement; for in the following year [1453] he raised Austria to an arch-duchy, and by a grant of especial privileges placed the Duke of the province on a level with the Electors. After being crowned King of Bohemia at Prague, Ladislaus was invited by his Hungarian subjects to visit that kingdom. But the Count of Cilli, jealous of the power of Huniades, so far worked upon the young king's mind as to create in him suspicions of the regent's integrity. An attempt was made to seize Huniades by enticing him to Vienna; but he eluded the snare, exposed the treachery of Ulric, and prevailed on Ladislaus to visit his people. At Buda, an apparent reconciliation took place between the count and the regent; but Ulric still persisted in his design of ruining the credit of a man whom he regarded as a dangerous rival. In the moment of danger, the brave spirit of Huniades triumphed over his insidious traducer; the siege of Belgrade by the Turks [1456], under Mahomed II., threw Hungary into consternation; the royal pupil and his crafty guardian abandoned the Hungarians to their fate and precipitately fled to Vienna; whilst Huniades was left to encounter the fury of the storm. . . . The undaunted resistance of that renowned captain preserved Belgrade; the Turks, after a desperate struggle, were compelled to abandon the siege; their loss amounted to 30,000 men; and the Sultan himself was severely wounded [see TURKEY: 1451-1481]. The great defender did not long survive his triumph; dying, soon after the retreat of the enemy, of a fever occasioned by his extraordinary exertions. [John] Huniades left two sons, Ladislaus and Matthias Corvinus, who were as much the idols of their country as they were objects of jealousy to Ulric and the King. The latter, indeed, took care to treat them with every mark of external respect; but the injurious behaviour of the count provoked Ladislaus Corvinus to open violence; and, in a personal encounter, Ulric received a mortal wound. Enraged at the death of his favourite yet dreading the vengeance of the people, King Ladislaus resorted to treachery; and the brothers being lured into his power, the younger was beheaded as a murderer [1457]. Matthias was preserved from death by the menaces of the indignant Hungarians; the terrified monarch

fled with his prisoner to Prague; and being there attacked by a malignant disease, was consigned to a premature grave after suffering for only a few hours. The death of Ladislaus Posthumus plunged the Emperor into new difficulties. His succession to the Austrian territory was opposed by his brother Albert VI., whose hostility had long troubled his repose. The Bohemians rejected his claim to their throne, and conferred the crown on the more deserving Podiebrad [1458]. The Hungarians testified their regard for the memory of Huniades Corvinus by electing his son Matthias, who purchased his liberty from Podiebrad for 40,000 ducats. Thus baffled in his views, Frederic consoled himself with his retention of the crown of St. Stephen; and his pertinacity in respect to this sacred relique involved him in a war with the new King of Hungary."—R. Comyn, *History of the western empire*, v. 2, ch. 28.—Matthias Corvinus was king for thirty-two years.—See also AUSTRIA: 1438-1403; BOSNIA: 1453-1528.



MATTHIAS I, CORVINUS

1444.—Walachia taken from the Turks. See TURKEY: 1402-1451.

1471-1487.—Wars of Matthias with Bohemia, Poland, the emperor and the Turks.—Conquest and occupation of Austria.—Matthias of Hungary was now involved in wars with Bohemia and Poland; "his whole kingdom was agitated by intestine commotions; . . . a strong party of nobles breaking out into insurrection, . . . offered the crown to Casimir, prince of Poland. At the same time, the Turks having subdued Transylvania, and ravaged Dalmatia and Croatia, built the fortress of Szabatch on the Save, and from thence harassed Hungary with perpetual inroads. From these impending dangers, Matthias extricated himself by his courage, activity, and prudence. While he carried the war into Bohemia and Silesia, he awed, by his presence, his rebellious subjects, conciliated by degrees the disaffected nobles, expelled the Poles, and, by an important victory in the vicinity of Breslau, over the united armies of Poles and Bohemians, forced the two sovereigns, in 1474, to conclude an armistice for three years and a half. He availed himself of the suspension of arms to repel the Turks. He supported Stephen Bathori,

hospodar of Wallachia, who had shaken off the Ottoman yoke, by a reinforcement of troops, enabled him to defeat Mahomet himself [on the plain of Kenyer-Mesö, October, 1479], at the head of 100,000 men, and soon afterwards secured his frontiers on the side of the Danube by the capture of Szabatch. Having in consequence of these successes delivered his dominions from the aggressions of the Turks, he hastened to gratify his vengeance against the emperor, whose conduct had afforded so many causes of complaint. After instigating Matthias to make war on George Podiebrad, Frederic had abandoned him in the midst of the contest, had refused to fulfil his promise of investing him with the kingdom of Bohemia, had concluded an alliance with the kings of Poland and Bohemia [Casimir IV and his son, Ladislaus], and, on the 10th of June, 1477, formally conferred on Ladislaus the investiture of the crown." Matthias, as soon as he had freed himself from the Turks (1479), declared war against the emperor and invaded Austria. "Frederic, left without a single ally, was unable to make the smallest resistance, and in less than a month Matthias overran the greater part of Lower Austria, invested the capital, and either besieged or captured all the fortresses of the Danube, as far as Krems and Stein. Frederic fled in dismay to Lintz, and, to save his capital, was reduced to accept the conditions imposed by the conqueror," which included a promised payment of 100,000 ducats. This payment the shifty emperor evaded, when Matthias became involved anew, as he presently did, in hostilities with Bohemia and Poland. "Matthias, irritated by his conduct, concluded a peace with Ladislaus, by which he acknowledged him as king of Bohemia, and agreed that Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia [which had been surrendered to him in 1475] should revert to the crown of Bohemia, in case of his death without issue. He then again invaded Austria; but his arms were not attended with the same rapid success as on the former invasion. . . . It was not till after a contest of four years, which called forth all the skill and perseverance of the warlike monarch and his most experienced generals, that they obtained possession of the capital [1485] and the neighbouring fortresses, and completed the subjugation of Lower Austria, by the capture of Newstadt, the favourite residence of the emperor. Frederic, driven from his hereditary dominions, at first took refuge at Gratz; and, on the approach of danger, wandered from city to city, and from convent to convent." After many appeals, he persuaded Albert, duke of Saxony, to take the field in his behalf; but Albert, with the small force at his command, could only retard the progress of the invader, and he soon concluded an armistice with him. "In consequence of this agreement, he [Albert of Saxony], in November, 1487, abandoned Austria, and Matthias was permitted to retain possession of the conquered territories, until Frederic had discharged his former engagement, and reimbursed the expenses of the war; should Matthias die before that period, these states were to revert to their sovereign."—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 1, ch. 18.—"Matthias shone in the arts of peace as well as in those of war. A new university was founded by him in Buda, a library established, and the civilisation of the people promoted by the introduction from all quarters of men of learning and artists, printers and architects, gardeners, persons skilled in agriculture, and artificers. These advantages were again lost under his successors."—G. Weber, *Outlines of universal history*, p. 195.—See also AUSTRIA: 1471-1491.

1487-1526.—Death of Matthias.—Election of Wladislaw, or Ladislaus, of the Polish house of Jagellon.—Union of the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia.—Loss of the Austrian provinces.—Treaty of succession with Maximilian.—Insurrection of the Kurucs.—Loss of Belgrade.—Great Turkish invasion and ruinous battle of Mohacs.—End of Hungarian independence.—“When once the archduchy of Austria was conquered, Mathias, who was already master of Moravia and Silesia, had in his power a state almost as large as the Austria of the present time, if we except from it Galicia and Bohemia. But his power had no solid foundation. While the influence of the house of Austria had been increased by marriage, Mathias Corvinus had no legitimate heir. He made several attempts to have his natural son, John Corvinus, born in Silesia, recognized as his successor; but he died suddenly (1490) at the age of 50, without having arranged anything definitely for the future of his kingdom. . . . Hungary reached her highest point in the reign of Mathias Corvinus, and from this time we shall have to watch her hopeless decay. The diet, divided by the ambition of rival barons, could decide on no national king, and so turned to a foreigner. Wladyslaw II., of the [Polish] house of Jagellon, was elected, and thus a king of Bohemia and an old rival of Mathias, united the two crowns of St. Vacsav and St. Stephen—a union which had been so ardently hoped for by Mathias, and for which he had waged the miserable war against Bohemia. . . . The beginning of the new reign was not fortunate. Maximilian [son of the emperor Frederic] recovered the Austrian provinces, and John of Poland declared war against his brother, Wladyslaw, and obliged him to cede part of Silesia to him. Maximilian invaded the west of Hungary, . . . whence he only consented to retire after Wladyslaw had agreed to a treaty, which secured Hungary to the house of Austria, in case of Wladyslaw dying without children. This treaty, in which the king disposed of the country without consulting the diet, roused universal indignation. . . . Meanwhile, the Turks thronged round the southern frontier of the kingdom. Bajazet II. had failed to capture Belgrade in 1492, but he could not be prevented from forcing his way into the valley of the Save, and beating the Hungarian army, which was badly paid and badly disciplined. . . . Wladyslaw had one son, Louis. Surrounded by the net of Austrian diplomacy, he had affianced this son in his cradle to Mary of Austria, the sister of Charles V., and later on he undertook, in defiance of public opinion, to leave the crown to his daughter Anne, who was betrothed to Ferdinand of Austria, if Louis should die without heirs. . . . To add to the miseries of his reign, a peasant rising, a terrible Jacquerie, took place. . . . In 1513, [the chancellor] Cardinal Bacracz came from Rome, bringing with him the papal bull for a crusade against the infidels; whereupon the peasants armed themselves, as if they were about to march against the Turks, and then turned their arms against the nobles. This terrible insurrection is called in Hungarian history the insurrection of the Kurucs (Kouroutses, cruciati) crusaders. . . . The chief leader of the insurrection, the peasant Dosza, was one of the Szeklers of Transylvania. . . . Dosza was beaten in a battle near Temesvar, and fell into the hands of his enemies [led by John Zapolya, voivode of Transylvania and Stephen Batory]. Their vengeance was terrible. The king of the peasants was seated on a throne of fire, and crowned by the executioner with a red-hot crown.

He bore his frightful sufferings with a courage that astonished his adversaries. . . . The feeble Wladyslaw died in 1515, and the reign of the child-king, Louis II., may be summed up in two catastrophes, the loss of Belgrade and the defeat at Mohacs. The young king, married in his cradle, was corrupt and dissolute, and quite incapable of governing, and his guardians could not rise to the height of the occasion. The finances of the kingdom were in great disorder, and the leading barons quarrelled continually over the shreds of sovereignty still left. . . . This state of things was of the greatest use to the Turks, for while Hungary was sinking ever deeper into anarchy, Turkey was ruled by the great sovereign who was called Soliman the Magnificent. It was not long before he found a pretext for war in the arrest of one of his subjects as a spy, and assembled his troops at Sophia, captured Shabats [Szahatch], laid siege to Belgrade and took it, making it thenceforward a Mussulman fortress (1521). The key



LOUIS II

of the Danube was now in the hands of the Turks. . . . King Louis begged for help on every side. . . . The Austrian princes were ready to help him from interested motives; but even when joined with Hungary they were too feeble to conquer the armies of ‘the Magnificent.’ On the 25th of April, 1526, Soliman quitted Constantinople, bringing with him 100,000 men and 300 cannon, taking up arms not only against Hungary, but against the empire. One of the pretexes for his expedition was the captivity of Francis I.; he wished, he said, to save ‘the hey of France’ from the hands of the Germans and their allies the Hungarians. He crossed the Save near Osiek (Essek), captured Petervardin, and came up with the Hungarians at Mohacs, on the right bank of the Danube (August 26, 1526). The Magyar army was commanded by the king in person, assisted by Paul Tomory, archbishop of Kalocsa, one of the warlike bishops of whom Hungary gives us so many examples; by George Szapolyai, and by Peter Perenyi, bishop of Nagy-Varad (Great Varadin). Perenyi wished to treat with the Turks, in order to gain time for help to reach them from Croatia and Transylvania, but the impetuosity of Tomory

decided on immediate battle. . . . At first, it seemed as if the battle was in favour of the Magyars; but Soliman had commanded that the front ranks of his army should give way before the Hungarian cavalry, and that then the main body of his troops should close around them. When the Magyars were thus easily within reach, they were overwhelmed by the Turkish artillery and forced to retreat. They took refuge in some marshy land, in which many of them lost their lives. The king had disappeared; Tomory was slain; seven bishops, 22 barons, and 22,000 men were left upon the field. The road to Buda lay open before the invaders, and after having laid waste the whole country on their way, they reached the capital, where the treasures which Matbias Corvinus had collected in his palace and his library were either carried off or committed to the flames. . . . Then the tide of invasion gradually retired, leaving behind it a land covered with ruins. The independent existence of Hungary ended with Louis II.—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 15.—See also AUSTRIA: 1496-1526.

Also IN: L. Felbermann, *Hungary and its people*, ch. 3.

16th century.—Medieval Reichstag. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

1526-1567.—Election of John Zapolya to the throne.—Rival candidacy and election of Ferdinand of Austria.—Zapolya's appeal to the Turks.—Great invasion by Soliman.—Siege of Vienna.—Sultan master of the greater part of the country.—Progress of the Reformation.—Soliman's last invasion.—"Louis left no heir to the throne, while his wife Mary, archduchess of Austria, far from trying to possess herself of the helm of the state, was already on her way to Vienna, even before the results of the battle of Mohacs had become fully known. The vacant throne found thus an aspirant in John Zapolya, waivod of Transylvania and count of the Zips, who lay encamped with a mighty army at Szegedin, on his march to the plain of Mohacs. . . . The Diet, which met on the plain of Rakos (1526), proclaimed Zapolya king. . . . The day of coronation was soon fixed, the waivod receiving his royal unction at Weisenburg. Stephen Batory, the palatine, however, actuated by envy rather than ambition, first attempted to oppose to the new king the interests of the widow of Louis II. But the Austrian archduchess, unwilling to enter the field as a competitor for the crown, handed over her role to her brother Ferdinand I. of Austria, who was married to Anne, sister of the late Hungarian king. Ferdinand soon repaired to Presburg, a town beyond the reach of Zapolya's arms, where he was elected king of Hungary by an aristocratic party, headed by the palatine Batory, Francis Batthany, Ban of Croatia, and Nadasdy." After a fruitless conference between representatives of the rival kings, they proceeded to war. Zapolya was "master of the whole country, except some parts beyond the Danube," but he remained inactive at Buda until the Austrians surprised him there and forced him to evacuate the capital. "Not able to make head against the foreign mercenaries of Ferdinand. Zapolya was soon obliged to confine himself to the northern frontiers, till he left the kingdom for Poland, there to solicit help and concert measures for the renewal of the war (1528)." Receiving no encouragement from the king of Poland, Zapolya at length addressed himself to the great enemy of Hungary, the sultan Soliman. The Ottoman conqueror made instant preparations to enter Hungary as the champion of its native king. Thereupon "Zapolya organized

a small army, and crossed the frontiers. His army was soon swelled to thousands, and he had possessed himself of the greatest part of Upper, before Soliman began to pour down on Lower Hungary. . . . Proclaiming to the people that his army was not come to conquer, but to assist their elected native king, Soliman marched onwards, took Buda, Gran, and Raab, all of them shamelessly given up by Ferdinand's mercenaries, and moved on opposed to the walls of Vienna [1529]. Ferdinand, in his distress, invoked the assistance of Germany [see GERMANY: 1530-1532]; but his brother [the] emperor, as well as the Diet of Spire, engrossed with Luther and his followers, . . . were not forward to render their assistance. Vienna, however, though neglected by the German emperor, was momentarily saved by the advanced state of the season; for winter being at hand, the Turks, according to their usage at that season, took their way home." The besieging army of Turks is said to have numbered 250,000 men; while the river swarmed with 400 Turkish boats. Twenty fierce assaults were made upon the defenses of the city in as many days. The suburbs were destroyed and the surrounding country terribly ravaged. Before raising the siege, the baffled Turk massacred thousands of captives, under the walls, only carrying away into slavery the young and fair of both sexes. The repulse of Soliman is "an epoch in the history of the world."—E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 9.—"Zapolya, having taken up his position in Buda, ruled over the greatest part of Hungary; while Croatia submitted to Ferdinand. . . . A useless war was thus for a while carried on between the two rival sovereigns, in the midst of which Buda had to sustain a heavy siege conducted by General Rogendorf; but the garrison, though reduced so far as to be obliged to eat horseflesh, succeeded in repelling and routing the Austrian besiegers (1530)." Ferdinand now humbled himself to the sultan, beseeching his friendship and support, but in vain. The war of the rival kings went on until 1538, when it was suspended by what is known as the Treaty of Grosswardein, which conceded to each party possession of the parts of the country which he then occupied; which gave the whole to Zapolya if Ferdinand died without male issue, and the whole to Ferdinand if Zapolya died before him, even though Zapolya should leave an heir—but the heir, in this latter case, was to marry Ferdinand's daughter. This treaty produced immense indignation in the country. "That the never-despairing and ambitious Zapolya meant that step rather as a means of momentary repose, may safely be assumed; but the development of his schemes was arrested by the hand of death (1540), which removed the weary warrior from these scenes of blood, at the very moment when his ears were gladdened by the news that he had become the father of a son." Ferdinand now claimed the undivided sovereignty, according to the terms of the Treaty of Grosswardein; but the queen-dowager Isabella, wife of John Zapolya, maintained the rights of her infant son. She was supported by a strong party, animated and led by one George Martinussius, a priest of extraordinary powers. Both Ferdinand and Isabella appealed to the sultan, as to an acknowledged suzerain. He declared for young Zapolya, and sent an army to Buda to establish his authority, while another Turkish army occupied Transylvania. "Soliman soon followed in person, made his entry into Buda [1541], which he determined to keep permanently occupied during the minority of Sigismund." It remained the seat of a



Turkish pasha until 1686. "Transylvania owned the sway of Sigismund Zapolya, while Ferdinand, in spite of the crown of the German empire, recently conferred upon him, . . . was fain to preserve in Hungary some small districts, contiguous to his Austrian dominions. . . . In the year 1563, Ferdinand convoked his party at Presburg," and prevailed upon them to go through the form of electing his son Maximilian to the Hungarian throne. "Ferdinand soon after died (1564), leaving three sons. Of these, Maximilian succeeded his father in Austria; Ferdinand inherited the Tyrol; and Charles, the youngest son, got possession of Styria. Maximilian, who, in addition to his Austrian dominions, succeeded to the throne of Bohemia and to that of the German empire, proved as impotent in Hungary as his father had been. The Pasha of Buda ruled the greater part of Hungary proper; Sigismund Zapolya continued to maintain his authority in Transylvania. . . . The sectarian spirit, though somewhat later than elsewhere, found also its way into this land of blood, and Hungary was soon possessed of considerable bodies of Lutherans and Calvinists, besides a smaller number of Anabaptists and Socinians. . . . Calvin's followers were mostly Magyars, while Lutheranism found its centre point in the German population of Transylvania." In 1566, Maximilian, encouraged by some subsidies obtained from his German subjects, began hostilities against the Turks and against Sigismund in Transylvania. This provoked another formidable invasion by the great sultan Soliman. The progress of the Turk was stopped, however, at the fortress of Szigeth, by a small garrison of 3,000 men, commanded by Nicholas Zriny. These devoted men resisted the whole army of the Moslems for nearly an entire month, and perished, every one, without surrendering their trust. Soliman, furious at the loss of 20,000 men, and the long delay which their obstinate valor caused him, died of apoplexy while the siege went on. This brought the expedition to an end, and Maximilian "brought a new peace at the hands of Selim II., son of Soliman, for a tribute of 30,000 ducats (1567). Shortly after; Maximilian was also relieved of his rival, John Sigismund Zapolya, who died a sudden death."—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, pt. 2, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: R. W. Fraser, *Turkey, ancient and modern*, ch. 12-13.

1567-1604.—Cession of the principality of Transylvania to the House of Austria, and consequent revolt.—Religious persecutions of Rudolph.—Successful rebellion of Botskai.—Continued war with the Turks.—"John Sigismund dying on the 16th of March, 1571, soon after the peace, all his possessions in Hungary reverted to Maximilian. The diet of Transylvania chose Stephen Bathori, who had acted with great reputation as the general and minister of John Sigismund; and Maximilian, although he had recommended another person, prudently confirmed the choice. . . . The new waivode was accordingly confirmed, both by Maximilian and the Turks, took the oath of fidelity to the crown of Hungary, and continued to live on terms of friendship and concord with the emperor. . . . Maximilian being of a delicate constitution, and declining in health, employed the last years of his reign in taking precautions to secure his dignities and possessions for his descendants. Having first obtained the consent of the Hungarian states, his eldest son Rhodolph was, in 1572, crowned king of Hungary, in a diet at Presburgh." Subsequently, the election of Rudolph by the Bohemian diet was likewise

procured, and he was crowned king of Bohemia on September 22, 1575. A few weeks later, the same son was chosen and crowned king of the Romans, which secured his succession to the imperial dignity. This latter crown fell to him the following year, when Maximilian died. Educated in Spain and by the Jesuits, the new emperor was easily persuaded to reverse the tolerant policy of his father, and to adopt measures of repression and persecution against the Protestants, in the Austrian provinces, in Hungary and in Bohemia, which could not long be endured without resistance. "The first object of Rhodolph had been to secure his dominions in Hungary against the Turks. In order to diminish the enormous expense of defending the distant fortresses on the side of Croatia, he transferred that country, as a fief of the empire, to his uncle Charles, duke of Styria, who, from the contiguity of his dominions, was better able to provide for its security. Charles accordingly constructed the fortress of Carlstadt [near Agram], on the Kulpa, which afterwards became the capital of Croatia, and a military station of the highest importance. He also divided the ceded territory into numerous tenures, which he conferred on freebooters and adventurers of every nation, and thus formed a singular species of military colony. This feudal establishment gradually extended along the frontiers of Slavonia and Croatia, and not only contributed, at the time, to check the incursions of the Turks, but afterwards supplied that lawless and irregular, though formidable military force . . . who, under the names of Croats, Pandours, and other barbarous appellations, spread such terror among the enemies of Austria on the side of Europe. . . . Notwithstanding the armistice concluded with the Sultan by Maximilian, and its renewal by Rhodolph in 1584 and 1591, a predatory warfare had never ceased along the frontiers." The truce of 1591 was quickly broken in a more positive way by Sultan Amurath, whose forces invaded Croatia and laid siege to Siseck. They were attacked there and driven from their lines, with a loss of 12,000 men. "Irritated by this defeat, . . . Amurath published a formal declaration of war, and poured his numerous hordes into Hungary and Croatia. The two following years were passed in various sieges and engagements, attended with alternate success and defeat; but the advantage ultimately rested on the side of the Turks, by the capture of Siseck and Raab. In 1595, a more favourable though temporary turn was given to the Austrian affairs, by the defection of the prince of Transylvania from the Turks. On the elevation of Stephen Bathori to the throne of Poland, his brother Christopher succeeded him as waivode of Transylvania, and, dying in 1582, left an infant son, Sigismund, under the protection of the Porte. Sigismund, who possessed the high spirit and talents of his family, had scarcely assumed the reins of government before he liberated himself from the galling yoke of the Turks, and in 1595 concluded an offensive alliance with the house of Austria. . . . He was to retain Transylvania as an independent principality, the part of Hungary which he still held, and Moldavia and Wallachia. . . . The conquests of both parties were to be equally divided. . . . By this important alliance the house of Austria was delivered from an enemy who had always divided its efforts, and made a powerful diversion in favour of the Turks. Sigismund signalised himself by his heroic courage and military skill; uniting with the waivodes of Moldavia and Wallachia, he defeated the grand vizir,

Sinan, took Turgovitch by storm, and drove the Turks back in disgrace towards Constantinople. Assisted by this diversion, the Austrians in Hungary were likewise successful, and not only checked the progress of the Turks, but distinguished their arms by the recovery of Gran and Vissegrad. This turn of success roused the sultan Mahomet, the son and successor of Amurath. . . . He put himself, in 1596, at the head of his forces, led them into Hungary, took Erlau, and defeating the Austrians under the archduke Maximilian, the lateness of the season alone prevented him from carrying his arms into Austria and Upper Hungary, which were exposed by the loss of Raab and Erlau. As Mahomet could not a second time tear himself from the seraglio, the war was carried on without vigour, and the season passed rather in truces than in action. But this year, though little distinguished by military events, was memorable for the cession of Transylvania to Rhodolph, by the brave yet fickle Sigismund, in exchange for the lordships of Ratibor and Oppelen in Silesia, with an annual pension." The capricious Sigismund, however, soon repenting of his bargain, reclaimed and recovered his Transylvanian dominion, but only to resign it again, in 1590, to his uncle, and again to repossess it. Not until 1602, after much fighting and disorder, was the fickle-minded and troublesome prince sent finally to retirement, in Bohemia. Transylvania was then placed under the government of the imperial general Basta. "His cruel and despotic administration driving the natives to despair, they found a chief in Moses Tzekeli, who, with other magnates, after ineffectually opposing the establishment of the Austrian government, had sought a refuge among the Turks. Tzekeli, at the head of his fellow exiles, assisted by bodies of Turks and Tartars, entered the country, was joined by numerous adherents, and, having obtained possession of the capital and the adjacent fortresses, was elected and inaugurated prince of Transylvania. His reign, however, was scarcely more permanent than that of his predecessor; for, before he could expel the Germans, he was, in 1603, defeated by the new waivode of Wallachia, and killed in the confusion of the battle. In consequence of this disaster, his followers dispersed, and Basta again recovered possession of the principality. During these revolutions in Transylvania, Hungary had been the scene of incessant warfare between the Austrians and the Turks, which exhausted both parties with little advantage to either. . . . Rhodolph had long lost the confidence of his Hungarian subjects. . . . He treated the complaints and remonstrances of his subjects with contempt and indifference; and the German troops being free from control, filled the country with devastation and pillage. While, however, he abandoned the civil and military affairs to chance, or to the will of his officers, he laboured to fetter his subjects with religious restrictions, and the most intolerant edicts were issued against the Protestants, in various parts of the kingdom. . . . The disaffected increasing in numbers, soon found a leader in Stephen Botskai, the principal magnate of Upper Hungary, uncle of Sigismund Bathori. . . . The discontents in Transylvania, arising from the same causes as the rebellion in Hungary, greatly contributed to the success of Botskai. . . . Being in 1604 assisted by a Turkish army, which the new sultan, Achmet, despatched into Transylvania, he soon expelled the Austrians, and was formally inaugurated sovereign. . . . But Botskai [Bocskay] was too disinterested or too prudent to accept the regal dignity [of Hungary, although the grand

vizier of the sultan proclaimed him king]. He acted, however, with the same vigour and activity as if he had a crown to acquire; before the close of the campaign he conquered all Upper Hungary, almost to the walls of Presburg; at the same time the Turks reduced Gran, Vissegrad and Novi-grad."—W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 38-42.

ALSO IN: J. H. M. D'Aubigne, *History of the Protestant church in Hungary*, ch. 12-20.

1595-1606.—Turkish war.—Great defeat at Cereses.—Peace of Sitvatorok.—"The disasters which the Turkish arms were now experiencing in Wallachia and Hungary made the Sultan's best statesmen anxious that the sovereign should, after the manner of his great ancestors, head his troops in person, and endeavour to give an auspicious change to the fortune of the war. . . . The Imperialists, under the Archduke Maximilian and the Hungarian Count Pfalfy, aided by the revolted princes of the Danubian Principalities, dealt defeat and discouragement among the Ottoman ranks, and wrung numerous fortresses and districts from the empire. . . . Mahomet III. left his capital for the frontier. . . . The display of the sacred standard of the Prophet, which now for the first time was unfurled over a Turkish army, excited . . . the zeal of the True Believers. . . . The Grand Vizier, Ibrahim Pacha, Hassan Sokolli Pacha, and Cicala Pacha, were the principal commanders under the Sultan. . . . Archduke Maximilian, who commanded the Imperialists, retired at first before the superior numbers of the great Ottoman army; and the Sultan besieged and captured Erlau. The Imperialists now having effected a junction with the Transylvania troops under Prince Sigismund, advanced again, though too late to save Erlau; and on October 23rd, 1596, the two armies were in presence of each other on the marshy plain of Cereses, through which the waters of the Cincia ooze towards the river Theiss." Repeatedly, the effeminate sultan wished to order a retreat, or to betake himself to flight; but was persuaded by his counsellors to remain on the field, though safely removed from the conflict. On the third day the battle was decided in favor of the Turks by a charge of their cavalry under Cicala. "Terror and flight spread through every division of the Imperialists; and in less than half an hour . . . Maximilian and Sigismund were flying for their lives, without a single Christian regiment keeping their ranks, or making an endeavour to rally and cover the retreat. 50,000 Germans and Transylvanians perished in the marshes or beneath the Ottoman sabre. . . . Mahomet III. eagerly returned after the battle to Constantinople, to receive felicitations and adulation for his victory, and to resume his usual life of voluptuous indolence. The war in Hungary was prolonged for several years, until the peace of Sitvatorok [November 11, 1606] in the reign of Mahomet's successor. . . . No change of importance was made in the territorial possessions of either party, except that the Prince of Transylvania was admitted as party to the treaty, and that province became to some extent, though not entirely, independent of the Ottoman Empire."—E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 12.

1606-1660.—Pacification of Vienna.—Rudolph relinquishes power and regalia to Mathias.—Gabriel Bethlem of Transylvania and the Bohemian revolt.—Participation and experience in the Thirty Years' War.—In 1606, the Archduke Mathias—who had lately been appointed to the governorship of Hungary, and who had been acknowledged, by a secret compact among the

members of the Hapsburg family as the head of their house—arranged the terms of a peace with Botskai. This treaty, called the "Pacification of Vienna," restored the religious toleration that had been practised by Ferdinand and Maximilian; provided that Mathias should be lieutenant-general of the kingdom; gave to Botskai the title of prince of Transylvania and part of Hungary; and stipulated that on the failure of his male issue these territories should revert to the House of Austria. "Botskai died in 1606, and was succeeded by Sigismund Rakoczi, who, however, soon abdicated in favour of Gabriel Bathori." At this time the plans of the Austrian family for taking the reins of power out of the feeble and careless hands of the Emperor Rudolph, and giving them to his more energetic brother, the Archduke Mathias, came to a head (see GERMANY: 1556-1609). Mathias "marched into Bohemia: and Rodolph, after a feeble resistance, found himself abandoned by all his supporters, and compelled to resign into the hands of Mathias Hungary, Austria and Moravia, and to guarantee to him the succession to the crown of Bohemia; Mathias in the meantime bearing the title of king elect of that kingdom, with the consent of the states. Rodolph at the same time delivered up the Hungarian regalia, which for some time past had been kept at Prague." Before his coronation, Mathias was required by the Hungarian diet to sign a compact, guaranteeing religious liberty; stipulating that the Hungarian chamber of finances should be independent of that of Austria, that all offices and employments should be filled by natives, and that the Jesuits should possess no real property in the country. The peace of the country was soon disturbed by another revolution in Transylvania. "Gabriel Bathori, who had succeeded Sigismund Bathori on the throne of the principality, had suffered his licentiousness to tempt him into insulting the wives of some of the nobles, who instantly fell upon him and murdered him; and in his place Gabriel Bethlem, a brave warrior and an able statesman, was unanimously elected, with the consent and approbation of the sultan. Under his government his dominions enjoyed a full measure of peace and tranquillity, and began to recover from the horrible devastations of preceding years. He did not, however, assume his dignity without dispute. Transylvania had been secured to the house of Austria on the death of Botskai, by the Pacification of Vienna, and Mathias was, of course, now anxious to enforce his rights, and he considered the present opportunity (1617) favourable, as the Turks were engaged in wars on the side of Asia and Poland. He therefore summoned a diet of the empire, to the throne of which he had succeeded in 1612 by the death of Rodolph. . . . But the diet refused all aid," and he was forced to conclude a peace with the sultan for the further period of twenty years. "No mention being made in it of Transylvania, the rights of Gabriel Bethlem were thus tacitly recognised. Mathias died soon after, in 1619, leaving his crown to his cousin, Ferdinand II." Then followed the renewed attempt of an imperial bigot to crush Protestantism in his dominions, and the Bohemian revolt (see BOHEMIA: 1611-1618; GERMANY: 1618-1620) which kindled the flames of the Thirty Years' War. Hungary and Transylvania were in sympathy with Bohemia. "Gabriel Bethlem entered Hungary in answer to the call of the Protestants of that country, at the head of a large army." "He was proclaimed king of Hungary, and obtained considerable advantages." But a treaty of peace was concluded at length, accord-

ing to which Gabriel surrendered the crown and royal title, receiving the duchies of Oppeln and Ratibor in Silesia, and seven counties of Hungary, together with Cassau, Tokay, and other towns. Ferdinand promised complete toleration to the Protestants, but was not faithful to his promise, and war was soon resumed. Bethlem "collected an army of 45,000 men, joined his forces with those of Mansfeldt, the general of the confederacy [the Protestant Union], after his victory over the imperialists at Presburg; and at the same time the bashaw of Buda entered Lower Hungary at the head of a large force, captured various fortresses in the district of Gran, and laid siege to Novigrad. They were opposed by two able generals, the famous Wallenstein and Swartzemberg, but without checking their progress. Wallenstein, however, followed Mansfeldt into Hungary, where the two armies remained for some time inactive in the presence of one another; but famine, disease, and the approach of winter at last brought the contest to a close. The king of Denmark had been defeated, and Gabriel Bethlem began to fear that the whole force of the Austrians would now be directed against him, and concluded a truce. The bashaw of Buda feared the winter, and followed his example; and Mansfeldt, finding himself thus abandoned, disbanded his soldiers. . . . The treaty of peace was again renewed, the truce with the Turks prolonged." Gabriel Bethlem, or Bethlem Gabor, died in 1629. "The Transylvanians elected George Rakotski to fill his place, and during nearly four years Hungary and Transylvania enjoyed the blessings of peace." Then they were again disturbed by attempts of Ferdinand to reduce Transylvania to the state of an Austrian province, and by hostile measures against the Protestants. The latter continued after the death of Ferdinand II (1637), and under his son Ferdinand III. Rakotski inspired an insurrection of the Hungarians which became formidable, and which, joining in alliance with the Swedes, then warring in Germany, extorted from the emperor a very favorable treaty of peace (1647). "At the same time Ferdinand caused his son of the same name, and elder brother of Leopold, to be elected and crowned king. During his short reign, the country was tranquil; but in 1654 he died, leaving his rights to Leopold. The reign of Leopold [1655-1697] was a period which witnessed events more important to Hungary than any which preceded it, or have followed it, save only the revolutionary years, 1848-1849. No monarch of the house of Austria had ever made so determined attacks upon Hungarian liberty, and to none did the Hungarians oppose a braver and more strenuous resistance. Nothing was left untried on the one side to overthrow the constitution; nothing was left untried on the other to uphold and defend it."—E. L. Godkin, *History of Hungary*, ch. 15-17. —See also GERMANY: 1624-1626; 1634-1639.

1660-1664.—Turkish attacks on Upper Hungary.—Battle of St. Gothard.—Liberation of Transylvania.—Twenty years' truce.—"Hostilities had recommenced, in 1660, between the Ottoman empire and Austria, on account of Transylvania. The Turk was suzerain of Transylvania, and directly held Buda and the part of Hungary on the west and south of the Danube, projecting like a wedge between Upper Hungary, Styria, and Vienna. George Rakoczi, Prince of Transylvania, having perished in combat against the Sultan, his suzerain, the Turks had pursued the House of Rakoczi into the domains which it possessed in Upper Hungary. The Rakoczis, and the new prince elected by the Transylvanians, Kemcni, invoked

the aid of the emperor. The Italian, Montecuculi, the greatest military chieftain in the service of the House of Austria, expelled the Turks from a part of Transylvania, but could not maintain himself there; Kemeni was killed in a skirmish. The Turks installed their protégé, Michael Abaffi, in his place, and renewed their attacks against Upper Hungary (1661-1662). The secret of these alternations lay in the state of feeling of the Hungarians and Transylvanians, who, continually divided between two oppressors, the Turk and the Austrian, and too weak to rid themselves of either, always preferred the absent to the present master. . . . Religious distrust also complicated political distrust; Protestantism, crushed in Bohemia, remained powerful and irritated in Hungary. The emperor demanded the assistance of the Germanic Diet and all the Christian states against the enemy of Christianity. . . . Louis XIV., at the first request of Leopold, supported by the Pope, replied by offers so magnificent that they appalled the Emperor. Louis proposed not less than 60,000 auxiliaries, half to be furnished by France, half by the Alliance of the Rhine; that is, by the confederates of France in Germany. . . . The Emperor . . . would have gladly been able to dispense with the aid of France and his confederates; but the more pressing danger prevailed over the more remote. The Turks had made a great effort during the summer of 1663. The second of the Kiouprouglis, the Vizier Achmet, taking Austrian Hungary in the rear, had crossed the Danube at Buda with 100,000 fighting men, invaded the country between the Danube and the Carpathians, and buried his Tartars to the doors of Presburg and Olmütz. Montecuculi had with great difficulty been able to maintain himself on the island of Schütt, a species of vast entrenched camp formed by nature in front of Presburg and Vienna. The fortified towns of Upper Hungary fell one after another, and the Germanic Diet, which Leopold had gone to Ratisbon to meet, replied with maddening dilatoriness to the urgent entreaties of the head of the Empire. The Diet voted no effective aid until February, 1664; but the Alliance of the Rhine, in particular, had already accorded 6,500 soldiers, on condition that the Diet should decide, before separating, certain questions relative to the interpretation of the Treaty of Westphalia. The Pope, Spain, and the Italian States furnished subsidies. Louis persisted in offering nothing but soldiers, and Leopold resigned himself to accept 6,000 Frenchmen. He had no reason to repent it. . . . When the junction was effected [July, 1664], the position of the Imperialists was one of great peril. They had resumed the offensive on the south of the Danube in the beginning of the year; but this diversion, contrary to the advice of Montecuculi, had succeeded ill. The Grand Vizier had repulsed them, and, after carrying back his principal forces to the right bank of the Danube, threatened to force the passage of the Raab and invade Styria and Austria. The Confederate army was in a condition to stand the shock just at the decisive moment. An attempt of the Turks to cross the Raab at the bridge of Kerment was repulsed by Coligni [commanding the French], July 26, 1664. The Grand Vizier reascended the Raab to St. Gothard, where were the headquarters of the Confederates, and, on August 1, the attack was made by all the Mussulman forces. The janizaries and spahis crossed the river and overthrew the troops of the Diet and a part of the Imperial regiments; the Germans rallied, but the Turks were continually reinforced, and the whole Mussulman army was

soon found united on the other side of the Raab. The battle seemed lost, when the French moved. It is said that Achmet Kiouprougli, on seeing the young noblemen pour forth, with their uniforms decked with ribbons, and their blond perukes, asked, 'Who are these maidens?' The 'maidens' broke the terrible janizaries at the first shock; the mass of the Turkish army paused and recoiled on itself; the Confederate army, reanimated by the example of the French, rushed forward and charged on the whole line; the Turks fell back, at first slowly, their faces towards the enemy, then lost footing and fled precipitately to the river to recross it under the fire of the Christians; they filled it with their corpses. The fatigue of the troops, the night that supervened, the waters of the Raab, swelled the next day by a storm, and above all the lack of harmony among the generals, prevented the immediate pursuit of the Turks, who had rallied on the opposite bank of the river and had preserved the best part of their cavalry. It was expected, nevertheless, to see them expelled from all Hungary, when it was learned with astonishment that Leopold had hastened to treat, without the approbation of the Hungarian Diet, on conditions such that he seemed the conquered rather than the conqueror. A twenty years' truce was signed, August 10, in the camp of the Grand Vizier. Transylvania became again independent under its elective princes, but the protégé of the Turks, Abaffi, kept his principality; the Turks retained the two chief towns which they had conquered in Upper Hungary, and the Emperor made the Sultan a 'present,' that is, he paid him 200,000 florins tribute."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV.*, v. 1, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *History of the House of Austria*, v. 2, ch. 62.

1668-1683.—Increased religious persecution and Austrian oppression.—Tekeli's revolt.—Turks again called in.—Kara Mustapha's great invasion and siege of Vienna.—Deliverance of the city by John Sobieski.—In Hungary, "the discontent caused by the oppressive Government and the fanatical persecution of Protestantism by the Austrian Cabinet had gone on increasing. At length, the Austrian domination had rendered itself thoroughly odious to the Hungarians. To hinder the progress of Protestantism, the Emperor Leopold, in the excess of his Catholic zeal, sent to the galleys a great number of preachers and ministers; and to all the evils of religious persecution were added the violence and devastations of the generals and the German administrators, who treated Hungary as a conquered province. The Hungarians in vain invoked the charters which consecrated their national liberties. To their most legitimate complaints Leopold replied by the infliction of punishments; he spared not even the families of the most illustrious; several magnates perished by the hands of the executioner. Such oppression was certain to bring about a revolt. In 1668 a conspiracy had been formed against Leopold by certain Hungarian leaders, which, however, was discovered and frustrated; and it was not till 1677, when the young Count Emmerich Tekeli, having escaped from prison, placed himself at the head of the malcontents, that these disturbances assumed any formidable importance. . . . Tekeli, who possessed much military talent, and was an uncompromising enemy of the House of Austria, having entered Upper Hungary with 12,000 men, defeated the Imperial forces, captured several towns, occupied the whole district of the Carpathian Mountains, and compelled the Austrian generals, Counts Wurmb and Leslie, to accept the

truce he offered." In 1681 the emperor made some concessions, which weakened the party of independence, while, at the same time, the Peace of Nimeguen, with France, allowed the House of Austria to employ all its forces against the rebels. "In this conjuncture Tekeli turned for aid towards the Turks, making an appeal to Mahomet IV.; and after the conclusion of the Turkish and Russian war in 1681, Kara Mustapha [the grand vizier] determined to assist the insurgents openly, their leader offering, in exchange, to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Porte. Tekeli sought also succour from France. Louis XIV. gave him subsidies, solicited the Sultan to send an army into Hungary, and caused an alliance between the Hungarians, Transylvanians, and Wallachians to be concluded against Austria (1682). The truce concluded in 1665 between Austria and Turkey had not yet expired [but the sultan was persuaded to break it]. The Governor of Buda received orders to support Tekeli, who took the title of King. . . . Early in the spring of 1683 Sultan Mahomet marched forth from his capital with a large army, which at Belgrade he transferred to the command of Kara Mustapha. Tekeli formed a junction with the Turks at Essek."—S. Menzies, *Turkey, old and new*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 9, sect. 3.—"The strength of the regular forces, which Kara Mustapha led to Vienna, is known from the muster-roll which was found in his tent after the siege. It amounted to 275,000 men. The attendants and camp-followers cannot be reckoned; nor can any but an approximate speculation be made as to the number of the Tartar and other irregular troops that joined the Vizier. It is probable that not less than half a million of men were set in motion in this last great aggressive effort of the Ottomans against Christendom. The Emperor Leopold had neither men nor money sufficient to enable him to confront such a deluge of invasion; and, after many abject entreaties, he obtained a promise of help from King Sobieski of Poland, whom he had previously treated with contumely and neglect. . . . The Turkish army proceeded along the western side of the Danube from Belgrade, and reached Vienna without experiencing any serious check, though a gallant resistance was made by some of the strong places which it besieged during its advance. [The court fled to Linz.] The city of Vienna was garrisoned by 11,000 men under Count Stahremberg, who proved himself a worthy successor of the Count Salm, who had fulfilled the same duty when the city was besieged by Sultan Solyman [1529]. The second siege of Vienna lasted from the 15th July to the 12th September, 1683, during which the most devoted heroism was displayed by both the garrison and the inhabitants. . . . The garrison was gradually wasted by the numerous assaults which it was called on to repulse, and in the frequent sorties, by which the Austrian commander sought to impede the progress of the besiegers. Kara Mustapha, at the end of August, had it in his power to carry the city by storm, if he had thought fit to employ his vast forces in a general assault, and to continue it from day to day, as Amurath IV. had done when Bagdad fell. But the Vizier kept the Turkish troops back out of avarice, in the hope that the city would come into his power by capitulation; in which case he would himself be enriched by the wealth of Vienna, which, if the city were taken by storm, would become the booty of the soldiery. . . . Sobieski had been unable to assemble his troops before the end of August; and, even then, they only amounted to 20,000 men. But he was joined by [Charles] the Duke of Lorraine and

some of the German commanders, who were at the head of a considerable army, and the Polish King crossed the Danube at Tulm, above Vienna, with about 70,000 men. He then wheeled round behind the Kalemberg Mountains to the north-west of Vienna, with the design of taking the besiegers in the rear. The Vizier took no heed of him; nor was any opposition made to the progress of the relieving army through the difficult country which it was obliged to traverse. On the 11th of September the Poles were on the summit of the Mount Kalemberg," overlooking the vast encampment of the besiegers. Sobieski "saw instantly the Vizier's want of military skill, and the exposure of the long lines of the Ottoman camp to a sudden and fatal attack. 'This man,' said he, 'is badly encamped: he knows nothing of war; we shall certainly beat him.' . . . The ground through which Sobieski had to move down from the Kalemberg was broken by ravines; and was so difficult for the passage of the troops that Kara Mustapha might, by an able disposition of part of his forces, have long kept the Poles in check, especially as Sobieski, in his hasty march, had brought but a small part of his artillery to the scene of action. But the Vizier displayed the same infatuation and imbecility that had marked his conduct throughout the campaign. . . . Unwilling to resign Vienna, Mustapha left the chief part of his Janissary force in the trenches before the city, and led the rest of his army towards the hills, down which Sobieski and his troops were advancing. In some parts of the field, where the Turks had partially entrenched the roads, their resistance to the Christians was obstinate; but Sobieski led on his best troops in person in a direct line for the Ottoman centre, where the Vizier's tent was conspicuous; and the terrible presence of the victor of Khoczim was soon recognised. 'By Allah! the King is really among us,' exclaimed the Khan of the Crimea, Selim Ghirai; and turned his horse's head for flight. The mass of the Ottoman army broke and fled in hopeless rout, hurrying Kara Mustapha with them from the field. The Janissaries, who had been left in the trenches before the city, were now attacked both by the garrison and the Poles and were cut to pieces. The camp, the whole artillery, and the military stores of the Ottomans became the spoil of the conquerors; and never was there a victory more complete, or signalled by more splendid trophies. The Turks continued their panic flight as far as Raab. . . . The great destruction of the Turks before Vienna was rapturously hailed throughout Christendom as the announcement of the approaching downfall of the Mahometan Empire in Europe."—E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleon, *Battle-fields of Germany*, ch. 9.

1683-1687.—End of the insurrection of Tekeli.—Bloody vengeance of Austria.—Crown made hereditary in the House of Hapsburg.—The defeat of the Turks was likewise a defeat for the insurgent Tekeli, or Tököli, "whom they called the king of the Kurucz, and after it he found himself reduced to guerilla warfare. The victory over the Turks was followed by the capture of some of the chief Magyar towns . . . and in the end [1686] Buda itself, which was at last recovered after so long an occupation. . . . Kara Mustapha attributed his defeat to Tököli, and had his formerly arrested and imprisoned in Belgrade. His captivity put an end to the party of the king of the Kurucz . . . An amnesty was proclaimed and immediately afterwards violated. the Italian general, Caraffa, becoming the merciless executioner

of imperial vengeance. He established a court at Eperjes, and the horrors of this tribunal recall the most atrocious deeds of the Spaniards in the Low Countries. . . . After having terrorized Hungary, Leopold thought he had the right to expect every sort of concession. Notwithstanding persecution, up to this date the monarchy had remained elective. He was determined it should now become hereditary; and [at Pressburg] the diet of 1687, in conformity with the wishes of the sovereign, made the crown hereditary in the male line of the house of Habsburg."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 20.

**1683-1699.—Expulsion of the Turks.—Battle of Zenta.—Peace of Carlowitz.**—After the great defeat of the Turks before Vienna, their expulsion from Hungary was only a question of time. It began the same autumn, in October, by the taking of Gran. In 1684, the Imperialists under the duke of Lorraine captured Visegrad and Waitzen, but failed in a siege of Ofen (Buda), although they defeated a Turkish army sent to its relief in July. In 1685 they took Neuhausel by storm, and drove the Turks from Gran, which these latter had undertaken to recover. Next year they laid siege again to Ofen, investing the city on June 21, and carrying it by a final assault on September 2. "Ofen, after having been held by the Porte, and regarded as the third city in the Ottoman Empire, for 145 years, was restored to the sway of the Habsburgs." Before the year closed the Austrians had acquired Szegedin, and several lesser towns. The great event of the campaign of 1687 was a battle on the famous field of Mohacs, "a rout as decisive against the Turks as the earlier battle [of 1526] on the same spot had proved to the Jagellons." Transylvania and Slavonia were occupied and Erlau surrendered before the close of the year. In 1688, what seemed the crowning achievement of these campaigns was reached in the recovery of Belgrade, after a siege of less than a month. A Turkish army in Bosnia was destroyed; another was defeated near Nissa, and that city occupied; and at the end of 1689 the Turks held nothing north of the Danube except Temeswar and Grosswardein (Great Waradein); while the Austrians had made extensive advances, on the south of the river, into Bosnia and Servia. Then occurred a great rally of Ottoman energies, under an able grand vizier. In 1690, both Nissa and Belgrade were retaken, and the Austrians were expelled from Servia. But next year fortune favored the Austrians once more and the Turks were severely beaten, by Louis of Baden, on the field of Salankament. They still held Belgrade, however, and the Austrians suffered heavily in another attempt to regain that stronghold. For several years little progress in the war was made on either side; until Prince Eugene of Savoy received the command, in 1697, and wrought a speedy change in the military situation. The sultan, Mustapha II, had taken the Turkish command in person, "with the finest army the Osmanli had raised since their defeat at Mohacs." Prince Eugene attacked him, September 11, at Zenta, on the Theiss, and destroyed his army almost literally. "When the battle ceased about 20,000 Osmanli lay on the ground; some 10,000 had been drowned; scarcely 1,000 had reached the opposite bank. There were but few prisoners. Amongst the slain were the Grand Vizier and four other Viziers. . . . By 10 o'clock at night not a single living Osmanli remained on the right bank of the Theiss. . . . The booty found in the camp surpassed all . . . expectations. Everything had been left by the terror-stricken Sultan. There was the treasury-

chest, containing 3,000,000 piastres. . . . The cost of these spoils had been to the victors only 300 killed and 200 wounded. . . . The battle of Zenta, . . . regarded as part of the warfare which had raged for 200 years between the Osmanli and the Imperialists, . . . was the last, the most telling, the decisive blow." It was followed by a period of inaction, during which England and Holland undertook to mediate between the Porte and its several Christian enemies. Their mediation resulted in the meeting of a congress at Carlowitz, or Karlowitz, on the Danube, which was attended by representatives of the sultan, the emperor, the tsar of Russia, the king of Poland, and the republic of Venice. "Here, after much negotiation, lasting seventy-two days, was concluded, the 26th January, 1699, the famous Peace of Carlowitz. The condition that each party should possess the territories occupied by each at the moment of the meeting of the congress formed its basis. By the treaty, then, the frontier of Hungary, which, when the war broke out, extended only to within a short distance of the then Turkish towns of Gran and Neuhausel, was pushed forward to within a short distance of Temeswar and Belgrade. Transylvania and the country of Bacska, between the Danube and the Theiss, were yielded to the Emperor. To Poland were restored Kaminietz, Podolia, and the supremacy over the lands watered by the Ukraine, the Porte receiving from her in exchange, Soczava, Nemos, and Soroka; to Venice, who renounced the conquests she had made in the gulfs of Corinth and Ægina, part of the Morea, and almost all Dalmatia, including the towns of Castelnovo and Cattaro; to Russia, the fortress and sea of Azof." By the Peace of Carlowitz "the Ottoman Power lost nearly one-half of its European dominions, and ceased to be dangerous to Christendom. Never more would the discontented magnates of Hungary be able to find a solid supporter in the sultan."—G. B. Malleon, *Prince Eugene of Savoy*, ch. 2, 4.—The war in Hungary formed only a part of the War of the "Holy League" against the Turks. See **TURKEY: 1684-1696.**

ALSO IN: E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 17.

**1699-1718.—Revolt of Rakoczy and its suppression.—Treaty of Szathmar.—Recovery of the Banat and of Belgrade.—Final expulsion of the Turks.—Peace of Passarowitz.**—"The peace of Carlowitz, which disposed of the Hungarian territory without the will or knowledge of the Hungarian States, in utter contempt of repeatedly confirmed laws, was in itself a deep source of new discontent,—which was considerably increased by the general policy continually pursued by the Court of Vienna. Even after the coronation of Joseph I., a prince who, if left to himself, might have perhaps followed a less provoking line of conduct, Leopold, the real master of Hungary, did not relinquish his design of entirely demolishing its institutions. . . . The high clergy were ready to second any measure of the government, provided they were allowed full scope in their persecutions of the Protestants. . . . Scarcely had three years passed since the peace of Carlowitz was signed, when Leopold, just embarking in the war of the Spanish succession, saw the Hungarians suddenly rise up as one man in arms. . . . The head and soul of this new struggle in Hungary was Francis Rakoczy II., the son of Helen Zriny by her first husband, after the death of whom she became the wife of Tököli." Rakoczy entered the country from Poland, with a few hundred men, in 1703, and issued a proclamation which brought large

numbers to his support. The Austrian forces had been mostly drawn away, by the war of the Spanish succession, into Italy and to the Rhine, and during the first year of the insurrection the Hungarian patriot became master of the greater part of the country. Then there occurred a suspension of hostilities, while the English government made a fruitless effort at mediation. On the reopening of warfare, the Austrians were better prepared and more encouraged by the circumstances of the larger contest in which they were engaged; while the Hungarians were correspondingly discouraged. They had promises of help from France, and France failed them; they had expectations from Russia, but nothing came of them. "The fortune of war decidedly turned in favour of the imperialists, in consequence of which numerous families, to escape their fury, left their abodes to seek shelter in the national camp; a circumstance which, besides clogging the military movements, contributed to discourage the army and spread general consternation." In 1710 Rakoczy went to Poland, where he was long absent, soliciting help which he did not get. "Before his departure, the chief command of the troops was entrusted to Karoly, who, tired of Rakoczy's prolonged and useless absence in Poland, assembled the nobles at Szathmar, and concluded, in 1711, a peace known as the Treaty of Szathmar. By this treaty the emperor engaged to redress all grievances, civil and religious, promising, besides, amnesty to all the adherents of Rakoczy, as well as the restitution of many properties illegally confiscated. Rakoczy protested from Poland against the peace concluded by Karoly; but of what effect could be the censure and remonstrance of a leader who, in the most critical emergency, had left the scene of action in quest of foreign assistance, which, he might have foreseen, would never be accorded. . . . After the peace of Szathmar, Hungarian history assumes a quite different character." Revolts are at an end for more than a century, and "Hungary, without producing a single man of note, lay in a state of deep lethargy." In 1714, the Emperor Charles VI (who, as King of Hungary, was Charles III) began a new war against the Porte, with Prince Eugene again commanding in Hungary. "The sultan Achmet III., anticipating the design of the imperial general [to concentrate his troops on the Danube], marched his army across the Save, and, as will be seen, to his own destruction. After a small success gained by Palfy, Eugene routed the Turks at Peterwardein [August 13, 1716], and captured besides nearly all their artillery. Profiting by the general consternation of the Turks, Eugene sent Palfy and the Prince of Wurtemberg to lay siege to the fortress of Temesvar, which commands the whole Banat, and which was surrendered by the Turks after a heavy siege. By these repeated disasters the Mussulmans lost all confidence in the success of their arms; and in the year 1717 they opened the gates of Belgrade to the imperial army. The present campaign paved the way for the peace of Passarowitz, a little town in Servia,—a peace concluded between the Porte and the Emperor in 1718. In virtue of the provisions of this treaty, the Porte abandoned the Banat, the fortress of Belgrade, and a part of Bosnia, on the hither side of the Unna, promising besides the free navigation of the Danube to the people of the Austrian empire."—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, pt. 2, ch. 5-6.—See also TURKEY: 1714-1718.

ALSO IN: L. Felhermann, *Hungary and its people*, ch. 4.

1718-1740.—Question of the Austrian succes-

sion.—Pragmatic Sanction. See AUSTRIA: 1718-1738; 1740 (October).

1739.—Belgrade restored to the Turks. See RUSSIA: 1734-1740.

1740-1741.—Beginning of War of the Austrian Succession.—Faithlessness of Frederick the Great.—His seizure of Silesia. See AUSTRIA: 1740-1741.

1741.—War of the Austrian Succession: Maria Theresa's appeal and the Magyar response. See AUSTRIA: 1741 (June-September).

1743.—Treaty of Worms with England and Sardinia. See ITALY: 1743.

1768.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of eastern Europe.

1780-1790.—Irritations of the reign of Joseph II.—Illiberality of the Hungarian nobles.—"The reign of Joseph II. is described by the historians of Hungary and Bohemia as a disastrous time for the two countries. . . . With his philosophical ideas, the crown of Hungary was to him nothing more than a Gothic bauble, and the privileges of the nation only the miserable remains of an age of barbarism. . . . On the 7th of April, 1784, he ordered that the holy crown should be brought to him in Vienna and placed in the imperial treasury. To confiscate this symbol of Hungarian independence was, in the eyes of the Magyars, an attempt at the suppression of the nation itself, and the affront was deeply resented. Up to this time the official language of the kingdom had been Latin, a neutral tongue among the many languages in use in the various parts of Hungary. Joseph believed he was proving his liberal principles in substituting German, and that language took the place of Latin. . . . It is not wise to attack the dearest prejudices of a nation. The edict which introduced a foreign language was the signal for the new birth of Magyar. . . . At the time of the death of Joseph II. Hungary was in a state of violent disturbance. The 'comitat' of Pesth proclaimed that the rule of the Hapsburgs was at an end, and others threatened to do the same unless the national liberties were restored by the new sovereign. All united in demanding the convocation of the diet in order that the long-suppressed wishes of the people might be heard. The revolutionary wind which had passed over France had been felt even by the Magyars, but . . . in Hungary, the great nobles and the squirearchy who formed the only political element claimed, under the name of liberties, privileges which were for the most part absolutely opposed to the ideas of the Revolution of 1789. . . . Among the late reforms only one had found favour in the eyes of the Magyars, and that was toleration towards Protestants, and the reason of this was to be found in the fact that the small landowners of Hungary were themselves to a large extent Protestant; yet a democratic party was gradually coming into existence which appealed to the masses. . . . When France declared war against Francis II. the Magyar nobles showed themselves quite ready to support their sovereign; they asked for nothing better than to fight the revolutionary democrats of Paris. Francis was crowned very soon after his accession, and was able to obtain both men and money from the diet; but before long, the reactionary measures carried by Thugut his minister, lost him all the popularity which had greeted him at the beginning of his reign. The censorship of the press, the employment of spies, and the persecution of the Protestants—a persecution, however, in which the Hungarian Catholics themselves took an active part—all helped to create discontent."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 23, 28.

1787-1791.—War with the Turks.—Treaty of Sistova. See TURKEY: 1776-1792.

1788-1906.—Forest management. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Hungary.

1809.—War between Austria and France.—Austrian reverses in Hungary. See GERMANY: 1809 (January-June).

1825-1844.—Awakening of the national spirit.—Patriotic labors of Szechenyi.—Kossuth.—Steam navigation of the Danube.—Political agitation in Magyar language.—“Latin was the language of the diet, and of all legal and official documents, and German and French were alone used in good society. Szechenyi . . . rose in the diet of 1825, and, contrary to previous usage, made a speech in Magyar. His colleagues were surprised; the magnates were shocked; the nation was electrified. . . . The diet sat for two years, and during the whole of that period Szechenyi continued his use of the native language, in which he strenuously opposed the designs of the court, and was soon considered the leader of the opposition or liberal party, which speedily grew up around him. His efforts were so successful, that before the close of the session, Francis was compelled to acknowledge the illegality of his previous acts, formally to recognize the independence of the country, and promise to convoke the diet at least once in every three years. . . . He [Szechenyi] soon had the satisfaction of seeing the Hungarian language growing to general use, but he was still vexed to see the total want of unity, co-operation, and communion which prevailed amongst the nobles, owing to the want of a newspaper press, or of any place of reunion where political subjects could be discussed amongst men of the same party with freedom. . . . He next turned his attention to the establishment of steam navigation on the Danube. . . . He . . . rigged out a boat, sailed down the Danube right to the Black Sea, explored it thoroughly, found it navigable in every part, went over to England, studied the principles of the steam-engine as applied to navigation, brought back English engineers, formed a company, and at last confounded the multitude of sceptics, who scoffed at his efforts, by the sight of a steam-boat on the river in full work. This feat was accomplished in October, 1830. . . . In the interval which followed the dissolution of the diet, Szechenyi still followed up his plan of reform with unwearied diligence, and owing to his exertions, a party was now formed which sought not merely the strict observance of the existing laws, but the reform of them, the abolition of the unjust privileges of the nobles, the emancipation of the peasantry, the establishment of a system of education, the equal distribution of the taxes, the equality of all religious sects, the improvement of the commercial code and of internal communication, and though last, not least, the freedom of the press. . . . The next meeting [of the diet] in 1832, . . . proved in many respects one of the most important that had ever assembled. . . . The man who in future struggles was destined to play so prominent a part, during the whole of these . . . proceedings, was merely an intent and diligent looker-on. . . . He was a gentleman of noble origin, of course, but his whole fortune lay in his talents, which at that period were devoted to journalism—a profession which the Hungarians had not yet learned to estimate at its full value. He was still but thirty years of age, and within the diet he was known as a promising young man, although, amongst the world without, his name—the name of Louis Kossuth, which has since become a household word in two hemispheres—had never yet been heard. . . .

Whether from the jealousy of the government or the apathy of the Magyars, no printed reports of the parliamentary proceedings had ever yet been published. . . . To supply this defect, Kossuth resolved to devote the time, which would otherwise have been wasted in idle listening, to carefully reporting everything that took place, and circulated it all over the country on a small printed sheet. The importance of the proceedings which then occupied the attention of the diet caused it to be read with extraordinary eagerness, and Kossuth rendered it still more attractive by amplifying, and often even embellishing, the speeches. The cabinet, however, soon took the alarm, and although the censorship was unknown to the Hungarian law, prohibited the printing and publication of the reports. This was a heavy blow, but Kossuth was not baffled. He instantly gathered round him a great number of young men to act as secretaries, who wrote out a great number of copies of the journal, which were then circulated in manuscript throughout Hungary. The government was completely foiled, and new ardour was infused into the liberal party. When the session was at an end he resolved to follow up his plan by reporting the meetings of the county assemblies, which were then the scenes of fiery debates. . . . The government stopped his journal in the post-office. He then established a staff of messengers and carriers, who circulated it from village to village. The enthusiasm of the people was fast rising to a flame. A crisis was imminent. It was resolved to arrest Kossuth. . . . He was seized, and shut up in the Neuhaus, a prison built at Pesth by Joseph II. He was, however, not brought to trial till 1830, and was then sentenced to four years' imprisonment. The charge brought against him was, that he had circulated false and inaccurate reports; but the real ground of offence was, as everyone knew, that he had circulated any reports at all. . . . Kossuth, after his liberation from prison, had taken up his abode for a short period at a watering place called Parad, for the purpose of recruiting his shattered health, and for a time wholly abstained from taking any part in public affairs. On the first of January, 1841, however, a printer in Pesth, named Landerer, obtained permission to publish a journal entitled 'Pesthi Hirlap,' or the Pesth Gazette. He offered the editorship to Kossuth, who accepted it, but only on condition that he should be perfectly untrammelled in the expression of his opinions. . . . Kossuth . . . soon raised the circulation of his paper to 10,000 copies—an immense number in a country where the newspaper press had hitherto hardly had a footing. He made vigorous onslaughts upon the privileges of the noblesse, and pleaded the cause of the middle and lower classes unanswerably.”—E. L. Godkin, *History of Hungary*, ch. 21.—In the *Pesthi Hirlap* the novelist, Eötvös, spread his progressive ideas. At this time “the constitution of Hungary, which since the Middle Ages had been imposed on the Kings by the Magyar aristocracy, established a central assembly, the Diet, to govern the kingdom in harmony with the King and 55 local assemblies, one in each county (*comitat*). . . . The Diet which met in 1832 demanded a more completely Hungarian government: more frequent visits by the Emperor to Hungary, the holding of the Diet, not at Presburg, a German city on the border, but at Pesth, the Magyar capital, in the heart of the country,—also the use of Magyar as the official language in place of Latin. On national policy all the Magyars were agreed; on liberal reforms they were divided. A liberal party was organized,



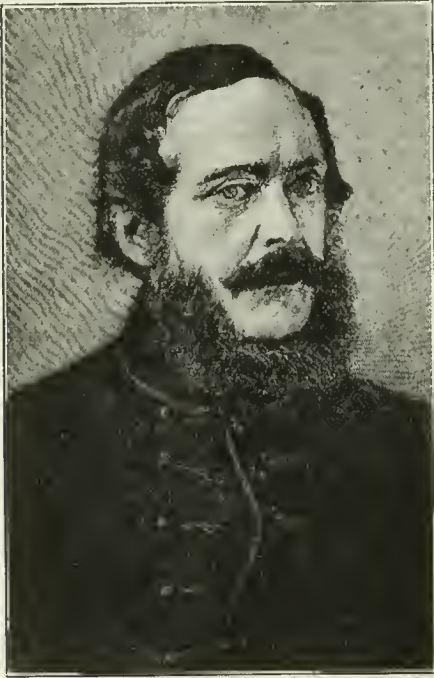
which proposed to reform the constitution and society, as well as a conservative party which wished to maintain the old *régime* with an exclusively Magyar government. Society in Hungary was still organized as in the Middle Ages, divided into two classes unequal before the law: the nobles, the only full citizens, exempt from taxation of any kind, owing no military service but in the general call to arms (*insurrectio*); the peasants, tenants of the nobility, burdened with rents and *corvées*, paying all the taxes, furnishing all the recruits for the army, and possessing no political rights whatever. The nobles alone constituted the political nation; there were, however, a great many of them; many lived in the country, as poor and uneducated as the peasantry. The administration of the country belonged to the nobles. At certain intervals, all the nobles of the county met in *congregatio* to make *reparatio*, that is, to elect officers, judges, administrators, and financial employees. . . . A lively description of an election is given by one of the liberal chiefs, Eötvös, in 'The Village Notary,' a romance of customs [translated into English]."—C. Seignobos, *Political history of Europe since 1814*, pp. 406-408.

1825-1848.—Hungarian Reichstag.—March laws.—Constituent convention elected on plan of universal suffrage.—Imperial proclamation of May 16, 1848.—Kremsier constitution. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

1847-1849.—War of National Independence and its failure.—"The disputes between Hungary and the Vienna cabinet were of ancient date. Hungary aimed at the greatest possible independence from Austria—at a mere personal union in which even the army and the revenue should be dependent on the good-will of the Hungarian parliament. The Vienna cabinet, seeing in this the beginning of the dismemberment of the polyglot empire, sought, as far as possible, to evade the consequences of the Hungarian constitution. Louis Kossuth was regarded as the soul of the new opposition—a lawyer and journalist, who shone neither by reason of vast knowledge nor special endowments as a statesman, but, that which is of most weight in times of excitement, by the possession of an irresistible eloquence. Kossuth had been the chief agitator in the matter of the protective-union, by which the use of Austrian manufactures was interdicted for the benefit of native industry, so that even the richest families went clothed in coarse material. His importance increased when he was elected to parliament in 1846. There his position was like that of an officer in command of his regiment. On the 12th of November, 1847, Emperor Ferdinand opened the last parliament in Presburg with a speech from the throne in the Hungarian tongue, therein making a concession to the decision of the parliament that Hungarian was to be used as the official language instead of Latin. Out of gratitude Archduke Stephen was chosen Palatinus (viceroy) of Hungary by the parliament in place of his father, Joseph, recently deceased. After the February revolution [in France] the tone of the parliament became constantly bolder. Kossuth's speech of March 3d, calling for a constitution for all the various Austrian lands suggested the immediate aim of the Vienna revolution of March 13th; and when, on the 15th, a Hungarian deputation came to Vienna to lay before the emperor an address embodying the demands of the parliament, Kossuth was the lion of the day. As others have done under the same circumstances, the emperor promised everything. August 10th he closed the parliament in person, confirming its decisions with

regard to a separate ministry, universal suffrage in the election of delegates, union of Hungary and Transylvania, abolition of the freedom from taxation enjoyed by the nobility, and abrogation of all feudal burdens. The new Hungarian ministry, in which Count Louis Batthyani presided and Kossuth administered the finances, established itself in Pesth, where from that time the sessions of the Hungarian Reichstag were held. The first one held at that place was opened by Archduke Stephen, as sovereign representative of the emperor, July 5th, 1848. It consisted of the Table of Magnates, which was now called the Upper House, and the Table of Estates, or Lower House. It was a necessary consequence of the prevailing spirit that the first of these, formerly of over-weening importance, should sink into insignificance, while the latter came to the front or rather was pushed into that position by the Pesth students and the youth in general. These gentlemen, as was the case in Vienna, dictated the policy to be pursued, and already acted as though for them Austria no longer existed. They refused to assume a part of the Austrian national debt, and treated the Hungarian dependencies—Croatia, Slavonia, and the Military Frontier, with Transylvania—with the same disregard to their wishes which they had indignantly complained of in their own treatment by the Austrian government. This bore its fruit. A deputation of Magyars in Vienna demanded and obtained the union of these provinces with Hungary to form one great kingdom; but at the same time, in order to avert this threatened evil, a Croatian deputation was besieging the imperial cabinet with entreaties for complete separation from Hungary, and for the erection into a triple kingdom of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia, with the Military Frontier. This would at the same time have given these countries greater independence with reference to Austria. This jealousy of the various nationalities was used by the Austrian government for the purpose of checking, waging war upon, and putting down one by means of the other. Baron Jellachich, a Magyar hater, who was very popular at court, was named *Banus* [ban] of Croatia, and the government supported him in his preparations against Hungary. Although it removed him at the complaint of the Hungarian ministry, yet it restored him to office when the court espoused his cause. Jellachich set himself at the head of his troops and marched into Hungary as the champion of a united Austria, while in the south-east, in the Banate, the Servians and Frontiers-men were skirmishing with the Hungarian soldiers. To make head against present and prospective dangers, Kossuth carried through the Reichstag a levy of 200,000 national troops (*honveds*), and the issue of 42,000,000 *gulden* (\$21,000,000) paper-money (Kossuth-notes). Matters had become so complicated on all sides that only the sword could loose the knot. Archduke Stephen's attempts at mediation were vain. He laid down his office as *Palatinus*, and withdrew into a sort of voluntary exile on his hereditary estate of Scaumburg, on the Lahn. Batthyani left the ministry, and all the power was in the hands of Kossuth and the war party. To avoid hostilities, the court intrusted Count Lamberg, Batthyani's friend, with the chief command of all the Hungarian and Croatian forces, provisionally superseding Jellachich. When Lamberg reached Pesth he learned that the Reichstag had protested against his appointment. The populace suspected treason on the part of Austria, and on the 27th of September Lamberg was hacked to death by the mob with axes and clubs on the bridge of boats across

the Danube. This revolting murder and the feeble prosecution of the murderers called forth the imperial manifesto of October 3d, dissolving the Reichstag, pronouncing its acts invalid, except in so far as they had been confirmed by the emperor, placing all Hungary under martial law, and making Jellachich governor of Hungary and commander-in-chief of the Hungarian troops. The Hungarian Reichstag on its part declared the manifesto illegal and invalid, and Jellachich guilty of high treason. The committee of national defence, which had been in existence since the 22d of September, now resolved itself into a provisional government, with Kossuth as dictator. Jellachich was driven back to the Austrian frontier, and [war minister] Latour's endeavor to send him re-enforcements from Vienna resulted in the October revolution in that city and Latour's murder.



LOUIS KOSSUTH

Then Jellachich was recalled from Hungary to assist in subduing Vienna [which was in revolt], and was placed under the command of Prince Windischgráz. The latter, the conqueror of Prague and Vienna, seemed to be the right man to reduce Hungary to subjection. His programme was the indivisible Austrian empire, with the central government in Vienna. As the Emperor Ferdinand had in the most solemn manner granted concessions to Hungary which were inconsistent with this programme, his abdication took place on the 2d of December, and Francis Joseph ascended the throne in his stead. The Reichstag protested, and refused to acknowledge the new emperor until he had been crowned king of Hungary and sworn to the constitution. [To suppress Hungary] Windischgráz was put in command of more than 100,000 men, and on the 15th of December he began his advance with the main army along the upper Danube, while smaller divisions entered Hungary from Moravia, Galicia, Transylvania, and Styria, under Simonich, Schlick, Puchner, and Nu-

gent respectively. The plan was to surround the Hungarians completely and make a common movement on Pesth. To carry this out a resolute advance of the main army, and exact co-operation of all the divisions, were essential. Both requisites were wanting. Windischgráz drove the Hungarians back, and took the cities of Oedenburg, Presburg, and Raab. He demanded unconditional submission, and refused even to give audience to a deputation from the Reichstag. January 5th, 1849, he entered Buda-Pesth. The government and the Reichstag had shortly before removed to Debreczin, while the army had retreated southward. Windischgráz remained three precious months at Buda. . . . Schlick was repulsed by Görgei and Klapka. Puchner, with the 10,000 Russians he had called to his assistance, was chased out of Transylvania into Wallachia by the Polish Bem, who found allies in the Szeklians of Transylvania. In the Banate the Hungarians were also successful. Fortunately for the Austrians, Kossuth made a military and political blunder in appointing Dembinski, a Pole, commander-in-chief. He was not fit for the task; as a foreigner, the jealous Hungarian generals did not yield him ready obedience; and his appointment, by giving the war a new objective in Poland might bring Russia into the conflict. He advanced on Pesth, but was defeated at Kopolna on the 26th of February; then the army demanded his removal, and Kossuth had to yield. In contrast with this failure, Görgei, whose generalship threw that of all others into the shade, and who, with the exception of Kossuth, had the most popular name in Hungary, moved forward in the direction of Pesth with 50,000 men, and defeated Prince Windischgráz's forces between Gödöllo and Isaszeg on April 6th. The Olmütz cabinet now perceived that bombarding cities and conquering warlike nations were two wholly different matters. Windischgráz was recalled, and the command conferred on General Welden who was not one whit more capable. He evacuated Pesth, leaving in Buda a garrison commanded by the gallant General Henzi, a Switzer. Görgei received orders to storm Buda. Notwithstanding a courageous resistance on the part of General Henzi, who lost his life in the fight, the city was carried on the 21st of May. But the disagreement among the leaders of the revolution had already reached an alarming point. April 14th, as the Schwarzenberg ministry had published a constitution for all Austria, and so reduced Hungary to the level of the other provinces, Kossuth, against Görgei's wishes and advice, caused the Reichstag at Debreczin to declare 'the House of Hapsburg deprived of its dominion and banished from Hungary forever.' Hungary was now an independent state—a republic in the midst of the old monarchies—certain of being looked upon in any case as threatening danger to all its neighbors. Kossuth was named chief of the republic, as responsible governor-president of Hungary. He surrounded himself with a new ministry, in which the jealous Görgei was minister of war as well as commander-in-chief. The Reichstag was again transferred to Pesth. . . . There were two things which Kossuth's sentimental statesmanship had not taken into account—that Austria would become master in Italy so quickly, and that a second power might intervene. But owing to the participation of Poles in the Hungarian war for freedom, and to the neighborhood of the two countries, the latter contingency was a very probable one. No one doubted that, the independence of Hungary once achieved, Poland could no longer be held back. Hence Czar Nicholas did not hesitate for a moment to fulfil Francis Joseph's wish; and

at the same time he hoped by such a service to chain the youthful monarch securely to his policy, and, when occasion offered, require from him a service in return. With Russia's interference the matter was as good as decided. Hungary's further resistance was nothing but an heroic death-struggle. While Paskevitch with 80,000 Russians marched across the Carpathian mountains and advanced toward the upper Danube, other Russian divisions entered Transylvania from Bukovina and Wallachia, Jellachich reappeared in southern Hungary with a Servian-Croatian army, and Haynau crossed the Raab and moved on Komorn from the west. After several days' fighting, Görgei left General Klapka behind in Komorn, and fell back across the Theiss; and on the 12th of July Haynau entered the sister cities of Buda-Pesth. For the second time Kossuth had to leave the capital. The Reichstag and paper-money press, the latter of which had been busily at work in the mean time, were transferred to Szegedin, on the Theiss, and finally to Arad, on the Maros. On his retreat Görgei succeeded in inflicting a defeat upon the Russians under Rüdiger at Waizen. By masterly manœuvring he carried his army safely through the midst of the Russian forces to Arad. But neither Bem nor Dembinski could succeed in making head against their opponents. The former was defeated by the Russian General Lüders at Schässburg (July 31st) and other places, and driven out of Transylvania; and Haynau, advancing rapidly, defeated the latter at Szöreg and Temesvar (August 5th and 9th). The Hungarian troops were concentrated at Arad. Great indecision prevailed at head-quarters, and only a military dictatorship appeared to hold out some slight hope. Kossuth was obliged to lay down his office as governor on the 10th of August and Görgei assumed the dictatorship. On the 13th of August, with 23,000 men and 130 guns, he surrendered to the Russian General Rüdiger at Vilagos [20 miles northeast of Arad], with the knowledge and consent of Kossuth and the government. There was nothing more to be won [by him] yet the nation had expected a different conclusion. The hope of obtaining more favorable terms for his country, the wish, after so much had been done for military honor, to avoid useless bloodshed, dislike of the Polish generals and the republican government, which had several times been on the point of depriving him of the chief command—all these things had influenced Görgei to take this surprising step, about which he had already been for some time in negotiation with Paskevitch. Haynau's mortification that Görgei had surrendered to the Russians and not to him was not diminished by Prince Paskevitch's proud report to Czar Nicholas: 'Hungary lies conquered at the feet of your majesty.' Haynau could justly retort that it was the Austrian army which had in six battles brought the foe to the point of annihilation and effected the surrender of Görgei's corps. Görgei received a pardon for his own person merely, and from that time on lived for the most part in retirement at Klagenfurt. After the catastrophe of Vilagos all the fortresses capitulated; Komorn, where Klapka commanded, holding out until September 27th. The smaller detachments of troops surrendered, the *honveds* hurried home. Only about 5000 men, with Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, and others, took refuge in Turkey, which afforded them an asylum in spite of the threats of Austria and Russia. Haynau inflicted a severe chastisement on those who remained behind or were captured. Courts-martial were set up in Pesth and Arad. Many of Hungary's best men were con-

demned to powder and lead, or to the gallows; among others Count Batthyani, the former prime-minister. The property of fugitives and condemned persons was confiscated. Many pined away in prison; several thousands were drafted into the Austrian army. The constitution was annulled, and Hungary treated like a newly-conquered country, as though it had forfeited all its former rights."—W. Müller, *Political history of recent times*, pp. 230-244.—See also AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

ALSO IN: F. Deák, *Hungarian statesman: A memoir*, ch. 14.

1849-1850.—Contemplated recognition of the revolutionary government by the United States.—Hülsemann letter. See U. S. A.: 1850-1851.

1849-1859.—Completed emancipation of the peasantry.—Restoration of pure absolutism. See AUSTRIA: 1840-1859.

1856-1868.—Recovery of nationality.—Formation of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy.—In 1856 Francis Joseph, "proclaimed an amnesty against the political offenders, and in the following year he decreed the restoration of their estates, and further steps were taken to study the wishes of the Hungarians. In 1859 other concessions were made, notably as to provincial Governments in Hungary, and they were given free administration as to their educational and religious rites in the Magyar tongue. In 1860 the 'Curia Regia' were reinstated, and finally, in 1861, the whole Constitution was restored to Hungary and its dependencies, Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia [by the 'February Patent']."—L. Felbermann, *Hungary and its people*, ch. 5.—"No arrangement could be permanent in the Hapsburg dominions which was unsatisfactory to the Magyars, or Hungarians, the most militant element in the Empire. The Hungarians were unalterably opposed to the constitution of 1861 for by treating their country as a province it did not recognize what they claimed were the historic rights of Hungary as a separate nation. They even threatened revolution, but they were held in check by Francis Deák, the one-time associate of Louis Kossuth and now the trusted leader of the Hungarian people. What Deák desired was not independence, but complete autonomy which would allow Hungary to live her own national life and yet permit her to coöperate with Austria in matters which directly concerned them both; in short, an *intimate* alliance between the two countries. The Government at Vienna refused to concede to Hungary's demand, and there began a deadlock between the two which lasted for five years. But the crushing defeat of Austria in the Seven Weeks' War and the consequent loss of Venetia changed the mood of the Government. 'What does Hungary want?' now asked the Emperor of Deák. 'Only what she wanted before Sadowa,' was the reply. In 1867 the 'February Patent' was abrogated, and, instead, a new constitution, known as the *Ausgleich*, or Compromise, was promulgated. This famous document was the work largely of two Hungarians, Deák and Count Julius Andrassy, and of Emperor Francis Joseph and his Minister, Count Beust."—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, pp. 425-426.—"It is significant that the clever manipulator who devised the *Ausgleich* in 1867, and who, therefore, was really the creator of the Dual Monarchy as such, namely, Count Beust, was not a native but a Saxon. He had, it is true, achieved considerable fame as the all-powerful premier of that tiny kingdom of Saxony which had unflinchingly been the steady and self-sacrificing friend and supporter of Austria, a friendship really worthy of a better cause. The fame, too, which he had ac-

quired reached far beyond the narrow boundaries of Saxony, and even of Germany and Austria. Count Beust was very ambitious; a man of original mind and of great fertility of resources. . . . When the Emperor Francis Joseph after the Peace of Prague looked around for a suitable man of talent to set up his house again and make it habitable, his choice fell on Beust. . . . [a statesman] unburdened with the traditions and historic claims, with the racial prejudices and predilections that, perhaps, unwittingly but none the less surely cling to every representative of any one group or race within Austria-Hungary. . . . He succeeded in his delicate and difficult task largely because he was a foreigner, a non-Austrian, one to whom no suspicion of wilful unfairness could reasonably attach."—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, pp. 70-72.—By the agreement of 1867, the "Austro-Hungarian Dual Monarchy, as also described in the able 'Memoir' of Francis Deak, to which Sir Mountstuart E. Grant-Duff wrote a preface, is constituted as follows: I. The Common Ministry for the Austro-Hungarian monarchy consists of a Minister for Foreign Affairs, for War, and for Finance. II. In each half of the monarchy there is a separate Ministry of Worship, of Finance, Commerce, Justice, Agriculture, and National Defence, headed respectively by a Minister-President of the Council. III. The Lower House in the Austrian Reichsrath consists of 353 members, in the Hungarian Diet of 444, now chosen in both cases by direct election. IV. The Delegations, composed respectively of sixty members from each half of the monarchy, are elected annually from amongst their parliamentary representatives of the majority in each province by the members of the two Houses of the Austrian and Hungarian Legislatures. V. The two Delegations, who meet alternately at Vienna and Budapest, deliberate separately, their discussions being confined strictly to affairs of common interest, with regard to which the Delegations have the right to interpellate the Common Minister and to propose laws or amendments. In case of disagreement between the two Delegations the question of policy at issue is discussed by an interchange of written messages, drawn up in the official language—German or Hungarian—of the Delegation sending the message, and accompanied by an authorized translation in the language of the Delegation to which it is addressed. VI. If, after the interchange of three successive notes, an agreement between the two bodies is not arrived at, the question is put to the vote by ballot without further debate. The Delegates, of whom in a plenary session there must be an equal number present from each Delegation, vote individually, the Emperor-King having the casting vote. VII. By virtue of the present definition of common affairs, the cost of the diplomatic service and the army, except the Honvéds (militia), is defrayed out of the Imperial revenues, to which Hungary contributes a proportion of 30 per 100. VIII. With reference to the former, it is stipulated that all international treaties be submitted to the two Legislatures by their respective Ministries; with reference to the latter, that whilst the appointment to the military command of the whole army, as also to that of the national force of Hungary, is in the hands of the Sovereign, the settlement of matters affecting the recruiting, length of service, mobilization, and pay of the Honvéd army (the militia) remains with the Hungarian Legislature. IX. Those matters which it is desirable should be subject to the same legislation, such as customs, indirect taxation, cur-

rency, etc., etc., are regulated by means of treaties, subject to the approval of the two Legislatures. In cases where the two parties are unable to come to an agreement, each retains the right to decide such questions in accordance with their own special interests. X. In common affairs, the decisions arrived at by the Delegations (within the scope of their powers), and sanctioned by the Sovereign, become thenceforth fundamental laws; each Ministry is bound to announce them to its respective National Legislature, and is responsible for their execution."—L. Felhermann, *Hungary and its people*, ch. 5.—"The *Ausgleich* is renewable every ten years. . . . Austria, being both the more populous and the wealthier half of the Dual Monarchy, has heretofore had to pay, as her share towards the upkeep of joint institutions, such as the army and navy, the customs department, etc., two-thirds of the whole, leaving but one-third to Hungary. Even this has not satisfied Hungary, and there has always been necessary the greatest amount of patience and of self-control on the part of the delegations to come to a solution, especially as the press of the two countries has naturally taken sides for or against each debatable paragraph."—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, p. 134.—"Since part of Austria is somewhat interested in industry and Hungary is preëminently agricultural, there has naturally been a conflict between the *differing economic interests* of the two. When it has been necessary to arrange a tariff or make commercial treaties, Austria has desired protection for her manufacturing, Hungary has sought to give greater aid to her farmers. In general the Dual Monarchy has solved this rather difficult problem by protecting both industry and agriculture. Whenever a new *Ausgleich* has been necessary, there has been a bitter, and in some cases prolonged, struggle between the two members to gain better terms for themselves. In these contests the advantage has usually been with Hungary, which is more highly centralized and united territorially, and is more completely controlled by her dominating statesmen."—R. L. Ashley, *Modern European civilization*, p. 387.—"Austria since 1867, owing to the terms of this *Ausgleich* which vouchsafed to that country, practically if not in express terms, the whole Hungarian market for industrial and commercial exploitation, has made enormous strides in manufacturing. . . . But in Hungary there had been from the start a strong and influential part of the nation wholly dissatisfied with the *Ausgleich*, not only from political motives, but from economic ones as well. This section, the chief-mouth-piece of which is the Independence Party, with men like the Karolyis, the Apponyis, the Batthyans, the Jusths, the Ugrons at the head, argued that this complete economic dependence of Hungary on Austria in all questions of industry and finance, worked not alone against complete separation—an ideal striven for by this party—but also against the future rise of Hungary as an industrially potent country. . . . To make this possible at all, the Hungarian government had to subventionise all these [her native] manufacturers; to grant them loans on easy terms; to pay premiums for finished products of a certain degree of excellence; to donate large sites; to abate taxes; to let in raw materials duty-free; to hold expositions and spend state money on advertising. . . . Thus, Austria, having adjusted her own production to suit the needs of Hungary, felt she was not treated equably when Hungary made every effort, even at great sacrifice, to make herself independent of Austrian industry."—W. von Schier-

brand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, pp. 131-133.—See also AUSTRIA: 1866-1867; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

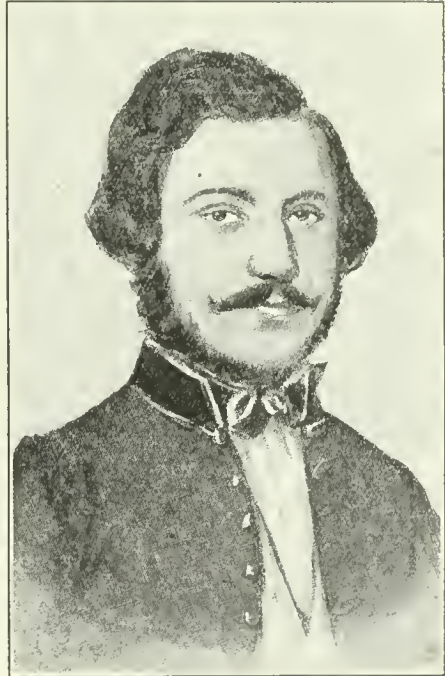
ALSO IN: *F. Deák, Hungarian statesman*, ch. 26-31.—Count von Beust, *Memoirs*, v. 2, ch. 38.

1867-1918.—Suffrage under the Dual Monarchy. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

1868.—Law of nationalities.—“In 1868 Hungary passed a law, proposed by Francis Deák, which guaranteed the ‘equal rights of nationalities’ within that kingdom. This law has been a dead letter, however, since Deák’s influence ceased. . . . In consequence, the subject races of Hungary always oppose Magyar rule and are ready to revolt against Hungarian oppression if there is possibility of success.”—R. L. Ashley, *Modern European civilization*, p. 388.—In spite of the efforts of Deák and Eötvös equal rights of nationalities were materially lessened through each succeeding ministry, until by the time of Bitto (Szlavy’s successor) the law had become entirely impotent.

1868-1890.—Equal rights of nationalities.—Nullified by Magyar politics.—Rule of Tisza.—“It would have been possible for the Magyars, after the restoration of the Hungarian Constitution under the Dual Settlement of 1867, to have built up a strong and elastic Transleithan polity based on the recognition of race individualities and equality of political rights for all. The non-Magyars would have accepted Magyar leadership the more readily in that they had been dragooned and oppressed by Austria during the period of reaction after 1849 as ruthlessly as the Magyars themselves. Deák and Eötvös, who were the last prominent Magyar public men with a Hungarian, as distinguished from a narrowly Magyar, conception of the future of their country, pleaded indeed for fair treatment of the non-Magyars, and trusted to the attractive force of the strong Magyar nucleus to settle automatically the question of precedence in the State. But in 1875, when Koloman Tisza, the father of Count Stephen Tisza, took office, these wise counsels were finally and definitely rejected in favour of what Baron Banffy afterwards defined as ‘national Chauvinism.’ Magyarization became the watchword of the State and persecution its means of action.”—*Hungary and the war* (Pamphlet, reprinted from *The Times* [London]).—“There can be no doubt that Deák and Eötvös were genuinely desirous of conciliating the nationalities and of assuring to their languages and customs as large a measure of liberty as seemed consistent with the political unity of the State. . . . Unhappily Eötvös was removed by death in 1871, and Deák, who [though he lived until 1876] regarded the *Ausgleich* as the completion of his life-work, steadily resisted all pressure to enter the political arena and only exercised a general influence upon Governmental policy. Thus each change of Ministry since 1869 marked a fresh step towards the accession of the Radicals to power. The short term of office of Joseph Szlavy (December, 1872 to March, 1874) was overshadowed by the financial crisis, and saddened by the virtual withdrawal of Deák from public life. . . . The approaching fusion of the Deákists with the Radical opposition involved among other things the adoption of a more Chauvinistic attitude towards the nationalities. The first blows were struck against the Slovaks—their academy (Matica Slovenska) and secondary schools, upon which all hope of progress in national culture depended, being especially signalled out for attack. . . . Even as early as August, 1867, the seven Slovak professors at the gymnasium of

Neusohl (which had flourished under the fostering care of Bishop Moyses) were dispersed to different schools, Slovak was declared a non-obligatory subject, and the equality of the three languages—Slovak, Magyar and German—was abolished; and thus within a few years the institution had been completely Magyarized. It was such incidents as this which made the Slovak and Roumanian leaders of that day so sceptical about the advantages of the much vaunted Law of Nationalities; for it was scarcely a good omen for its execution. . . . Not content with thus depriving the rising generation of Slovaks of the most necessary means of education, the Government determined if possible to nip in the bud the tender flower of Slovak literature. On April 6, 1875, the Matica Slovenska was provisionally suspended, and on November 12, Colo-



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man Tisza, who had just entered on his triumphal career as leader of the united Liberal Party, proclaimed its final dissolution. The entire funds of the society, amounting to £8,000 and including the Emperor-King’s own subscription, were arbitrarily confiscated; its buildings—to this day the second largest in the little town of Marton—were converted into Government offices. The unique Slovak museum and library was also seized, and after lying for many years in a caretaker’s attics, at length found their way to a Magyar gymnasium in a distant town. . . . The dissolution came as a thunderbolt upon the Slovaks; indeed, it is not too much to say that it reduced them to political impotence for a whole generation. The golden era of the Liberal Party in Hungary had begun; the fusion of the Deákists and the Left Center was an accomplished fact; and for fifteen years Coloman Tisza was far more truly dictator of Hungary than Kossuth or Deák had ever been.”—“Scotus Viator” (R. W. Seton-Watson), *Racial*

*problems in Hungary*, p. 161.—“From 1875 to 1890 Count Kalman Tisza was Prime Minister. His policies were those bequeathed by Deák, namely, to maintain the *Ausgleich* with Austria and the Magyar ascendancy in Hungary. There was growing up, however, a powerful movement known as the Independence Party, led by Francis Kossuth, the son of the great revolutionist, which boldly declared for ‘nationalism’ as against ‘dualism.’ It demanded, first, the economic independence of Hungary; and secondly, the complete Magyarization of the Hungarian army, by substituting the use of Magyar for German in all commands.”—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, p. 439.—Tisza the Calvinist accomplished what neither Lutheran nor Catholic could achieve; he reconciled the rivalries of Protestant and Catholic and united them in the common cause of racial unity. This achievement, without which many of the successes of Andrassy and Kalnoky in the field of diplomacy would have been impossible, constitutes the elder Tisza’s real claim to greatness. He concluded with the king a tacit pact under which the Magyar government was to be left free to deal as it pleased with the non-Magyars so long as it supplied without murmur recruits and money for the joint army. Hence the Magyar Parliament became almost exclusively representative of the Magyar minority of the people. “Acting on the principle that in politics the end justifies the means. . . . [Tisza] secured the predominance of the Liberal Party by a far-reaching system of electoral corruption and administrative trickery. The Magyar population of the central plains remained consistently loyal to the ideals of Louis Kossuth; the Government had therefore to find a working majority in the non-Magyar districts, and as this could not be attained by natural means, it was necessary to resort to gerrymandering, unequal distribution, a highly complicated franchise, and voting by public declaration. These were the chief features of the revised Electoral Law of 1874. . . . In addition to the practical difficulties created by the letter of the law [to molest the non-Magyar] every imaginable violence and trickery was employed to secure the return of Government candidates, the whole administrative machine was placed at their service, and money was poured out like water.”—“Scotus Viator” (R. W. Seton-Watson), *Racial problems in Hungary*, p. 168.—“The nobility of Hungary from the first was the fighting portion of the nation. In award of the obligation to fight the battles of the country with all their sons and all their men, each of these members of a race of conquerors was given a freehold for himself and his descendants. The scions of these original nobles still form that part of the population who own the soil, and who mostly till it, too. The initial freehold has been shrinking in size; or rather, it has been divided and subdivided, share and share alike, among children and children’s children, each son bearing the name and title of his ancestors. Much church land, it is true, much land once belonging to the crown or to some municipality, has been acquired by these nobles in the course of centuries, thus doubling and trebling perhaps the mass of it in bulk. But, on the whole, each member of this primitive, soil-bound, vigorous and warlike lower nobility owns a small estate, be it only fifty or be it five hundred acres, that he cultivates and whence he draws his sustenance. . . . Of course, there are other elements in modern Hungary. There is not alone a powerful higher nobility, wealthy beyond the dreams of avarice and owning estates

so large that they can drive with a fast team all day long without leaving their own acres. There are now numerous prospering and populous towns and cities, with commerce and an industry steadily growing under the fostering care of Hungary’s statesmen. There are thousands of villages tenanted to-day by a free peasantry and rural labouring element more or less dependent on the nearest lords of the soil, whose serfs they were until the middle of the eighteenth century. But the rural nobility, the farmer-nobility, so to speak, is still the rock bottom of the nation.”—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, p. 120.

1876-1909.—Infant protection and infant homes. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1876-1909.

1878-1890.—Tisza government.—Education acts of 1879 and 1883.—Law of National Defence.—Resignation of Tisza.—“A section of the new Liberal Party was still disposed to assure the loyalty of the nationalities by moderate concessions; but the ferment among the neighbouring races of Austria and of the Balkans provided Tisza with an excuse for severity, and nipped in the bud all counsels of tolerance. . . . The occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina [1878] was regarded with strong disfavour by the great body of Magyar public opinion, and nothing shows more clearly the statesmanship and enormous influence of Count Julius Andrassy than the manner in which the parliamentary majority of Hungary and Austria were cajoled and manoeuvred into a forward policy in the northern Balkans. For the moment the Tisza Government suffered in popularity, and at the general elections the Premier was himself defeated at Debreczen. This untoward event had not, however, destroyed the general effect of the Tisza electoral system; the Government still controlled a majority of 77, and the masterful Tisza set himself to soothe the ruffled tempers of his countrymen by adopting a policy of active Magyarization. The conciliatory principles of Deák and Eötvös, which had already been abandoned in practice, were now set at almost open defiance. The Education Act of 1879, making the Magyar language an obligatory subject in all Hungarian primary . . . schools, and imposing quite a number of fresh qualifications on the teachers in non-Magyar schools, conflicts openly with the more liberal Act of 1868, and still more with the Law of Nationalities of the same year. . . . But the complaints of the nationalities fell upon deaf ears; the appeals of Mr. Mocsary for their fair treatment were like a voice in the wilderness, and the inclusion of a large section of the foreign press within the sphere of Tisza’s action prevented the outside world from learning the truth about the non-Magyar races. . . . In 1883 a Secondary Education Act was passed by the Hungarian Parliament, whose object and result was the final Magyarization of all state gymnasiums and ‘Realschulen,’ in direct violation of the Law of Nationalities of 1868 (§§ 17, 18). Even the few surviving non-Magyar secondary schools were placed under the strictest governmental control; the Magyar language and literature were made compulsory for all their pupils, who had to pass their final examinations in these subjects in the language itself. Elaborate clauses were included for the control of school-books, especially those on historical subjects, for the prevention of ‘unpatriotic’ teaching, for the removal of ‘dangerous individuals,’ and, if necessary, for the dissolution of non-Magyar secondary schools and the erection of state schools in their place.

... In one respect Tisza's position was stronger during the closing years of his long term of office; thanks to the brilliant finance of Széll and Wekerle, the deficit at last disappeared in 1889 from the Hungarian Budget, while Gabriel Baross earned a deservedly high reputation by his introduction of the railway 'zone system' and his reorganization of the Ministry of Commerce. But the intentional obscurity of the Ausgleich on the military question now began to bear its inevitable fruit; the Extreme Left, under the able leadership of Irányi, Charles Eötvös and Ugron emphasized with growing violence the need of an independent Hungarian army with Magyar language of command. . . . The new Law of National Defence brought forward by Tisza in January, 1889, roused intense feeling among large sections of the Magyar population, and it was only by means of his 'Mameluke' majority that the measure could be passed; indeed, even as it was, the obstacles to its passage might have proved insuperable, had not the tragic death of the Crown Prince silenced and distracted the hostile demonstrations. By the new law Hungary engaged herself for the next ten years to furnish the same contingent to the joint army as Austria, the numerical strength being determined by the Crown and any alteration being submitted to Parliament. The most unpopular provision of the new scheme was that by which all officers must pass a German examination, failure in which involves a year's delay. Tisza, of course, defended the absolute necessity of a single language of command in a joint army; while his opponents took up the highly plausible position that the armies of Prince Eugene and Napoleon were commanded in more than one language, without thereby suffering in discipline or efficiency. The army debates had completed the estrangement between Government and Opposition, and had roused personal jealousies and hatred to such a pitch that a victim was necessary if Parliamentary government was not to come to a standstill. . . . Early in March, 1890, Coloman Tisza resigned, after holding office for fifteen years; but his successor, Count Julius Szapary, remained little more than a dignified figurehead, while the so-called 'Tisza clique' preserved its old influence upon affairs, and perpetuated what the exiled Kossuth has bitterly described as a state of 'codified illegality.' The withdrawal of Tisza from an active share in politics coincided with a revival of Clericalism."—"Scotus Viator" (R. W. Seton-Watson), *Racial problems in Hungary*, pp. 171-177.

1882.—Anti-Semitic riots. See JEWS: Austria-Hungary: 1848-1913.

1886.—Postal savings banks. See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS: 1886.

1890.—Infant Protection Act. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1876-1909.

1894-1895.—Hungarian ecclesiastical laws.—Conflict with the church.—Resignation of Count Kalnoky.—In the last month of 1894 royal assent was given to three bills, known as the ecclesiastical laws, which marked an extraordinary departure from the old subserviency of the state to the church. The first was a civil marriage law, which made civil marriage compulsory, leaving religious ceremonies optional with the parties, and which modified the law of divorce; the second annulled a former law by which the sons of mixed marriages were required to follow the father's religion, and the daughters to follow that of the mother; the third established a uniform state registration of births, deaths and marriages, in place of a former registration of different creeds, and legalized marriages between Christians and

Jews without change of faith. These very radical measures, after passing the lower house of the Hungarian legislature, were carried with great difficulty through the aristocratic and clerical upper house, and only by a strong pressure of influence from the emperor-king himself. They were exceedingly obnoxious to the church, and the papal nuncio became active in a hostility which the Hungarian premier, Baron Banffy, deemed offensive to the state. He called upon the imperial minister of foreign affairs, Count Kalnoky, to address a complaint on the subject to the Vatican. This led to disagreements between the two ministers which the emperor strove without success to reconcile, and Count Kalnoky, in the end, was forced to retire from office. The pope was requested to recall the offending nuncio, and declined to do so.

1896.—Celebration of the millennium of the kingdom.—The millennium anniversary of the kingdom of Hungary was celebrated by the holding of a great national exposition and festival at Buda-Pesth, from May 2 until the end of October, 1896. Preparations were begun as early as 1893, and were carried forward with great national enthusiasm and liberality, the government contributing nearly two millions of dollars to the expense of the undertaking.

1897-1910.—Magyars and non-Magyars.—Attempt to Magyarize Hungarian army.—Victory of policy of "dualism."—Austro-Hungarian bank.—In 1897 the decennial economic agreement came to an end, and the Independence Party decided to oppose its renewal. So strong was the obstruction to the measure organized by Kossuth that it came very near being rejected by the Hungarian Parliament. Another struggle took place in 1903 between 'dualism' and 'nationalism' over the question of the language of command in the army. Austria had voted her share of the army budget, but the Independence Party insisted on the use of Magyar in the Hungarian army as a condition of its being passed by the Hungarian Parliament. This was refused by Austria, and Kossuth's influence was sufficient to defeat the project and to overthrow the Hedervary Ministry which favored it. The matter was a serious one for the Dual Monarchy, and the Emperor-King stepped forward and declared that under no circumstances would he permit the unity of the Austro-Hungarian army to be broken and demanded that Hungary fulfill her part of the Compromise of 1867, and vote for the budget. Count Stephen Tisza, the new Prime Minister, finally succeeded in passing the army bill, but he found the opposition of the Independence Party very strong and the obstructionist tactics of Kossuth almost unbearable. Rioting frequently took place in the Hungarian Parliament, and a special police force had to be organized to keep the members in order. Parliament was dissolved, but the new election was a complete triumph for Kossuth, as his party won a sufficient number of seats to control the House. This brought about the most critical situation for the Dual Monarchy since 1848. Should Kossuth form a Ministry, backed as he was by popular support, the connection between Austria and Hungary might be sundered. Austria had recourse to the same remedy now as in 1848, namely, favoring the Slavs. The Emperor-King threatened to use his influence in favor of universal suffrage which would result in taking the control of the Hungarian Parliament from the Magyar and giving it to the non-Magyar races. The threat was sufficient. A Coalition Ministry was formed under Dr. Wekerle which decided to

uphold 'dualism.' The army budget was passed and the economic alliance renewed in 1907. . . . But the conflict between Hapsburg imperialism and Hungarian nationalism was irrepressible. It broke out afresh in 1910, when the question came up of renewing the charter of the Austro-Hungarian Bank, which unifies the financial relations between the two countries. The Coalition Ministry was disrupted by the Independence Party, which favored a separate national bank for Hungary. Obstruction and rioting again took place in Parliament, and more than once the parliamentary police had to be called in to eject riotous members. Finally, Count Khuen-Hedervary succeeded in forming a Cabinet which renewed the charter."—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, pp. 439-440.

1900-1903.—Attitude toward Dual Monarchy. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1900-1903.

1903-1905.—Language struggle.—Count Tisza's ministry.—Rise of new parties. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905.

1905-1906.—Count Tisza's resignation.—Fejervary ministry.—Deadlock between the king and parliament.—Dissolution of parliament.—Wekerle cabinet. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1905-1906.

1907.—Negotiation of a new financial Ausgleich.—Adjustment of tariff, debt and revenue quotas. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1907.

1907-1914.—Conflict over universal suffrage.—Plural Voting Bill defeated.—Lukacs electoral reform plan.—Tisza ministry.—For some years previous to the outbreak of the World War there was much conflict over the question of universal suffrage. Violent demonstrations occurred in the streets of Budapest during 1907 and 1908. The bitter fruits of the policy of Magyarization were gradually ripening; indignant protest against the unfair electoral law grew in volume. In November, 1908, Count Andrássy introduced a complicated bill granting manhood suffrage under conditions which made little, if any, change in the allocation of voting power, as the "Magyar State idea" was rigidly preserved. Under the elaborate provisions of this bill a million Magyar (or Magyarized) plural voters would have had 2,320,000 votes, while 2,800,000 non-Magyar voters would have disposed of only about 1,500,000 votes. While the effect would have been to more than double the number of voters, it was claimed that only Magyar and German representation would have been increased at the expense of the non-Magyar population. The powerful opposition arrayed against the scheme brought about its failure. "In 1912 the Lukacs Cabinet brought forward two plans for electoral reform. The first created *de novo* in the cities a class of representatives of the nation, chosen by universal suffrage, somewhat after the manner of the Badeni law of 1896 in Austria. . . . The Radicals were not in mood for this begging of the question and rejected it summarily. Lukacs' second project was more complicated. It based the franchise on taxes, intellect, profession, and social rank, with an infinite variety of qualifications in all of these categories. The Opposition now branded Lukacs as a traitor and on June 1 [1912] Kossuth, the son of the revolutionary hero, demanded a reform increasing the electorate . . . and guaranteeing the freedom of the vote by means of the secret ballot, except in communes with more than sixty per cent of their population illiterate. He linked franchise reform with the proposed military laws in such a way that, if one passed, the other must follow. The method by which the Magyar Junkers overcame the Liberal resistance to the army laws was characteristic.

The chief protagonist of the reactionaries was Stephen Tisza, the son of the great minister, Koloman Tisza. . . . An apostle of parliamentary violence, tenacious, without humour and without irony, severe on himself, implacable toward his adversaries, he had the political bigotry and the frightful seriousness of conviction of an inveterate Tory squire. He entirely lacked the equilibrium of intellect and talent which is necessary for a modern parliamentary leader. . . . He was the chief of all the retrograde Magyar forces, the irreconcilable foe of suffrage reform. The leaders of the various wings of the Liberal Opposition were Kossuth, Count Karolyi, Count Andrássy, and Dr. Wekerle, one of the shrewdest and most far-sighted of Magyar statesmen. As Liberal obstructionism against the suffrage and the army bills of 1912 continued, Tisza, the President of the Chamber, on June 4th refused the floor to the Opposition. In the disorder which ensued, he called for the vote on the military bill, passed it through all three readings, and left the chair. The square before the parliament house was filled with hussars and infantry, and Budapest was declared in a state of siege. The Government plainly intended to stifle in blood any further opposition. As the uproar continued in the afternoon session, Tisza ordered Justh, Karolyi, and a score of the other deputies removed by the police, whereat the rest of the Opposition left the hall in a body. The electoral reform of 1912 was at an end."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, pp. 73-75.—On June 13, 1913, Stephen Tisza was again returned to power as prime minister. When the World War broke out a truce was arranged between Tisza and the Liberal opposition.—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

1908-1909.—"Greater Serbia Conspiracy."—Agram trials.—Friedjung trial. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1908-1909.

1909.—Creation of labor bureau.—Houses for agricultural laborers. See CHARITIES: Hungary.

1909 (December).—Alleged plan for a federated triple monarchy. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1909 (December).

1910.—Trade union statistics. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1914.—Austro-Hungarian foreign policy.—Relations with Russia and Serbia. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914.

1914.—Participation in the World War.—Fearing that the racial sympathies of the Serbo-Croats would lead them into the fold of a Greater Serbia, "the Magyars had been fully as much responsible as the German-Austrians for various tyrannical acts against the Yugoslav peoples, and the feud with Serbia was quite as much Hungary's quarrel as Austria's. Count Tisza, the Hungarian Premier, was one of the strongest personalities in the Empire, and he was highly esteemed both by his own King and by the German Emperor. He not only ruled Hungary with a firm hand, but had a great influence over the general policy of the Dual Monarchy—a greater influence, indeed, than that possessed by the Austrian Prime Minister, Count Stürgkh. Furthermore, there was little Socialism among the Magyars, whereas amongst the Germans there were large numbers of Social Democrats, and the latter adopted the same attitude towards the war [1914] as that taken by their comrades within the Hohenzollern Empire; that is, they believed the war necessary in national self-defence, but were opposed to all aggressive designs in the event of victory. . . . [For two years there was no opposition. Hungary's ex-



istence was at stake, and] Count Tisza's parliamentary position was unassailable; he possessed a considerable majority in the Lower House, and moreover the Opposition parties, including the Independence party led by Count Apponyi, gave the Government conditional support in all the necessary war measures."—*Annual Register*, 1915, pp. 228, 233.—"It was only in the midst of the war that the first Hungarian gun works (for heavy calibres) were inaugurated in the north-western part of the kingdom. Up to that time every rifle, every weapon, every siege gun used in the Hungarian army was of Austrian make; [the Skoda works at Pilsen, Bohemia, were supplemented by a branch factory in Hungary. Great arms factories were established on Cspel island and at Raab]."—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, p. 131.—See also AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914-1915.

1916.—Political parties.—"In July [1916] there were rather important developments in Hungarian politics. . . . Hitherto the Independence Party had unanimously given their support to the war policy of the Tisza Administration, and had temporarily abandoned the disputes about Hungary's relations with Austria and about Hungary's domestic affairs. . . . During the absence of Count Karolyi from the capital at the beginning of July, Counts Andrassy, Apponyi, and Zichy made an arrangement with the Premier by which one member of the Official Opposition should become a member of the so-called 'War Council,' a temporary deliberative body, and thus share with the Government some part of their responsibility for the conduct of the war. Now since Count Karolyi was not only one of the recognized leaders of the party but was actually its president, he was naturally excessively annoyed at this obviously improper action, and therefore on July 7 he formally and publicly severed his political connexion with the other leaders, and commenced to form a party of his own. . . . He had, however, never entirely agreed with the war policy of the Tisza Administration, and he now proposed to exercise his right to criticise it. . . . The Karolyi party desired to see a peace concluded immediately by negotiation, on the basis of a renunciation of all schemes of annexation by both groups of belligerents. . . . The new '48 party also advocated a general league of nations after the war, with obligatory arbitration for the settlement of international disputes. They further demanded, in common with the more docile section of the Opposition, a more democratic franchise, a separate Hungarian State Bank, and fiscal independence of Austria, and they proposed to press these demands, which the Apponyi party were not doing. A new item was a demand for a separate Hungarian Army, with a Hungarian Staff, with the Hungarian language used in words of command (this particular claim was not new), and controlled at least to some extent by the Hungarian Parliament."—*Annual Register*, 1916, pp. 250-251.

1916.—Accession of Charles I.—Ministerial changes. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1916-1917.

1917-1918.—Economic conditions.—Resignation of Tisza.—Wekerle as premier.—In 1917 Austro-Hungarian relations under the Ausgleich were once more called into question. "The output of Austria, in fact, in all industrial products has quadrupled in volume and value within the last fifty years past. Two-thirds of this output has gone to Hungary. In 1913 . . . the worth in money of these Austrian exports to Hungary mounted to about \$600,000,000 in American money. The whole industrial situation in Austria has

steadily adapted itself to this state of things. . . . [In Austria the problem of food supplies, also, had become pressing. The flow of trade was interrupted between Hungary and Austria.] Bitter feeling has been the result. It came to a head when during the war, at a time when Austria was cut off from all other sources of supply, and her population [had been] habituated for fifty years past to have Hungary sell her the large surplus of her crops,—Hungary failed in her customary role of provider."—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, pp. 131, 133.—"The next act in the drama of Junker ascendancy was the resignation of Tisza from the premiership at the end of May 1917. Sharing . . . in the responsibility for Austria-Hungary's attack on Serbia, he had gone to war for the integrity of the millions of acres owned by a few hundred noble squires and a dozen bishops, as he had protected the electoral monopoly of those classes at the point of the bayonet. His fall was due to a recrudescence, even in war-time, of Hungarian Liberalism. A few months later Dr. Wekerle, the ablest financier of Hungary, who had stood aloof from politics since 1910 and had acquired a reputation as a Moderate became Premier with a program which included electoral reform. In this he had the support of the Emperor Charles, of a strong Parliamentary minority led by Apponyi, Andrassy, and Karolyi, moderate or liberal statesmen, and of a majority of the press."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 2, p. 75.

1917-1918.—Electoral reform. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.

1917-1918.—Breakdown of Dual Monarchy.—Opposition of subject-nationalities. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1917-1918.

1918.—End of World War.—Political turmoil.—Racial separatist claims.—National Council established.—Karolyi premier.—"The collapse of the Balkan front and Bulgaria's rapid capitulation [Sept. 30] produced a veritable panic in the official circles of the Monarchy. . . . There was hardly a supporter of the Dual System to be found in the whole Hungarian press, the Jingo of all shades supporting, out of fear, the programme of independence which the extreme Left advocated for pacifist reasons. The President of the Budapest Chamber of Commerce and the League of Hungarian Industrialists openly pronounced in favour of the Personal Union; and Count Tisza himself, fresh from an audience with the Monarch, declared in Parliament that the events of the past six weeks in Austria had shaken the bases upon which Hungary's relations with Austria had rested since 1867. . . . Charles had to insist upon Wekerle remaining in office, and allowed him to ease the situation by announcing the Crown's approval of the programme of Personal Union. Meanwhile the agitation of Count Michael Karolyi and his supporters grew daily in volume; and on 15 October the Independent leader, speaking in the Hungarian Delegation, did not hesitate to denounce it as a worn-out institution. His party co-operated more and more with the Radicals and Socialists, who under the existing class franchise were without representation in Parliament, but enjoyed growing prestige in the country. . . . The former consisted of a small group of intellectuals, led by Mr. Oszkar Jaszi, for years past a brave voice crying in the wilderness of Magyar jingoism for justice to the oppressed nationalities of Hungary. . . . The Socialists, whose influence was mainly confined to Budapest and a few large towns, were well equipped for concentrated political work and pos-

sessed in their party organ *Nepszava* a valuable weapon. Even before the war they inclined towards Marxism in its extreme and more rigid form, and by this time Bolshevik influence was rapidly gaining ground among them, through the medium of Magyar prisoners in Russia [notably Bela Kun]. . . . Karolyi set himself to outbid the Government by putting forward his own programme of 'Twelve Points,' its most essential features being complete independence and territorial integrity of Hungary, immediate peace negotiations by separate Hungarian delegates without regard for existing treaties, parliamentary control over peace and war, universal suffrage for both sexes, freedom for the nationalities 'on Wilsonian lines,' freedom of the press and of assembly, social and agrarian reform, recall of all Hungarian troops. . . . [On the other hand] Apponyi restated in terms of the old *régime* the demand for separation all along the line, and especially in the army. But already the Magyars were no longer alone in the field. Dr. Vaida put forward the Roumanian case in a bold and uncompromising speech, denying the right of the Magyars to quote Wilsonian doctrine and refusing to recognize the Parliament and Government of Budapest as in any way qualified to represent the Roumanians. . . . Father Juriga, amid growing interruption, put forward a similar claim of self-determination for the Slovaks, while the Magyarised Croat deputy, Mr. Ossoinak, insisted upon Fiume's special autonomous position. The Premier and other leading statesmen had an unanimous House behind them in denouncing the non-Magyar attitude but the whole foundation of their edifice was already slipping from under. . . . [For] President Wilson, in the most explicit language, modified his earlier pronouncements in favour of autonomy as a basis for peace, declared the Czecho-Slovak National Council to be a *de facto* Government, and recognised the justice of Jugoslav national aspirations. This Note was dated 18 October, but its electrifying effect upon the Western Slav world merely hastened on a process which had already begun. On 17-19 October the Jugoslav National Council, sitting in Zagreb, assumed the direction of the national policy, demanded the union of all Serbs, Croats and Slovenes in a single sovereign State and their representation as a single unit at the Peace Conference. . . . On the 21st a similar National Council (Narodni Vyor) in Prague proclaimed the absolute State independence of the Czecho-Slovaks. . . . On the 22nd the Germans of Austria followed suit. . . . On the 23rd, the Hungarian Parliament witnessed the novel spectacle of a Saxon deputy, Herr Rudolf Brandsch, demanding in the name of the two million Germans of Hungary much the same national and linguistic rights as those claimed by Slovaks and Roumanians. Count Apponyi for the last time worthily voiced the standpoint of the vanishing political order, by denying the reality of 'Czecho-Slovaks' extolling (for the benefit of Washington and London) the fictitious loyalty of the Slovak regiments to their Magyar oppressors and demanding the organisation of a new national army in defence of Hungary's frontiers. . . . Count Karolyi [rose] with a telegram announcing that a Croat line regiment at Fiume had revolted, disarmed the Magyar Honved garrison and placed the city under the control of the Jugoslav National Council in Zagreb [Agram]. . . . Amid general consternation a Cabinet Council was held, and almost immediately afterwards Dr. Wekerle informed the House of his resignation and advocated a Government of concentration from all the various parties. Its main aims, he de-

clared, must be (subject to the paramount consideration of peace) the protection of Hungary's frontiers and the immediate return of all Hungarian troops from abroad. . . . Charles arrived in Budapest [and] . . . soon found that Count Apponyi, the successor suggested to him by the retiring Premier, was not a possible candidate; and the idea of a non-party Cabinet under Mr. Barczy, the Mayor of Budapest, soon proved equally impracticable. The Independence Party chose this psychological moment [October 25] to found a Hungarian National Council. . . . Meanwhile Count Karolyi was engaged in negotiations with the Crown. The idea of a concentration of parties was viewed with great disfavour in the Radical and Socialist camp, where the dominant parliamentary clique was not unreasonably regarded as incorrigibly reactionary. Karolyi himself imposed two conditions for his co-operation—that a separate Foreign Minister for Hungary should at once be appointed, and that an offer of separate peace should be made by Hungary to the Entente. Though himself the son-in-law of Count Andrassy, he openly and vigorously opposed the latter's appointment to the Joint Foreign Ministry [as successor of Count Burian] and denounced him as the bulwark of Junkerdom in Hungary. He definitely declined to support any Cabinet in which the controlling power did not lie in the hands of his own party. . . . (28 October) the Czech National Council in Prague took over the civil administration of Bohemia and received the submission of the garrison and its commanders; and a day later the Croatian Parliament proclaimed by acclamation the complete independence of Croatia from Hungary. . . . The demonstrations in Budapest continued, and the news that the Government of Zagreb disposed unreservedly over the Croat regiments set a final light to the train. Count Karolyi and his National Council, after despatching telegrams of fraternal greeting to the Jugoslav Council in Zagreb and to the newly-constituted Slovak Council in St. Martin, issued a proclamation to the nation, pointing out that in Croatia and Bohemia the army had declared allegiance to the National Councils, and demanding the same for Hungary. . . . The troops crowded eagerly to the support of the National Council, which at once assumed control. By the morning of the 31st the garrison and police had joined them, the post offices and many public buildings were in their hands, and Count Karolyi had been proclaimed as Premier. In the course of the same morning Count Hadik resigned the office [of Premier] which he had held for forty-eight hours, and Charles, with a lack of ceremony worthy of a better cause, telephoned from Vienna his acceptance of Karolyi as Hungarian Premier.—"Rubicon," *New Europe*, Apr. 17, 1919, pp. 7-13.

1918 (November).—Assassination of Tisza.—Outbreak of revolution.—Archduke Joseph, "deputy of the crown."—Attempted racial conciliation.—Collapse and dissolution.—Armistice.—"People's Republic" proclaimed.—New Franchise Bill.—The revolution to establish a republic independent of Austria broke out October 31. "The very first day of the Revolution was marked by a significant outrage. Armed soldiers forced their way into the villa of Count Stephen Tisza and assassinated him in the presence of his wife and sister-in-law. 'I knew that would be my end,' were his last words. Such was the fate of the arch-reactionary whose force of will had so long dammed back the tide of reform in Hungary, and whose uncompromising nationalistic foreign policy combined with the ambitions of Berlin to

render the Great War possible. Tisza, it is but fair to add, had the courage of his convictions and never attempted to conceal his contempt for democracy. . . . The arrest of the general in command of Budapest further appeased the army, which was by this time in a state of disintegration. . . . A fresh crisis was provoked by Count Karolyi, on assuming office, taking the oath to the Archduke Joseph as deputy of the Crown. The Radicals and Socialists insisted that the oath was due rather to the National Council through which the new Cabinet had come into power; and already, on 2 November, the Premier notified the Council's Executive Committee that he and his colleagues had, at their own request, been released by the Crown from the necessity of taking oath at all, and that it was their intention to refer to a plebiscite the question whether Hungary should be a monarchy or a republic. On the same day the Archduke Joseph and his son created a profound sensation by appearing in person to take the oath of allegiance to the National Council.—"Rubicon," *New Europe*, Apr. 24, 1919, pp. 36-38.—"Joseph is the only member of the Hapsburg family that bears the Magyars sincere affection. . . . Throughout the war . . . he commanded one or more Hungarian army corps. He . . . endeared himself to the Magyars in every way. . . . With the late emperor and king [Francis Joseph] he was never a favourite. . . . As a soldier he . . . [had] shown no great qualities either as a strategist or tactician, but to compensate for that fully in the eyes of his Magyar soldiers he has throughout given evidence of reckless daring, of indomitable valour."—W. von Schierbrand, *Austria-Hungary: Polyglot empire*, p. 175.—"On the very eve of the *débâcle* [King] Charles himself surrendered the supreme command to the Magyar Field-Marshal Köves, on whose military prestige he relied, in true Hapsburg fashion, to cover the ignominy of complete surrender. Almost simultaneously came the resignations of Count Andrássy and Baron Spitzmüller, the Joint Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Finance [in Vienna]. The former, amid the growing anarchy, had filled the pitiable rôle of registering the successive steps by which the Hapsburg monarchy broke up into its component parts. His ambition to fill the office of his father was at last gratified—for ten eventful days: and the signature of 'Julius Andrássy' [father and son, respectively] stands at the beginning and the end of the Dualist Era. [In an improvised Magyar government] the new Cabinet rested on a coalition between the extreme Left of the Chamber—the Party of Independence (or 'of 1848'—so-called in memory of Louis Kossuth and the revolution of that year)—the Radicals . . . (for the most part professors or economic and historical specialists)—and the Socialist Party, which represented the unfranchised proletariat of the capital, but had not many roots in other parts of the country. . . . For the Radical leader, Dr. Oszkar Jaszi, a special Ministry of Nationalities was created, and the delicate task of maintaining relations with the non-Magyar races was thus entrusted to the one man who had had the courage to protest publicly against the brutality and corruption of the old Magyar régime. . . . In July, 1849, when the revolutionary Hungarian Parliament had withdrawn to Szeged and the armies of the Tsar were advancing in overwhelming numbers, Kossuth and his adherents promulgated a law guaranteeing the liberty and free development of all the non-Magyar nationalities. In 1918 the same belated procedure was adopted. . . . Mr. Jaszi was empowered to negotiate with them on the basis of

self-determination, but on the assumption that this was not incompatible with Hungary's territorial integrity, and that the appointment of new high sheriffs and the grant of a new parliamentary and municipal franchise could still arrest the headlong car of fate. He urged upon his colleagues the immediate, the whole-hearted acceptance of Czech and Jugoslav independence, in the hope that . . . Hungary would be able to save Transylvania and Slovakia. But on the very same day the Roumanians of Transylvania constituted a rival National Council at Cluj (Klausenburg), and proceeded to organise themselves on a national basis; while within a few days the advance guard of the Czech army had penetrated into the northern Slovak counties, and the Serbs on their side were occupying the rich plains of the Banat and the Backa."—"Rubicon," *Hungarian revolution (New Europe, Apr. 24, 1919)*.—"Count Karolyi was, of course, faced with a situation of extreme difficulty. . . . The original armistice concluded with General Franchet d'Espèrey at Belgrade on November 3, had been not unfavourable to Hungary, but it had caused discontent among the minor Allies of the Entente, and severe revisions of the terms of the armistice were afterwards imposed upon the Hungarian Government, and these revisions involved the occupation of great stretches of what had been Hungarian territory by the Rumanians, the Bohemians, and the Serbians. And in the meantime the autonomous province of Croatia had declared its independence of Budapest and its union with the new Jugo-Slav State. Thus it was a much-diminished Hungary over which Count Karolyi ruled; these losses of territory, or some of them, were resented by all Magyars without distinction of party—even by the Socialists. And there was another political danger of a different character. In Budapest, as in nearly all the other capitals of Europe, there was a small but very active Bolshevik faction. . . . There is no doubt that the summoning of a democratic Constituent Assembly would have been the most effective method of combating Bolshevism. But in this matter the Government were on the horns of a dilemma; they were unable to hold elections in the extensive districts occupied by Rumanians, Czechs, and Serbs, and they were at the same time unwilling to admit that these districts had ceased to be legitimate portions of the Hungarian realm. To postpone the elections played into the hands of the Bolsheviks; to hold the elections in Central Hungary only would raise the ire of all Magyar patriots."—*Annual Register, 1919, pp. 228-229*.—"The capitulation of the Monarchy having been signed on 3 November, and what was left of the . . . broken and demoralised army streaming homewards by every possible route—Count Karolyi and Mr. Jaszi went to Belgrade to negotiate with General Franchet d'Espèrey, as commander of the eastern front, the detailed application of an armistice to Hungary. . . . [He] was inveigled into accepting a military line so obviously at variance with geographical and racial requirements as to cry out for infringement by both parties. . . . The result was to leave a third of the Roumanian population to the tender mercies of the Magyars, while assuring to them direct access to the Szekely districts in south-eastern Transylvania—in other words, to facilitate so far as possible Magyar influence . . . , [and] to maintain a general state of ferment, instead of encouraging acquiescence in the new order, resting, as it inevitably must, upon broad racial divisions. On 10 November, then, the National Council in Budapest ratified the armistice on the terms thus laid down,

Count Karolyi having previously explained that, in response to his telegram of protest to Paris, General Franchet had received instructions from M. Clemenceau to limit himself strictly to military arrangements, 'to the exclusion of every other question.' While admitting that this was neither 'Yes' nor 'No,' Karolyi clung like a drowning man to the hope that the advance of Czech, Roumanian and Yugoslav troops would not be allowed to prejudice the question of Hungary's future frontiers. Meanwhile, to the indignation of many, he yielded to the Entente's further demand that Marshal Mackensen's armies should be disarmed on their way homewards from Roumania."—"Rubicon." *Hungarian revolution (New Europe, Apr. 24, 1919).*

"Nov. 16 at the plenary meeting of the Hungarian National Council, the body functioning temporarily as the Hungarian Parliament . . . [proclaimed]: 'I. Hungary is a People's Republic, free and independent of any other country. II. The Constitution of the People's Republic will be established by the Constituent National Assembly soon to be called and elected on the basis of the new suffrage. The Chamber of Deputies and the House of Magnates of the Hungarian Reichstag are dissolved and cease to exist. III. Until the Constituent National Assembly decrees to the contrary, the People's Government, under the Presidency of Michael Karolyi, exercises, with the support of the Executive Committee of the Hungarian National Council, the supreme powers of the State. IV. The People's Government is to create imperatively needed popular laws for the universal, secret, equal, direct suffrage, including that of women, for national, municipal, and communal elections; for the freedom of the press; for popular courts of justice, with jury trials; for the rights of association and assemblage, and for the supplying of the agricultural population with land and property.'"—*New York Times Current History, Mar., 1919, p. 487.*—Karolyi sent out a wireless message addressed "To All Civilized Nations," in which the new government requested recognition. It read in part: "The young Hungarian Republic turns to all the free peoples of the world with an appeal for support in the hard task of reorganizing Hungary. The sins of the former Governments make this work frightfully difficult. But the Hungarian Republic wants to reshape Hungary in the most complete and purest spirit of democracy based on President Wilson's points, and it is confident that the liberated forces of the people will find on this basis the possibility of joint, peaceful, and fraternal labor. Filled with this hope, the Hungarian Republic turns to all civilized nations today and asks them, in the name of the eternal solidarity of democracy, for their good wishes and their support in its great and holy endeavor."—*Ibid.*—"It was in vain that the new republican government of Count Karolyi fought frantically to save the territorial integrity of the state by offering the non-Magyar peoples the widest and most sweeping concessions, going even so far as to propose the transformation of Hungary into a federation of national cantons on the Swiss model. . . . Equally fruitless were the diplomatic or propagandist efforts to persuade the Allied Powers that Hungary had suddenly become a new creation, which could not be held responsible for the acknowledged sins of former rulers."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the peace conference, p. 236.*—"On 23 November the text of the new franchise bill was made public: under it the old complicated arrangements were swept away bodily, the vote was conferred upon all men of twenty-one and

women literates of twenty-four; the ballot was introduced everywhere, and for the municipal franchise the single qualification of six months' residence was added. [See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Hungary: 1222-1918.] But no date was fixed for the new elections and signs of irresolution and internal dissension in the Cabinet became more and more evident."—"Rubicon," *Hungarian revolution (New Europe, May 1, 1919).*—See also AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918.

1918-1919 (December-March).—Invasion by Rumania.—Rise of Bela Kun, Bolshevik.—Karolyi elected president.—Cabinet resignations.—Protest against armistice terms.—A provisional Rumanian Government was formed at Sibiu (Hermannstadt, Transylvania), under the presidency of Dr. Julius Maniu (2 December), and when Colonel Vix, head of the French Mission at Budapest, transmitted the Entente's orders for the evacuation of Slovakia, Count Karolyi in a proclamation to the nation declared that he only yielded to force, and insisted that only the Peace Conference could change boundaries which had survived for 1,000 years. On 22 December the new line was finally defined, as following the course of the Danube and Ipol, and then running from near the latter's source to the river Ung and thence northward to the Carpathian watershed. Once more the Government protested vigorously against this 'brutal and arbitrary proceeding,' in flagrant contradiction of all history, but accepted the inevitable. The position of the Government was rendered all the more critical because this coincided with a similar demand on the part of the Rumanians for the evacuation of Cluj (Kolozsvar), the Transylvanian capital. Attempts were made to represent this as a Roumanian defiance of the Entente; and hence the dismay was correspondingly great when Versailles authorised the Roumanian troops to cross the original line of the armistice and to occupy provisionally not only Cluj but also Satmar, Margitta, Maramures, Oradea Mare (Grosswardein) and Arad. In reality, this was the inevitable result of fixing an impossible line in the first instance. [See also RUMANIA: 1919: Rumania in Hungary.] . . . Count Karolyi, . . . amid the conflicting opinions of his followers, . . . endeavoured to give a lead by his speech of 23 December, in which he insisted upon the revolutionary character of his régime, defined his pacifism as 'a democratic radical policy deeply permeated with social ideas,' and did homage, though in rather general terms, to Kossuth's ideal of a Danubian confederation. The Communist group had just been heavily defeated in the Workers' Council, and this speech was intended as a challenge to the Right and a bid for the support of all progressive elements which stopped short of subversive aims. Count Batthyany and Mr. Bartha had already resigned office early in December, and they were now followed by Mr. Lovasz, who declared himself opposed to the Socialist design of land settlement, and who began to devote himself, obviously too late in the day, to the organization of a new *bourgeois* party. . . . On 30 December the appointment of Count Alexander Festetics as War Minister was interpreted as a move towards the Right, and led to communist disorders and mutiny in Budapest, during which Bela Kun, Lenin's right hand among the Magyar prisoners in Russia, first emerged as an active agitator. Early in January the same man provoked another outbreak at Salgotarjan, the only coal mines still left to the Magyars, where war profiteering had provoked ugly discontents. Within a few days a number of Russian Bolsheviks, masquerading as Red Cross officials,

were arrested by the authorities. . . . Attacks upon the Government grew in vehemence. . . . At the last moment, in order to avoid the open breach which the withdrawal of the Socialists would have produced, a complete political re-shuffle was decided upon. By an unanimous decision of the National Council Count Karolyi was on 10 January elected President of the Republic, and the task of forming a new Cabinet was assigned to Mr. Berinkey, a man standing outside the parties and hitherto entirely unknown in Hungarian political life. Even thus it took him a week of hard negotiation before the list could be made up, the Socialists insisting upon a thorough 'purge' of the party of independence as a condition of co-operation. Count Festetics resigned, denouncing the agitation of the communist Pogany as fatal to the very existence of the army; Lovaszky was openly discarded as little better than counter-revolutionary, while Dr. Jaszi withdrew from office, discouraged by the utter failure of his efforts to reconcile the non-Magyars. The new Cabinet took on a definitely Socialist tinge; the new War Minister, Mr. Böhm, favoured communist tendencies in the army, and the Minister of Education, Mr. Kunfi, not content with overriding the autonomy of Budapest University, abolished religious teaching in the schools and began to adopt an increasingly aggressive attitude towards the Church. Of the Radicals, Dr. Szende, the Minister of Finance, alone remained at his post. The history of the next two months is one of helpless drift. The elections were again postponed, ostensibly because so much Hungarian territory was in foreign occupation, but, in reality, because the Government was incapable of organising them amid the prevailing disorder, and because each of its rival groups was equally disinclined to trust to their result. The Socialists were at first opposed to the communists, and helped to put down the various attempts at fresh upheaval; but the extremer elements steadily gained in influence, until the President was reduced to his natural rôle of an eloquent but futile figurehead. On 20 February Bela Kun and his followers, imitating the procedure of the Spartacists in Berlin, raided the offices of the Socialist Party organ, *Nepszava*, and when arrested he freely admitted that he had brought with him from Russia 300,000 crowns in cash for purposes of agitation, and that his aim was to replace the People's Republic by a proletarian dictatorship on the Russian model."—"Rubicon," *Hungarian revolution (New Europe, May 1, 1919)*. "To this agitation, combined with the seriousness of food conditions in Budapest and throughout Hungary generally, was added a new factor, which proved to be the immediate reef on which the Government of Karolyi was wrecked—the Hungarian protest against the boundaries set by the Allies between Hungary and her neighbors, Rumania, Serbia, and Czechoslovakia, and the announced intention of the Allies to subject Hungary to military occupation. As early as Feb., 22, 1919, the Karolyi Government protested against the terms of the armistice, so far as they affected Hungary, in a long note addressed to Lieut. Col. Vix, head of the allied mission at Budapest. Its main issues may be summarized as follows:

"Railway and food administration had remained with the civil authorities in Hungary during the war, and had not passed into the hands of the military. The allied proposal to deliver certain parts of the railway system into the possession of the Allies was contrary to the explicit provisions of the terms of the armistice. Yet the Hungarian Government affirmed its desire to accomplish faithfully the duties imposed upon it, and declared itself

ready to submit to a control of the railway administration through the intermediary of the inter-allied commissions. The same disposition applied to the question of food supply."—*New York Times Current History, May, 1919, p. 285*.

The reply "was an order issued by the Allies that the Hungarians withdraw to the Rumanian boundary fixed by the Rumanian treaty of 1916. Again, on March 22, came the announcement that allied troops had occupied the greater part of Hungary, with the exception of Budapest and the surrounding districts, in order to suppress plundering bands of Bolsheviki. On the same day the world was startled by learning that Karolyi had surrendered the reins of power to the Bolsheviki and that Hungary, like Russia, had undergone a second and more radical revolution. Vienna dispatches declared that it was the establishment of the neutral zone on the Hungarian-Rumanian frontier, decided upon by the Peace Conference, which had precipitated the crisis. This zone was intended to make the Hungarians desist from attacking the Rumanians and to close the gap between Rumania and Poland. The Entente note defining this zone was dated March 19. The zone was fixed as a belt 140 miles long and forty miles wide, virtually shutting Hungary behind the Rivers Theiss, Szamos, and Maros, and including the towns of Grosswarden, Debreczen, and the entire country behind. The note required the withdrawal of the Hungarian troops behind the western boundary of the belt within ten days and authorized the Rumanians to advance to the eastern boundary. The civil government of the neutral zone was to be exercised by Hungarians, under allied control, but the important points would be occupied by allied troops."—*Ibid.*—It was promised that American, English, and French troops would occupy the frontiers. In place of this Rumanians, Serbs, and Czechs, following up their respective claims to various parts of Hungary, invaded that country, crossing the lines of demarkation made by General Franchet d'Espérey. Budapest became practically a frontier town, with the Czechs only thirty kilometers away.

1918-1922.—Work of American relief administration. See INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: American relief administration.

1919.—Invasion of Czech territory. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1919.

1919.—Trade union statistics. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1919 (March).—Second or Bolshevist revolution.—Soviet republic set up.—Surrender of Karolyi.—Proletariat rule.—Bela Kun, dictator.—Operations of the Hungarian army.—Mass demonstrations began the second revolution. "The actual explosion was imminent when the Entente note defining the neutral zone arrived, and Count Karolyi decided to withdraw from the Government. Karolyi turned the Government over to a Socialist-Communist Cabinet [March 21] and issued the following manifesto appealing to the proletariat of the world for support:

"The Entente Mission declared that it intended to regard the demarkation line as the political frontier. The aim of further occupation of the country is manifestly to make Hungary the jumping-off ground and the region of operations against the Russian Soviet army which is fighting on our frontier. The land evacuated by us, however, is to be the pay of the Czech troops, by means of whom the Russian Soviet army is to be overcome. As Provisional President of the Hungarian People's Republic, I turn, as against the Paris Peace Conference, to the proletariat of the world for justice and support.' The revolutionary Govern-

ment of Workers', Peasants', and Soldiers' Councils, to which Karolyi delivered the Hungarian rule, consisted of Alexander Gorbai, a workman, as Premier; Bela Kun, a former associate of Lenine and Trotzky, as Minister of Foreign Affairs; Joseph Pogany, a soldier and former President of the Soldatenrat, as Minister of War, and Herr Boehm, a former Cabinet Minister, who had become a radical, as Minister of Social Affairs. The dominating spirit of the group was Bela Kun, a former instructor in the law school of the Francis Joseph University at Klausenburg, Transylvania, and an associate of Lenine in Russia, where he had been a prisoner during the war."—*New York Times Current History, May, 1919, p. 288.*—"The Socialists as a whole were hardly prepared for this sudden accession to power. Most of them were Social Democrats who believed in an orderly social evolution and did not favor violent experiments. One of their number, however, Bela Kun, a faithful disciple of Lenin, saw his opportunity. . . . He at once leaped to the front as the directing personality of the new 'Dictatorship of the Proletariat.' He immediately infused a vigorous spirit of organization and order into the new government. . . . Lenin, . . . early advised the Hungarian Socialists to avoid the mistakes and excesses of the Russian Bolsheviks, and continued for a long while in constant communication by wireless with Bela Kun. . . . It was quite apparent at the start that Bela Kun was eager to conciliate the Entente. This was shown by his efforts to protect foreigners from the rigors of the new régime, and by his heavy-handed punishment of excesses committed by members of the Red Guard. It was also of special interest to note his evident eagerness to serve as an intermediary between Lenin and the Entente."—P. M. Brown, *New York Times Magazine, July 27, 1919.*—"It is of interest to note the nature of the great mass of legislation enacted immediately by the new Government. . . . The first important decree was to abolish the right of private property. Everything henceforth was to belong to the State. But there were important concessions and exceptions. In order not to antagonize the peasants it was recognized that small holders of land under cultivation were to be left unmolested. . . . The question of actual title to property was left in abeyance."—*Ibid.*—Bela Kun's government issued a proclamation on March 22, which reads in part as follows: "Legislative, executive, and judicial authority will be exercised by a dictatorship of the Workers', Peasants', and Soldiers' Councils. The Revolutionary Government Council will begin forthwith work for the realization of Communist Socialism. The council decrees the socialization of large estates, mines, big industries, banks, and transport lines, declares complete solidarity with the Russian Soviet Government, and offers to contract an armed alliance with the proletariat of Russia.' . . . Lenin stated that he had submitted the Hungarian greeting to the Bolshevik Congress at Moscow, which had received it with great enthusiasm. The first act of the new Government was to take possession of the offices of the Correspondence Bureau, the official news agency, in order to control all further news. . . . The newspapers, at first interrupted by a strike, soon resumed; there was no censorship; all official statements were published prominently. . . . [Already] commissioners for the City of Budapest had been appointed; officers of the municipality had tendered their resignations, but had been asked to remain at their posts. Financial Commissioner Varga had notified bank Directors that reliable bank employes would take up the direction of

affairs. The Hungarian Commission for Military Affairs . . . had issued an order instructing all soldiers to rejoin their units without delay, adding: 'If the soldiers do not do their duty, the Hungarian Soviet Government is doomed.'"—*New York Times Current History, May, 1919, p. 289.*—At first Rumanian troops in ten days advanced over 300 kilometres without once meeting with any serious opposition. The Red troops ran away. But six weeks after, the Hungarian Red Army advanced victoriously against Czechs and Rumanians, inflicting upon them heavy defeats. The Government of Bela Kun conjured up in six weeks a great, well organized, and disciplined army. "The Government mobilised the proletariat and obtained thus very excellent soldier material which had already proved extremely valuable in the war. It dissolved Soldiers' Councils, removed commanders elected by the men, and posted officers to the army—officers who . . . [were] well paid and whose powers of command are greater, if anything, to those possessed in the old Imperial and Royal Army. The most stringent discipline was instituted; jury courts were abolished, and the officer . . . [had] power of life and death. Professional officers . . . had to place their services at the disposal of the Government. . . . All temporary officers who were members of a trade union were compelled to report, and . . . a new order was issued which . . . [compelled] every former officer, without reference to his degree of fitness, to place himself at the disposal of the Government. . . . The Chief of the General Staff to Army Commander Böhm, the former Colonel Aurel Stromfeld, was probably the most brilliant General Staff officer of the Imperial and Royal Army. He worked out the plans of the offensive . . . against the Czechs. The Soviet Government found about 1,000 guns in Hungary. Although it lacked horses and transport material, it had formed, by the end of May, 100 batteries, amongst these a number of heavy batteries and two batteries of 30.5 howitzers. Large supplies of ammunition were stored in the Budapest Artillery Depot, and also in the Csepel munition factory. The making of munitions was immediately commenced. . . . Machine-guns were available in large numbers, and in addition, pilots from Wiener-Neustadt in considerable numbers served for good remuneration until they were captured. . . . The Magyar army [had] . . . thirty aeroplanes whose duty it [was] . . . to scatter among enemy troops manifestos of Bolshevik propaganda in all languages. At Szeged, where there [were] . . . 16,000 French colonial troops, communist manifestos, written in Arabic, [were] . . . dropped."—*New Europe, July, 1919, pp. 43-45.*—The Soviet forces were at once employed in the fertile regions of Slovakia and elsewhere, while negotiations were opened with the entente powers, in session at the Paris Peace Conference, which had sent General Smuts to Budapest on a diplomatic mission in April with proposals that were rejected by Bela Kun. "Meanwhile the Hungarian Reds won further successes. The North Hungarian town of Kaschau was taken after two days' fighting, on June 8. The Hungarians crossed the Danube at Gran and the River Neutra, menacing Pressburg between Budapest and Vienna north of the Danube. Some fighting continued in this region. The Czech armies were being reorganized under French officers. General Pelle, who in 1916 had been Joffre's chief of staff, was given supreme command. As the Hungarians had practically all the old Austrian Army's artillery, none of which had been surrendered, they were much better equipped than the Czechs. The President of Czechoslovakia,

Thomas Masaryk, . . . sent repeated telegrams to the Peace Conference for assistance."—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1919, p. 77.—The answer to the first note of the Allies (sent June 9) demanding the cessation of all Magyar attacks upon the Czechs was considered unsatisfactory, as it threw all the blame for Hungary's invasion of Slovakia upon the Czechs, made cessation of hostilities provisional on further negotiations, and proposed Vienna as a place for arbitration. In answer to the second ultimatum of the allied powers Bela Kun ostensibly agreed to withdraw his troops from Slovakia, but his real intention became manifest in the manner of withdrawal, which left a hastily organized Soviet republic established. Meanwhile the principal Hungarian armies were engaged in operations against the Rumanian forces on the Theiss, advancing upon Budapest.

1919 (March).—Alliance with Poland and Rumania. See RUMANIA: 1919: Bessarabia allotted to Rumania.

1919-1920.—Fall of Soviet government.—Supreme council forces retirement of Archduke Joseph.—Huszar ministry.—Parties of the Right in the ascendant.—Admiral Horthy elected regent. — Simonyi-Semadam ministry. — Teleki, prime minister.—“After an ill-fated invasion of Rumania late in July, 1919, the Radical government established under the leadership of Bela Kun . . . came to an end. Its fall was hastened by the publication on July 26 of a statement by M. Clemenceau in behalf of the Peace Conference to the effect that the removal of the Hungarian blockade and the furnishing of food supplies were contingent upon the ousting of the Communist leader. The government of Bela Kun was succeeded by one composed of moderate socialists headed by Jules Peidl. The new government was at once paralyzed when, in defiance of the Supreme Council, the Rumanians occupied Budapest on August 5; two days later it was overthrown by a monarchist *coup d'état*, Archduke Joseph proclaiming himself Governor and appointing a coalition cabinet with Stephen Friedrich, a follower of Count Karolyi, as Premier, Martin Lovassy, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Baron Sigismund Perenyi, Minister of Interior. In his accession to power the Archduke had the support of the monarchists and the peasantry, but was opposed by all the socialist and liberal groups. . . . Mr. Herbert Hoover, [too,] . . . declared before the Peace Conference on August 21, that the new countries of Central Europe were being terrorized by fear of the reestablishment of a Hapsburg dynasty. Largely as a result of Mr. Hoover's testimony the Supreme Council despatched an ultimatum to the Archduke, insisting upon his retirement, with which he complied on August 23. The Allies requested the Friedrich government to continue in office until a representative government could be formed; . . . Friedrich reorganized his cabinet and for the time being strengthened his control by securing the withdrawal of the Rumanian forces [in November] and holding the extreme radicals in check. He failed to convince the Supreme Council that his government was representative, or to accommodate himself to a genuine coalition ministry, and retired on November 18, after nominating Carl Huszar, a Christian Nationalist, as his successor. Huszar was at first strongly opposed by both the National Democrat and the Socialists, but these parties were finally placated by an agreement that general elections would be postponed till January and that the future form of the government should be decided by a plebiscite. The new coalition cabinet, in which Friedrich accepted the Ministry of War, was

officially recognized by the Entente as the *de facto* provisional government. To gain this recognition it agreed to maintain law and order, preserve popular liberties, hold elections without delay on a democratic basis and to abstain from aggressive action against neighboring states. In endeavoring to fulfil these obligations considerable criticism of the government's methods was expressed, and as a protest against what was alleged to be tyrannical interference with political and personal liberties the two representatives of the Social Democratic party withdrew from the cabinet. On December 27 it was officially announced that the military authorities had discovered a dangerous Communist plot for the destruction of the government. The general elections for the National Assembly, held on January 25, [1920] resulted in an overwhelming victory for the parties of the Right: the Christian National Union and the Small Landholders; the



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former secured 68 seats, the latter 71. The other seats were distributed as follows: Christian Socialists, 5; Christian Social Economic party, 4; National Democrats, 6; non-party, 3. The Assembly opened on February 16 and unanimously chose M. Rakovsky as its presiding officer. On March 1, [1920] it was announced that Admiral Nicholas Horthy had been elected Vicegerent (Lord Protector) by the National Assembly. Immediately following this election the Huszar ministry resigned, and on March 10, after the retiring Premier had declined renomination, M. Simonyi-Semadam, a Christian Nationalist and close personal friend of M. Huszar, formed a new government, whose program included measures of agrarian, financial and economic reform. Attempts to deal with the land question . . . met with bitter opposition from the aristocratic landowners. Reactionary terrorism, conducted by the 'Society of Awakening Hungarians' and by army officers . . . finally resulted in the overthrow of the cabinet on June 10. Anti-Semitic demonstrations have also been of frequent

occurrence."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1920, *Supplement*, pp. 132, 133.—The peace treaty of Trianon was signed at Versailles, June 4, 1920 (see TRIANON, TREATY OF). "In July the Prime Minister [Simonyi-Semadam] resigned, and was succeeded in that office by Count Teleki. During the previous year allegations had been made by the extreme Socialists that after the fall of the Soviet Government in Budapest in August, 1919, there had been a general massacre. . . . The British Foreign Office . . . having instituted an inquiry into the matter, . . . the report of the official investigators was issued in May, 1920. The report found that after the re-establishment of Constitutional Government thirty Bolsheviks who had committed murder during the Bolshevik regime had been executed in accordance with the law of the land. It was also ascertained that before the Constitutional Government could make its authority effective, the public had in certain cases taken summary vengeance upon known Bolsheviks—nearly all Jews—for the excesses which they had committed when they were in power. And it was stated that about 370 Bolsheviks had been killed in this manner. It was found, however, that the Constitutional Government so far from taking any part in this vengeance, had put a stop to it as soon as they were able to assert their authority."—*Annual Register*, 1920, p. 227.

1920-1921.—"Little Entente" formed to restrain Hungary.—Ex-King Charles attempts a coup d'état.—"On July 20 (1920), Count Paul Teleki, the Transylvanian magnate who was former minister of foreign affairs, assumed the post of premier. When this new government took office both the Christian Nationalists and the Small Landholders supported it. Count Teleki ventured immediately into foreign policy by holding forth promises to the allies, to France particularly, against Soviet Russia. It was however suspected that the premier purposed primarily to strengthen the national army and as rumors of a royalist plot were [also] rife, the surrounding governments who had profited by the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, were naturally alarmed and formed the so-called 'Little Entente' against the supposed menace of Hungarian aggression. [See JUGO-SLAVIA; 1920.] In the following March, 1921, it was reported on the other hand that Hungary had joined the Polish-Rumanian Alliance against Soviet Russia. Suddenly, on March 26, Charles seemed to confirm all rumors of the projected restoration by prematurely presenting himself in Western Hungary with the design of heading a royal rising. The *coup d'état* proved a fiasco. [Charles ventured to Budapest.] Only when the former ruler appeared in person and demanded that he yield supreme power to him was Horthy aware of a grave situation demanding quick action. 'I will not dispute your right to the throne,' he told Charles; 'but you must remember that I was elected Regent of Hungary and will abandon my place only in response to a constitutional act by the National Assembly.' Charles pleaded in vain, and was told that he must leave the country immediately."—*New York Times Current History*, May, 1921, p. 216.—"Charles's stay in Hungary lasted ten days, and in Budapest but a few hours. His interview with the regent occupied about three hours, at the end of which he decided to return to Bishop Mikeš's palatial home in Szombathely, near Steinamanger; there he marked time for more than a week. His final decision to leave the country came on April 5, when he was confronted with a flat refusal to permit him to stay any longer. The

Government itself cautioned him not to invite danger from the Entente and especially from countries of the Little Entente, i.e., Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Jugoslavia, which threatened war and actually mobilized their military. . . . Charles at last yielded to the demand that he leave the country. He did so on April 6, but before leaving issued the following proclamation:

"His Majesty leaves the country because of his conviction that the moment has not yet come for him to take over his right of governing. He cannot permit maintenance of his right to entail disturbances in the present state of peace. He leaves the land as the crowned King of Hungary.' . . . Charles's unexpected return to Hungary precipitated a Cabinet crisis. . . . On April 13 the Hungarian Government through the Swiss Legation in Vienna, informed the Swiss Federal Council that Hungary considered the former Emperor Charles as its lawful sovereign, and that only 'foreign influences' prevented the ex-Emperor from exercising his rights to authority. It requested the Swiss Government to permit Charles to reside permanently in Switzerland."—*Ibid.*, pp. 217-218, 216.—The Teleki cabinet fell on April 10 and was succeeded by a new ministry headed by Count Stephen Bethlen, who pleaded for coöperation of all classes and promised democratic legislation and freedom of the press. A drastic program of anti-Semitic legislation was adopted by the National Assembly, following a violent outbreak of anti-Jewish demonstrations.—See also JEWS; Austria-Hungary: 1918-1921.

1921.—Compulsory Education Bill. See EDUCATION; Modern developments: 20th century: General education; Hungary.

1921.—Represented at Portorosa conference. See PORTOROSA CONFERENCE.

1921.—Railroad routes in the Balkans.—Topography. See BALKAN STATES: Map.

1921-1922.—Charles's second attempt to seize the throne.—House of Hapsburg deprived of its hereditary rights.—Death of Charles.—Legitimist proclamation.—Ratification of peace treaty with United States.—Charles's second attempt to seize the throne was made October 22-24, 1921. Having made a surprise air flight with his wife, from Switzerland to the Burgenland, he was there joined by a small force of armed Royalists at whose head he marched on Budapest. Twelve miles from Budapest, the Royalists were met and defeated by government troops. The ex-king ordered his troops to surrender and was himself taken prisoner with ex-Queen Zita, while in flight toward Kormorn. The royal couple were first interned in the castle of Prince Esterhazy and later in the monastery of Tihany. A bill depriving the House of Hapsburg of its hereditary rights to the Hungarian throne was passed by the Hungarian National Assembly, November 6, 1921. The ex-king and emperor, Charles, died of pneumonia in his exile at Funchal, Madeira, April 1, 1922. "Although the Hungarian National Assembly had enacted a measure barring the House of Hapsburg from the Hungarian throne, a proclamation issued immediately after the death of Charles and signed by eighteen prominent Legitimist leaders, headed by Counts Apponyi and Andrássy, announced the succession to the Hungarian throne of Prince Otto, eldest son of Charles, and the regency of Queen Zita, pending Otto's coming of age. Cardinal Czernoch, the Prince Primate, endorsed the proclamation, but the government of Regent Horthy took no cognizance of it beyond taking measures to suppress any possible Legitimist *coup*. The frustrated attempt of Charles to regain the throne



was followed by a cabinet crisis, Count Bethlen and his cabinet resigning. Pending the selection of a new cabinet, however, the Bethlen government remained in office and after several weeks of uncertainty received a promise of support from the leaders of the Assembly, thus enabling it to retain its grip. During the winter the violent attacks against the Horthy régime continued and on February 15 a futile attempt was made to assassinate the Regent. The opposition to the government was in no way allayed by a new franchise bill reducing the electorate by about one-quarter and substituting open polling for the secret ballot, thus practically giving the government control over the elections. The general election held from May 28 to June 1 resulted in a large majority for the Horthy-Bethlen régime, the majority being composed exclusively of representatives of the countryside constituencies. Only three out of the eleven cabinet members were reelected. Socialists to the number of about twenty Legitimists elected a number of representatives, but the Free Electionists were practically eliminated. The government in a memorandum to the Reparations Commission reported that the damages suffered under the Rumanian occupation of 1919 amounted to 2,500,000,000 gold francs. A contract has been concluded between the Hungarian government and a French syndicate for the construction of an international free port at Budapest. The separate peace treaty between the United States and Hungary was ratified by the National Assembly on December 12. Following the exchange of ratifications Count Szechenyi . . . was appointed Hungarian Minister to the United States."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, p. 105.

1922.—Status of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922.

1922.—Represented at Genoa conference. See GENOA CONFERENCE (1922).

See also CIVIL LAW: 15th-20th centuries; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Hungary; MASONIC SOCIETIES: Austria-Hungary; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Hungary.

ALSO IN: S. Whitman, *Realm of the Hapsburgs*.—H. W. Steed, *Hapsburg monarchy*.—A. Colquhoun, *Whirlpool of Europe*.—Idem, *Austria-Hungary and the Hapsburgs*.—R. W. Seton-Watson, *Southern Slav question*.—Idem, *Hapsburg monarchy*.—P. Alden, *Hungary of to-day*.—A. de Bertha, *La Hongrie moderne*.—E. de Gaal, *Economical and social politics in Hungary*.—A. Hevesy, *Nationalities in Hungary*.—C. M. Knatchbull-Hugessen, *Political evolution of the Hungarian nation*.—J. A. Lux, *Ungarn*.—E. Sayous, *Histoire générale des Hongrois*.—J. de Vargha, *Hungary, a sketch of the country, its people, and its conditions*.—A. F. Pribram, *Secret treaties of Austria-Hungary*.—L. H. Von Hengelmüller, *Hungary's fight for national existence*.—L. Kellner, *Austria of the Austrians and Hungary of the Hungarians*.—M. Macdonald, *Some experiences in Hungary*.—G. Drage, *Austria-Hungary*.—P. Teleki, *Evolution of Hungary and its place in European history*.

HUNGARY, Constitution of: Development.—"The constitutional development of Hungary has frequently been compared with that of England; the parallel holds with respect to the character of their constitutional laws, for in Hungary as in England the constitution is not embodied in any one instrument, but is contained in numerous laws which may be altered by the regular legislative processes; however, in Hungary the constitution has been embodied in written laws to a much greater extent than in England. The most im-

portant of the earlier constitutional documents of Hungary is the *Bulla Aurea* of Andreas II, which was issued in 1222, and which bears a striking resemblance to the English *Magna Carta* of 1215. *Bulla Aurea* is now only of historical interest, but is of importance as one of the first steps in a long and continuous constitutional development. [See HUNGARY: 1116-1301.] Ferdinand I of Austria was chosen king of Hungary in 1526, after the Hungarian forces had been signally defeated by the Turks at the battle of Mohács. The Hapsburgs constantly endeavored to reduce Hungary to the position of a province of the empire, and to abolish its independent national institutions. However, by the Pragmatic Sanction, which was embodied in three Hungarian laws of 1722-23, the rights of Hungary were guaranteed. Notwithstanding the guaranty of Hungarian institutions the efforts to weaken or destroy them continued. Under Joseph II separate Hungarian institutions were almost completely ignored. In 1791, however, Leopold II approved Hungarian laws which undid all of the attempted reforms of Joseph. From 1791 to 1848 the development of Hungarian institutions was intermittent; from 1815 to 1825 the Diet was not summoned at all. After 1830 the liberal movement began to gain ground, and from 1832 to 1836 the Diet made many efforts to abolish the mediæval political and social organization of the country; these efforts proved fruitless because of the opposition of the members of the Table of Magnates, whose privileges would be lessened by any change. Reform measures were again rejected by the Magnates in the Diets of 1839 and 1842. But popular forces were gaining strength, and the increased national spirit of the Hungarians is shown by the fact that by 1844 Magyar had entirely displaced Latin as the official language. [See also HUNGARY: 1825-1844.] The revolutionary movement of 1848 enabled the liberal members of the Diet to carry their measures. Thirty-one laws, embodying among other things the Hungarian demands for a separate responsible ministry and for annual sessions of the Diet, were enacted and were approved by the Emperor on April 11, 1848. Under these laws Hungary became practically independent, united with Austria by a personal union. When the army began to obtain control of the revolutionary forces of the empire, the Emperor sought an excuse to break with the Hungarian government. Kossuth, now in control of Hungarian affairs, was also eager for a rupture; hostilities commenced, and after Austrian troops had been driven from Hungarian territory, independence of Austria was declared. The Austrian troops proved unequal to the task of subduing the Hungarians; Russian forces were sent to their aid, and the Hungarian revolution terminated with the surrender at Vilagos on August 13, 1849. After Vilagos Hungary was governed for ten years as a subject province; not until after the Italian war was any change made in its position. The Diploma of October 20, 1860, recognized the rights of the Hungarian Diet, but the Patent of February 26, 1861, established a central legislature at Vienna. Hungary refused to join in such a legislature or to be content with any arrangement which should not give her absolute control over her local affairs. For nearly five years the experiment of a central imperial legislature was tried, but it was seen to be a failure. In 1865 negotiations were entered into upon the basis of Hungary's right to an independent government, and the agreement of 1867 guarantees the 'laws, constitution, legal independence, freedom, and territorial integrity of Hungary and its subordinate countries.' The laws of 1848 again came into full

force, and the parliamentary institutions of the country were reestablished upon a firm basis. Under the terms of the agreement of 1867 Hungary was left to deal as it thought best with the races within its territory. With Croatia alone did Hungary find it necessary to make special terms. By a law of 1868, which has been several times amended, an arrangement was made between Hungary and Croatia similar in many respects to that between Austria and Hungary."—W. F. Dodd, *Modern constitutions*, v. 1, pp. 91-93.—See also HUNGARY: 1856-1868.

**HUNGER STRIKES:** Of Irish political prisoners. See IRELAND: 1920 (April-November).

**HUNIADES,** John. See HUNYADI, JÁNOS.

**HUNIADES,** Matthias. See MATTHIAS I OF HUNGARY.

**HUNKERS,** name applied in 1843 to the conservative wing of the Democratic party in New York. See BARNBURNERS; U. S. A.: 1845-1846.

**HUNS:** Gothic account of.—"We have ascertained that the nation of the Huns, who surpassed all others in atrocity, came thus into being. When Filimer, fifth king of the Goths after their departure from Sweden, was entering Scythia, with his people, . . . he found among them certain sorcerer-women, whom they call in their native tongue Aliorumnas (or Al-runas), whom he suspected and drove forth from the midst of his army into the wilderness. The unclean spirits that wander up and down in desert places, seeing these women, made concubines of them; and from this union sprang that most fierce people (of the Huns) who were at first little, foul, emaciated creatures, dwelling among the swamps, and possessing only the shadow of human speech by way of language. . . . Nations whom they would never have vanquished in fair fight fled horrified from those frightful—faces I can hardly call them, but rather—shapeless black collops of flesh, with little points instead of eyes. No hair on their cheeks or chins gives grace to adolescence or dignity to age, but deep furrowed scars instead, down the sides of their faces, show the impress of the iron which with characteristic ferocity they apply to every male child that is born among them. . . . They are little in stature, but lithe and active in their motions, and especially skilful in riding, broad-shouldered, good at the use of the bow and arrows, with sinewy necks, and always holding their heads high in their pride."—Jornandes, *De Rebus Geticis* (quoted in T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 1).

**First appearance in Europe.** See GOTHS: 376; **ASIA:** Earliest history; **EUROPE:** Introduction to historic period: Migrations.

433-453.—**Empire of Attila.**—After driving the Goths from Dacia, the terrible Huns had halted in their march westward for something more than a generation. They were hovering meantime, on the eastern frontiers of the empire "taking part like other barbarians in its disturbances and alliances. Emperors paid them tribute, and Roman generals kept up a politic or a questionable correspondence with them. Stilicho had detachments of Huns in the armies which fought against Alaric; the greatest Roman soldier after Stilicho,—and, like Stilicho, of barbarian parentage,—Aetius, who was to be their most formidable antagonist, had been a hostage and a messmate in their camps. . . . About 433, Attila, the son of Mundzukh, like Charles the Great, equally famous in history and legend, became their king. Attila was the exact prototype and forerunner of the Turkish chiefs of the house of Othman. In his profound hatred of civilized men, in his scorn of their knowledge, their

arts, their habits and religion, and, in spite of this, in his systematic use of them as his secretaries and officers, in his rapacity combined with personal simplicity of life, in his insatiate and indiscriminate destructiveness, in the cunning which veiled itself under rudeness, in his extravagant arrogance, and audacious pretensions, in his sensuality, in his unscrupulous and far-reaching designs, in his ruthless cruelty joined with capricious displays of generosity, mercy, and good faith, we see the image of the irreclaimable Turkish barbarians who ten centuries later were to extinguish the civilization of [eastern?] Europe. The attraction of Attila's daring character, and his genius for the war which nomadic tribes delight in, gave him absolute ascendancy over his nation, and over the Teutonic and Slavonic tribes near him. Like other conquerors of his race, he imagined and attempted an empire of ravage and desolation, a vast hunting ground and preserve, in which men and their works should supply the objects and zest of the chase."—R. W. Church, *Beginning of the Middle Ages*, ch. 1.—"He [Attila] was truly the king of kings; for his court was formed of chiefs, who, in offices of command, had learned the art of obedience. There were three brothers of the race of the Amales, all of them kings of the Ostrogoths; Ardaric, king of the Gepidæ, his principal confidant; a king of the Merovingian Franks; kings of the Burgundians, Thuringians, Rugians, and Heruli, who commanded that part of their nation which had remained at home, when the other part crossed the Rhine half a century before."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman empire*, v. 1, ch. 7.—"The amount of abject, slavish fear which this little swarthy Kalmuck succeeded in instilling into millions of human hearts is not to be easily matched in the history of our race. Whether he had much military talent may be doubted, since the only great battle in which he figured was a complete defeat. The impression left upon us by what history records of him is that of a gigantic bully, holding in his hands powers unequalled in the world for ravage and spoliation. . . . Some doubt has recently been thrown on the received accounts of the wide extent of Attila's power. . . . The prince who felt China on his left, who threatened Persepolis, Byzantium, Ravenna in front, who ruled Denmark and its islands in his rear, and who ultimately appeared in arms on the soil of Champagne on his right, was no minor monarch, and had his empire been as deep as it was widespread, he might worthily have taken rank with Cyrus and Alexander. At the same time it is well to remember that over far the larger part of this territory Attila's can have been only an over-lordship, Teutonic, Slavonic, and Tartar chieftains of every name bearing rule under him. His own personal government, if government it can be called, may very likely have been confined nearly within the limits of the modern Hungary and Transylvania."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 2.—"As far as we may ascertain the vague and obscure geography of Priscus, this [Attila's] capital appears to have been seated between the Danube, the Theiss [Teys] and the Carpathian hills, in the plains of Upper Hungary, and most probably in the neighbourhood of Jazberin, Agria, or Tokay. In its origin it could be no more than an accidental camp, which, by the long and frequent residence of Attila, had insensibly swelled into a huge village."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 34.—See also RUMANIA: B.C. 5th century-A.D. 1241.

441-446.—**Attila's attack on the Eastern empire.**—Attila's first assault upon the Roman power

was directed against the Eastern empire. The court at Constantinople had been duly obsequious to him, but he found a pretext for war. "It was pretended that the Roman bishop of Margus had surreptitiously introduced himself into the sepulchre of the Hunnic kings and stolen from it the buried treasure. The Huns immediately fell upon a Roman town during the time of a fair, and pillaged everything before them, slaying the men and carrying off the women. To all complaints from Constantinople the answer was, 'The bishop, or your lives.' The emperor thought, and with reason, that to give up an innocent man to be massacred would be displeasing to Heaven, would alienate the clergy, and only appease for a moment the demands of his merciless enemy. He refused, though timidly and in vague terms. The Huns replied by scouring Pannonia, laying Sirmium, its capital, in ruins, and extending their ravages far south of the Danube to the cities of Naissa and Sardica, upon both of which they wrought the extremity of their vengeance. A truce of four years only increased their fury and aggravated its effects. The war was suddenly recommenced. This time they reached Thessaly, and renewed with a somewhat similar result the far-famed passage of Thermopylæ by the hordes of Xerxes. Two Roman armies were put to complete rout, and seventy cities levelled to the ground. Theodosius purchased the redemption of his capital by the cession of territory extending for fifteen days' journey south of the Danube, by an immediate payment of 6,000 pounds of gold, and the promise of 2,000 more as an annual tribute."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 4.

451.—Attila's invasion of Gaul.—In the spring of the year 451 Attila moved the great host which he had assembled in the Hungarian plains westward toward the Rhine and the provinces of Gaul. He hesitated, it was said, between the Eastern and Western empires as the objects of his attack. But the East had found an emperor, at last, in Marcian, who put some courage into the state,—who refused tribute to the insolent Hun and showed a willingness for war. The West, under Valentinian III and his mother Placidia, with the Goths, Vandals, Burgundians and Franks in the heart of its provinces, seemed to offer the most inviting field of conquest. Hence Attila turned his horses and their savage riders to the West. "The kings and nations of Germany and Scythia, from the Volga perhaps to the Danube, obeyed the warlike summons of Attila. From the royal village in the plains of Hungary his standard moved towards the West, and after a march of seven or eight hundred miles he reached the conflux of the Rhine and the Neckar, where he was joined by the Franks who adhered to his ally, the elder of the sons of Clodion. . . . The Hercynian forest supplied materials for a bridge of boats, and the hostile myriads were poured with resistless violence into the Belgic provinces." At Metz, the Huns "involved in a promiscuous massacre the priests who served at the altar and the infants who, in the hour of danger, had been providently baptized by the bishop; the flourishing city was delivered to the flames, and a solitary chapel of St. Stephen marked the place where it formerly stood. From the Rhine and the Moselle, Attila advanced into the heart of Gaul, crossed the Seine at Auxerre, and, after a long and laborious march, fixed his camp under the walls of Orleans."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 35.—Meantime the energy of the unscrupulous but able Count Aëtius, who ruled the court and commanded the resources of the Western empire, had brought about a general combination of

the barbarian forces in Gaul with those of the Romans. It included, first in importance, the Goths of the kingdom of Toulouse, under their king Theodoric, and with them the Burgundians, the Alans, a part of the Franks, and detachments of Saxons, Armoricians and other tribes. There were Goths, too, and Franks and Burgundians in the host of the Hun king. The latter laid siege to Orleans and the walls of the brave city were already crumbling under his battering rams when the banners of Aëtius and Theodoric came in sight. Attila retreated beyond the Seine and took a position somewhere within the wide extent of what were anciently called the Catalaunian fields, now known as the Champagne country surrounding Chalons. There, in the early days of July, 451, was fought the great and terrible battle which rescued Europe from the all-conquering Tatar. The number of the slain, according to one chron-



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icler, was 162,000; according to others 300,000. Neither army could claim a victory; both feared to renew the engagement. The Goths, whose king Theodoric was slain, withdrew in one direction, to their own territory; the Huns retreated in the other direction and quitted Gaul forever. The wily Roman, Aëtius, was probably best satisfied with a result which crippled both Goth and Hun. "This tendency [of development of cavalry at the expense of infantry] was only emphasised by the appearance on the Imperial frontier of the Huns, a new race of horsemen, formidable by their numbers, their rapidity of movement, and the constant rain of arrows which they would pour in without allowing their enemy to close. In their tactics they were the prototypes of the hordes of Alp Arslan, of Genghiz, and of Tamerlane. The influence of the Huns on the Roman army was very marked: profiting by their example, the Roman trooper added the bow to his equipment; and in the fifth century the native force of the empire had come to resemble that of its old enemy the

Parthian state of the first century, the choicer corps being composed of horsemen in mail armed with bow and lance. Mixed with these horse-archers fought squadrons of the Teutonic Foederati, armed with the lance alone. Such were the troops of Aëtius and Ricimer, the army which faced the Huns on the plain of Chalons. That decisive battle was pre-eminently a cavalry engagement. On each side horse-archer and lancer faced horse-archer and lancer—Aëtius and his Romans leagued with Theodoric's Visigothic chivalry—Attila's hordes of Hunnish light horse backed by the steadier troops of his German subjects, the Ostrogoths, Gepidæ, Heruli, Scyrri, and Rugians. The Frankish allies of Aëtius must have been the largest body of foot-soldiery on the field, but we hear nothing of their exploits in the battle. The victory was won, not by superior tactics, but by sheer hard fighting, the decisive point having been the riding down of the native Huns by Theodoric's heavier Visigothic horsemen (A.D. 450). It was certainly not the troops of the empire who had the main credit of the day."—C. Oman, *History of the art of war*, p. 21.—As for the battle, its latest historian says: "Posterity has chosen to call it the battle of Chalons, but there is good reason to think that it was fought fifty miles distant from Chalons-sur-Marne, and that it would be more correctly named the battle of Troyes, or, to speak with complete accuracy, the battle of Mery-sur-Seine."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 3.—"It was during the retreat from Orleans that a Christian hermit is reported to have approached the Hunnish king, and said to him. 'Thou art the Scourge of God for the chastisement of Christians.' Attila instantly assumed this new title of terror, which thenceforth became the appellation by which he was most widely and most fearfully known."—E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen decisive battles of the world*, ch. 6.—See also BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455; EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Fall of Rome; Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

452.—Attila's invasion of Italy.—In the summer of 451 Attila, retreating from the bloody plain of Chalons, recrossed the Rhine and returned to his quarters in Hungary. There, through the following autumn and winter, he nursed his chagrin and his wrath, and in the spring of 452 he set his host in motion again, directing its march to the Julian Alps and through their passes into Italy. The city of Aquileia, then prominent in commerce, and prosperous and rich, was the first to obstruct the savage invasion. The defence of the city proved so obstinate that Attila was at the point of abandoning his siege, when a flight of storks, which his shrewdness construed favorably as an omen, encouraged the Huns to one more irresistible assault and the doomed town was carried by storm. "In proportion to the stubbornness of the defence was the severity of the punishment meted out to Aquileia. The Roman soldiers were, no doubt, all slain. Attila was not a man to encumber himself with prisoners. The town was absolutely given up to the rage, the lust, and the greed of the Tartar horde who had so long chafed around its walls. . . . When the barbarians could plunder no more, they probably used fire, for the very buildings of Aquileia perished, so that, as Jornandes tells us, in his time, a century later than the siege, scarcely the vestiges of it yet remained. A few houses may have been left standing, and others must have slowly gathered round them, for the Patriarch of Aquileia retained all through the middle ages considerable remains of his old ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and a large and somewhat stately

cathedral was reared there in the eleventh century. But the City of the North Wind never really recovered from the blow. . . . The terrible invaders, made more wrathful and more terrible by the resistance of Aquileia, streamed on through the trembling cities of Venetia." Patavium (modern Padua), Altinum and Julia Concordia, were blotted out of existence. At Vicenza, Verona, Brescia, Bergamo, Pavia and Milan, the towns were sacked, but spared destruction, and the inhabitants who did not escape were carried away into captivity. Many of the fugitives from these towns escaped the Huns by hiding in the islands and fens of the neighboring Adriatic coast, and out of the poor fishing villages that they formed there grew, in time, the great commercial city and republic of Venice. "The valley of the Po was now wasted to the heart's content of the invaders. Should they cross the Appennines and blot out Rome as they had blotted out Aquileia from among the cities of the world? This was the great question that was being debated in the Hunnish camp, and strange to say, the voices were not all for war. Already Italy began to strike that strange awe into the hearts of her northern conquerors which so often in later ages has been her best defence. The remembrance of Alaric, cut off by a mysterious death immediately after his capture of Rome, was present in the mind of Attila, and was frequently insisted upon by his counsellors." So, the grim Hun was prepared by his superstitions to listen to the embassy from Rome which met him at the Ticino, praying for peace. At the head of the embassy was the venerable bishop of Rome, Leo I—the first of the great popes. To his influence the pacific disposition into which Attila was persuaded has been commonly ascribed. At all events, the king of the Huns consented to peace with the Romans, and withdrew beyond the Danube in fulfilment of the treaty, leaving Italy a desert to the Appennines, but not beyond.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 4.—See also VENICE: 452.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 35.

453.—Death of Attila and fall of his empire.—Attila died suddenly and mysteriously in his sleep, after a drunken debauch, some time in the early months of the year 453, and his death was the end of the "reign of terror" under which he had reduced half the world. "Immediately after his death, the Germans refused to submit to the divided rule of his sons. The army of Attila split up into two great camps; on the one side were the Gepidæ and Ostrogoths, with the majority of the Teutonic nations; on the other the Huns, the Alans, the Sarmatians or Slavonians, and the few Germans who still owned allegiance to the memory of Attila. A vast plain between the Drave and the Danube was selected to decide this vital struggle, known as the battle of Netad, which, though less famous in history, may perhaps claim equal importance with that of Chalons, as an arbiter of the destinies of civilization. . . . Fortune at first seemed to favour the Huns; but German steadfastness prevailed; Goths and Gepidæ scattered the less-disciplined bands of Asia; and Ardaric, the king of the latter tribe for the time, established himself in the royal residence of Attila, and assumed the leading position in the barbarian world."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 4.—"Thirty thousand of the Huns and their confederates lay dead upon the field, among them Ellak, Attila's first-born. . . . The rest of his nation fled away across the Dacian plains, and over the Carpathian mountains to those wide steppes of South-

ern Russia in which at the commencement of our history we saw the three Gothic nations taking up their abode. Ernak, Attila's darling, ruled tranquilly under Roman protection in the district between the lower Danube and the Black Sea, which we now call the Dobrudscha, and which was then 'the lesser Scythia.' Others of his family maintained a precarious footing higher up the stream. . . . There is nothing in the after-history of these fragments of the nation with which any one need concern himself. . . . Dacia, that part of Hungary which lies east and north of the Danube, and which had been the heart of Attila's domains, fell to the lot of the Gepidae, under the wise and victorious Ardaric. Pannonia, that is the western portion of Hungary, with Sclavonia, and parts of Croatia, Styria and Lower Austria, was ruled over by the three Amal-descended kings of the Ostrogoths."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch. 1.

470-480.—**Invasions of India.** See INDIA: B.C. 231-A.D. 480; 480-648.

**Attila in Teutonic legend.**—"Short as was the sway of Attila (from 434 to 453), the terror it had inspired and the great commotion it had brought over the whole Teuton and Roman world, were not . . . soon forgotten. . . . The memory of the great chieftain hovered for a long time, like a bloody phantom, in the Roman annals and in the German sagas. . . . When we compare the historical Attila, before whose piercing glance Rome and Constantinople trembled, with Etzel of the Nibelungen Lied, we find that the latter bears but a slight resemblance to the former. It is true that Attila's powerful sway is still reflected in the Nibelungen Lied, as Kriemhild at her arrival in the land of the Huns is surprised at seeing so many nations submitted to his sceptre. Yet upon the whole Etzel plays in the German epic the part of a weak and sometimes even contemptible king, while glimpses of his real might can be detected only at rare intervals, fluttering as it were in the far-distant background of a by-gone time. . . . The Eddas and the Volsunga Saga bear the impress of the early Teutonic era, when the king was little more than the chosen leader in war; and the Northern people for a long time had in their political institutions nothing by which the conception of a great monarchy, or still less of a far-stretching realm like that of Attila, could be expressed."—G. T. Dippold, *Great epics of medieval Germany*, ch. 4.

**HUNS, White.**—"It was during the reign of this prince [Varahran V, king of Persia, 420-440] that those terrible struggles commenced between the Persians and their neighbours upon the northeast which continued, from the early part of the fifth till the middle of the sixth century, to endanger the very existence of the empire. Various names are given to the people with whom Persia waged her wars during this period. They are called Turks, Huns, sometimes even Chinese; but these terms seem to be used in a vague way, as 'Scythian' was by the ancients; and the special ethnic designation of the people appears to be quite a different name from any of them. It is a name the Persian form of which is 'Haithal,' or 'Haithelch,' the Armenian 'Hephthagh,' and the Greek 'Ephthalites,' or sometimes 'Nephthalites.' . . . All that we know of the Ephthalites is, that they were established in force, during the fifth and sixth centuries of our era, in the regions east of the Caspian, especially in those beyond the Oxus river, and that they were generally regarded as belonging to the Scythic or Finno-Turkic population, which, at any rate from B.C. 200, had

become powerful in that region. They were called 'White Huns' by some of the Greeks; but it is admitted that they were quite distinct from the Huns who invaded Europe under Attila. . . . They were a light-complexioned race, whereas the Huns were decidedly swart; they were not ill-looking, whereas the Huns were hideous; they were an agricultural people, while the Huns were nomads; they had good laws, and were tolerably well civilised, but the Huns were savages. It is probable that they belonged to the Thibetic or Turkish stock."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 14.—"We are able to distinguish the two great divisions of these formidable exiles [the Huns], which directed their march towards the Oxus and towards the Volga. The first of these colonies established their dominion in the fruitful and extensive plains of Sogdiana, on the eastern side of the Caspian, where they preserved the name of Huns, with the epithet of Euthalites [Ephthalites], or Nephthalites. Their manners were softened, and even their features were insensibly improved, by the mildness of the climate and their long residence in a flourishing province; which might still retain a faint impression of the arts of Greece. The White Huns, a name which they derived from the change of their complexion, soon abandoned the pastoral life of Scythia. Gorgo, which, under the appellation of Carizine, has since enjoyed a temporary splendour, was the residence of the king, who exercised a legal authority over an obedient people. Their luxury was maintained by the labour of the Sogdians."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 26.—The White Huns were subjugated by the Turks. See TURKEY: 6th century.

**HUNT, George Wylie Paul** (1859- ), governor of Arizona, 1911-1919. See ARIZONA: 1917.

**HUNT, William Holman** (1827-1910), English painter of the Pre-Raphaelite school. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

**HUNT, William Morris** (1824-1879), American painter. See PAINTING: American.

**HUNTARI.** See HUNDRED.

**HUNTER, Sir Archibald** (1856- ), British general. Served in Egypt, 1885-1889, South Africa, 1900-1901, and India, 1904-1909; governor of the province of Dongola, 1895-1899, of Omdurman, 1899, and of Gibraltar, 1910-1913. See EGYPT: 1897-1898.

**HUNTER, David** (1802-1886), American general. Served in the Mexican War and in the Civil War; appointed to the command of the Department of the South, March, 1862. See U.S.A.: 1861 (July-November); 1862 (May: South Carolina); (May): General Hunter's emancipation order; 1864 (May-June: Virginia): Campaigning in the Shenandoah valley.

**HUNTER, John** (1728-1793), British anatomist and surgeon. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th century: Work of John Hunter; ANTHROPOLOGY: Definition.

**HUNTER, Robert** (d. 1734), British colonial governor of New York and Jamaica. See NEW YORK CITY: 1701-1764.

**HUNTER, Robert Mercer Taliaferro** (1800-1887), American statesman. Member of national House of Representatives from Virginia, 1837-1843, 1845-1847; United States senator, 1847-1861; secretary of state, 1862; senator of the Confederacy, 1862-1865; peace commissioner, 1865; treasurer of the state of Virginia, 1874-1880. See U.S.A.: 1865 (February).

**HUNTER COMMISSION,** to investigate the riots at Amritsar. See INDIA: 1919.

**HUNTER-WESTON**, Sir Aylmer (1864- ), British lieutenant-general. Served in Miranzai, 1891, and in Dongola expeditions, 1896, in South Africa, 1899-1901, and in the World War, 1914-1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 13.**

**HUNTINGDON**, Selina Hastings, Countess of (1707-1791), English religious leader. Founded a sect of Calvinistic Methodists known as the Countess of Huntingdon's Connexion. See **METHODIST CHURCH: 1729-1791.**

**HUNTINGTON**, Ellsworth (1876- ), American explorer and geographer. See **HISTORY: 33.**

**HUNTINGTON**, Samuel (1732-1796), American patriot. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Governor of Connecticut, 1786-1796. See **U.S.A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.**

**HUNTINGTON LIBRARY.** See **LIBRARIES: Modern: United States: Huntington library.**

**HUNTSVILLE**, Capture of. See **U. S. A.: 1862 (April-May: Alabama).**

**HUNYADI, János (John Huniades)** (c. 1387-1456), Hungarian statesman and general. Regent of Hungary, 1446-1453; defended Belgrade against the Turks in 1456. See **HUNGARY: 1301-1442; 1442-1458; BOSNIA: 1453-1528; TURKEY: 1402-1451.**

**HUPA**, or Hoopah, aboriginal tribe of California. See **MODOCs; CHIMARIKAN FAMILY.**

**HURD**, Harvey, American jurist. See **CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.**

**HURKAN LANGUAGE.** See **PHILOLOGY: 23.**

**HURLBUT**, Stephen Augustus (1815-1882), American general. Served in the Civil War; minister to Colombia, 1869-1873; member of national House of Representatives, 1873-1877; minister to Peru, 1881-1882. See **U. S. A.: 1863 (April-May: Mississippi).**

**HURON**, Lake, one of the Great Lakes on the northern frontier of the United States, lying between Michigan and the province of Ontario.—See also **CANADA: 1634-1673.**

1679.—Navigated by La Salle. See **CANADA: 1669-1687.**

**HURONS, NEUTRAL NATION, ERIES.**—“The peninsula between the Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario was occupied by two distinct peoples, speaking dialects of the Iroquois tongue. The Hurons or Wyandots, including the tribe called by the French the Dionondadies, or Tobacco Nation, dwelt among the forests which bordered the eastern shores of the fresh water sea to which they have left their name; while the Neutral Nation, so called from their neutrality in the war between the Hurons and the Five Nations, inhabited the northern shores of Lake Erie, and even extended their eastern flank across the strait of Niagara. The population of the Hurons has been variously stated at from 10,000 to 30,000 souls, but probably did not exceed the former estimate. The Franciscans and the Jesuits were early among them [see **JESUITS: 1542-1640**], and from their descriptions it is apparent that, in legends, and superstitions, manners and habits, religious observances and social customs, they were closely assimilated to their brethren of the Five Nations. . . . Like the Five Nations, the Wyandots were in some measure an agricultural people; they bartered the surplus products of their maize fields to surrounding tribes, usually receiving fish in exchange; and this traffic was so considerable that the Jesuits styled their country the Granary of the Algonquins. Their prosperity was rudely broken by the hostilities of the Five Nations; for though the conflicting parties

were not ill matched in point of numbers, yet the united counsels and ferocious energies of the confederacy swept all before them. In the year 1649, in the depth of winter, their warriors invaded the country of the Wyandots, stormed their largest villages, and involved all within in indiscriminate slaughter. The survivors fled in panic terror, and the whole nation was broken and dispersed. Some found refuge among the French of Canada, where, at the village of Lorette, near Quebec, their descendants still remain; others were incorporated with their conquerors, while others again fled northward, beyond Lake Superior, and sought an asylum among the wastes which bordered on the north-eastern lands of the Dacotah. Driven back by those fierce bison-hunters, they next established themselves about the outlet of Lake Superior, and the shores and islands in the northern parts of Lake Huron. Thence, about the year 1680, they descended to Detroit, where they formed a permanent settlement, and where, by their superior valor, capacity and address, they soon acquired an ascendancy over the surrounding Algonquins. The ruin of the Neutral Nation followed close on that of the Wyandots, to whom, according to Jesuit authority, they bore an exact resemblance in character and manners. The Senecas soon found means to pick a quarrel with them; they were assailed by all the strength of the insatiable confederacy, and within a few years their destruction as a nation was complete.”—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, ch. 1.—Idem, *Jesuits in North America*, ch. 1.—“The first in this locality [namely, the western extremity of the state of New York, on and around the site of the city of Buffalo], of whom history makes mention, were the Attioudarank, or Neutral Nation, called Kah-kwas by the Senecas. They had their council-fires along the Niagara, but principally on its western side. Their hunting grounds extended from the Genesee nearly to the eastern shores of Lake Huron, embracing a wide and important territory. . . . They are first mentioned by Champlain during his winter visit to the Hurons in 1615. . . . but he was unable to visit their territory. . . . The peace which this peculiar people had so long maintained with the Iroquois was destined to be broken. Some jealousies and collisions occurred in 1647, which culminated in open war in 1650. One of the villages of the Neutral Nation, nearest the Senecas and not far from the site of our city [Buffalo], was captured in the autumn of the latter year, and another the ensuing spring. So well-directed and energetic were the blows of the Iroquois, that the total destruction of the Neutral Nation was speedily accomplished. . . . The survivors were adopted by their conquerors. . . . A long period intervened between the destruction of the Neutral Nation and the permanent occupation of their country by the Senecas,”—which latter event occurred after the expulsion of the Senecas from the Genesee valley, by the expedition under General Sullivan, in 1779, during the Revolutionary War. “They never, as a nation, resumed their ancient seats along the Genesee, but sought and found a new home on the secluded banks and among the basswood forests of the Dó-syo-wá, or Buffalo Creek, whence they had driven the Neutral Nation 130 years before. . . . It has been assumed by many writers that the Kah-kwas and Eries were identical. This is not so. The latter, according to the most reliable authorities, lived south of the western extremity of Lake Erie until they were destroyed by the Iroquois in 1655. The Kah-kwas were exterminated by them as early as 1651. On Coronelli's

map, published in 1688, one of the villages of the latter, called 'Kahouagoga, a destroyed nation,' is located at or near the site of Buffalo."—O. H. Marshall, *Niagara frontier*, pp. 5-8, footnote.—"Westward of the Neutrals, along the South-eastern shores of Lake Erie, and stretching as far east as the Genesee river, lay the country of the Eries, or, as they were denominated by the Jesuits, 'La Nation Chat,' or Cat Nation, who were also a member of the Huron-Iroquois family. The name of the beautiful lake on whose margin our city [Buffalo] was cradled is their most enduring monument, as Lake Huron is that of the generic stock. They were called the Cat Nation either because that interesting but mischievous animal, the raccoon, which the holy fathers erroneously classed in the feline gens, was the totem of their leading clan, or sept, or in consequence of the abundance of that mammal within their territory."—W. C. Bryant, *Interesting archaeological studies in and about Buffalo*, p. 12.—H. R. Schoolcraft in his "Sketch of the History of the Ancient Eries," either identifies or confuses the Eries and the Neutral Nation.—See also IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests, etc.; CANADA: 1608-1611; 1615-1616; 1634-1652; 1640-1700.

ALSO IN: J. G. Shea, *Inquiries respecting the lost Neutral Nation*, pt. 4, p. 204.—D. Wilson, *Huron-Iroquois of Canada* (Royal Society of Canada, *Transactions*, 1884).—P. D. Clarke, *Origin and traditional history of the Wyandottes*.—W. Ketchum, *History of Buffalo*, v. 1, ch. 1-2.—N. B. Craig, *Olden time*, v. 1, p. 225.

**HUSCARLS.** See HOUSECARLS.

**HUSEIN.** See HOSAIN.

**HUSEIN IBN ALI** (1856- ), first king of the Hejaz. Member of Imperial Ottoman council; appointed sheriff of Mecca, 1908; after Arab revolt against the Turks, assumed the title of "Sultan of Arabia," 1916; proclaimed "King of the Hejaz" in the same year. See ARABIA: Political divisions; 1916; 1916 (June); 1919: King of Hejaz, etc.; WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: c, 2; c, 3.

**HUSS**, or **Hus**, **John** (c. 1370-1415), Bohemian religious reformer. See BOHEMIA: 1405-1415; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Preliminary movements of Wycliffe and Huss.

**HUSSARS.**—Matthias, son of John Hunyadi, was elected king of Hungary in 1458. "The defence of the country chiefly engaged the attention of Matthias at the commencement of his reign. Measures of defence were accordingly carried on with the utmost speed, the most important of which was the establishment of regular cavalry; to levy which one man was enrolled out of every 20 families. This was the origin of the 'Hussar,' meaning in Hungarian the price or due of twenty."—E. Szabad, *Hungary, past and present*, p. 50.

**HUSSEIN HILMI PASHA.** See HILMI PASHA.

**HUSSEIN KEMAL PASHA**, Prince (c. 1850-1917), son of Khedive Ismail; succeeded Abbas Hilmi, khedive of Egypt, with the title of "sultan," 1914. See EGYPT: 1914; World War; 1917; WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: h.

**HUSSEIN PASHA**, or **Hosain III** (1773-1838), dey of Algiers. See BARBARY STATES: 1830.

**HUSSITE WARS**, civil war of a political and religious character which broke out in Bohemia after the death of John Huss. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

**HUSTINGS, COURT OF HUSTING.**—"The 'hygh and auneynt' Court of Husting of the City of London is of Anglo-Saxon, or, to speak more accurately, of Scandinavian origin, being a re-

markable memorial of the sway once exercised over England by the Danes and other Northmen. The name of the Court is derived from [hus], 'a house,' and [d(h)ing], a thing, 'cause,' or 'council,' and signifies, according to general acception, 'a court held in a house,' in contradistinction to other 'things,' or courts, which in Saxon times were usually held in the open air. . . . The term 'Husting' or, less correctly, 'Hustings' is commonly applied at the present day to open-air assemblies or temporary courts, usually held in some elevated position, for the purpose of electing members of Parliament in counties and boroughs, its strict etymological meaning being lost sight of. . . . [The Court of Husting] is the oldest court of record within the City, and at one time constituted the sole court for settling disputes between citizen and citizen."—R. R. Sharpe, *Introduction to calendar of wills, Court of Husting, London*.—The Hustings disappeared from elections in 1872.

**HUSZAR**, Carl (1882- ), Hungarian statesman. Served as premier, November, 1919-1920. See HUNGARY: 1919-1920.

**HUT SERVICE:** In World War. See Y. M. C. A.: World War activities: 1914: First social welfare organization.

**HUTCHINSON**, Anne (c. 1600-1643), American religious enthusiast. Involved in the Antinomian controversy; banished from Boston and settled in what is now Rhode Island, 1638. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1636-1638; RHODE ISLAND: 1638-1640; U.S.A.: 1607-1752.

**HUTCHINSON**, Thomas (1711-1780), last royal governor of Massachusetts. Became very unpopular during pre-revolutionary troubles in Boston, and was driven from the country in 1774. See U. S. A.: 1761; 1774 (May-July); 1774-1775.

**HUTIER**, Oskar von (1857- ), German general. Served in World War, 1914-1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; b, 1; c, 33; d; d, 2; d, 3; g, 5.

**HUTTEN**, Ulrich von (1488-1523), German humanist, poet and reformer. Served in the imperial army, 1513; sided with the Swabian League against Duke Ulrich of Württemberg. Among his more important works are: "Ars versificandi," "Nemo," and numerous satires. His greatest fame, however, rests on his probable contribution to the second part of the celebrated "Epistolae obscurorum virorum." See EDUCATION: Modern: 15th-16th centuries: Relation of Renaissance and Reformation.

**HUTTON**, James (1726-1797), Scottish geologist. Wrote the "Theory of the Earth" and other works on natural philosophy. See EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

**HUTUKTU**, spiritual ruler of Mongolia, residing at Urga. He is termed the "Living Buddha," and corresponds in a measure to the Dalai Lama of Tibet. See MONGOLIA: 1911.

**HUXLEY**, Thomas Henry (1825-1895), English biologist. Contributed to practically every department of biology, and was an ardent advocate of Darwin's "Origin of Species." Among his most important books are: "Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature," 1863; "Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals," 1871; "Elementary Biology," 1875; "The Crayfish: An Introduction to the Study of Zoology," 1880, and "Collected Essays" in nine volumes, 1893-1894. He held many posts of honor and professorships in various colleges.—See also AGNOSTICISM; EDUCATION: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Spencer, Huxley, etc.; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1832-1890; EVOLUTION: Historical development of the idea.

**HUY**, fortified town in the province of Liège, Belgium, on the right bank of the Meuse, nineteen miles east of Namur.

1703.—Taken by Imperialists. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1705.—Taken by French. See NETHERLANDS: 1705.

1914.—German atrocities. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 3.

**HUYGENS**, Christian (1629-1695), Dutch astronomer, mathematician and physicist. See INVENTIONS: 16th-17th centuries: Time measurement; Instruments.

**HWANG-HO**, Hoang-Ho, or Huang-Ho (*Yellow river*), second largest river of China, rising in Central Asia. See CHINA: Geography of China proper.

**HWICCAS**, name borne by the West Saxons who first settled in Gloucestershire and Worcestershire when that region was conquered. They led a revolt against the West Saxon king Ceawlin, in which they were joined by the Britons, or Welsh. The battle of Wanborough, fought 591, drove Ceawlin from the throne.—J. R. Green, *Making of England*, pp. 129-208.—See also ENGLAND: 547-633.

**HYACINTHIA**, Feast of the.—“The feast of the Hyacinthia was held annually at Amyclæ [Lacedæmonia], on the longest day of the Spartan month Hecatombæus, corresponding to our June and July. . . . Hyacinthus, the beautiful youth slain accidentally by Apollo, was the chief object of the worship. He took his name from the flower, which was an emblem of death; and the original feast seems to have been altogether a mournful ceremony,—a lamentation over the destruction of the flowers of spring by the summer heat, passing on to a more general lament over death itself.”—G. Rawlinson, *History of Herodotus*, note, bk. 9, sect. 7.

**HYBLA**.—“There was a Sikel goddess Hybla, whom the Greeks looked on as the same with several goddesses of their own mythology, here with one, there with another. Three towns in Sicily were called after her, one in the southeastern part of the island, now Ragusa, another on the coast north of Syracuse, near the place where the Greek colony of Megara was afterwards planted. This gave its name to the Hyblaian hills not far off, famous for their honey; but there is no hill strictly called Mount Hybla. The third Hybla is inland, not far from Catania, and is now called Paterno.”—E. A. Freeman, *Story of Sicily*, p. 33.

**HYDASPES**, ancient name of the river Jelum, or Jhelum, in the Punjab, on the banks of which the Indian king Porus made a vain attempt to oppose the invasion of Alexander.—C. Thirlwall, *History of Greece*, ch. 53.

**HYDE**, Edward, 1st Earl of Clarendon. See CLARENDON, EDWARD HYDE.

**HYDE VS. CONTINENTAL TRUST COMPANY**. See U. S. A.: 1895 (April-May).

**HYDER ALI** (c. 1722-1782), Hindu ruler and warrior. His wars with England were among the most ferocious and bloody episodes of the British conquest of India. See INDIA: 1767-1769; 1780-1783.

**HYDERABAD**, or Haiderabad, principal native state of India, and important commercial region. It is ruled by a nizâm. The area is 82,698 square miles. In 1921 it had a population of 12,453,627. See INDIA: 1662-1748; Map.

1798.—Treaty with English. See INDIA: 1798-1805.

**HYDERABAD**, or Haiderabad, fortified city and district of the Sind province of Bombay in British India. See BOMBAY PRESIDENCY; SIND.

**HYDRAULUS**, or Hydraulic organ, early musical instrument. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval; Wind instruments.

**HYDROPLANE**: Construction. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1910-1920.

**HY-IVAR**, sovereigns of island empire of Normans. See NORMANS: 8th-9th centuries: Island empire, etc.; 10th-13th centuries.

**HYKSOS**, shepherd kings of Egypt. See EGYPT: Hyksos; CANAAN; JEWS: Children of Israel in Egypt.

**HYLLEANS**.—“The Hylleans are never mentioned in any historical narrative, but always in mythical [Greek] legends; and they appear to have been known to the geographers only from mythological writers. Yet they are generally placed in the islands of Melita and Black-Corcyra, to the south of Liburnia.”—C. O. Müller, *History and antiquities of the Doric race*, v. 1, introduction.

**HYLLEIS**, Dorian clan descended from Hyllus, son of Heracles. See SPARTA: Constitution ascribed to Lycurgus.

**HYMANS**, Paul (1865- ), Belgian statesman. Member of Belgian mission to the United States, 1914; minister of foreign affairs, 1918-1920; representative at the peace conference, 1919. See BELGIUM: 1919; 1920; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: x.

**HYMETTUS**, one of the noted mountains of Attica, “celebrated for its excellent honey, and the broad belt of flowers at its base, which scented the air with their delicious perfume.”—M. and R. P. Willson, *Mosaics of Grecian History*, p. 9.

**HYMN OF HATE**, poem by Lissauer expressing hatred of England, popular in Germany during the World War.

**HY-NIALS AND EUGENIANS**.—“As surnames were not generally used, either in Ireland or anywhere else, till after the 10th century, the great families are distinguishable at first only by their tribe or clan names. Thus, at the north we have the Hy-Nial race; in the south the Eugenic race, so called, from Nial and Eoghan, their mutual ancestors.”—T. D. McGee, *Popular history of Ireland*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 2.

**HYPATIA** (c. 370-415), mathematician and philosopher, born in Alexandria of Greek parentage. She became the head of the Neo-Platonic school in that city. Her large following aroused the hatred of the ecclesiastical leaders, and she was brutally murdered by a fanatical mob, led by priests and monks, with the criminal connivance of Cyril, bishop of Alexandria. See ALEXANDRIA: 413-415.

**HYPERBOREANS**, mythical people, supposed by the ancients to have dwelt beyond the north wind, and therefore to have enjoyed a perfect climate in the extreme north.

**HYPHISIS**, ancient name of the river Sutlej, in the Punjab.

**HYPHENATED AMERICANS**, term applied during the World War to those naturalized citizens who were suspected of acting in the interests of their former country. See AMERICANIZATION: Hypheism.

**HYPPOCHLORITE**: Use in treatment of wounds. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 1914-1918.

**HYPOTHEC**, in Roman law, the right or security given by contract to a creditor over property of the debtor to satisfy a claim. See COMMON LAW: 1864.



**HYRCANIA, HYRCANIAN SEA.**—"The mountain-chain which skirts the Great Plateau [of Iran] on the north, distinguished in these pages by the name of Elburz, broadens out after it passes the south-eastern corner of the Caspian Sea till it covers a space of nearly three degrees (more than 200 miles). Instead of the single lofty ridge which separates the Salt Desert from the low Caspian region, we find between the 54th and 59th degrees of east longitude three or four distinct ranges, all nearly parallel to one another, having a general direction of east and west. . . . Here in Persian times was settled a people called Hyrcani; and from them the tract derived the name of Hyrcania (Vehrkana), while the lake [Caspian sea] on which it adjoined came to be known as 'the Hyrcanian Sea.' The fertility of the region, its broad plains, shady woods, and lofty mountains were celebrated by the ancient writers."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Persia,*

*ch. 1.*—"In the inscriptions of the Achæmenids their land [Hyrcania] is known as Varkana; the modern name is Jorjan. Here, according to the Greeks, the mountains were covered with forests of oaks, where swarms of wild bees had their hives; in the valleys vines and fig-trees flourished, and the soil down to the sea was so luxuriant that corn grew from the fallen grains without any special sowing."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity, bk. 7, ch. 1.*—See also PARTHIA.

**HYRCANUS I,** or John Hyrcanus (175-104 B.C.), Maccabean high priest of the Jews, 135-105 B.C. See JEWS: B.C. 166-40.

**Hyrcanus II,** (d. 30 B.C.) last of the Maccabean princes of Judea, 78-40 B.C.

**HYSIAE, Battle of** (669 B.C.). See GREECE: B.C. 8th-5th centuries: Growth of Sparta.

**HYTHE,** market town of Kent, England, 67 miles southeast of London; one of the Cinque ports. See CINQUE PORTS.

## I

**IAMBLICUS** (died c. 330), Greek philosopher. See NEOPLATONISM.

**IANNINA.** See JANNINA.

**Pasha of.** See ALI PASHA.

**IAPYGIANS,** tribe of ancient Italy. See ITALY: Ancient: CEnotrians.

**IATRO-CHEMISTRY.** See CHEMISTRY: General: Iatro or medical chemistry.

**IAZYGES,** or Jazyges, a Sarmatian or Slavonic people who settled in Hungary about the first century A.D. See LIMIGANTES.

**IBEAA.**—"The territory secured by England in East Equatorial Africa as a result of the dismemberment of the Zanzibar domain has received the somewhat fantastic name of Ibea, a term formed by the initial letters, I. B. E. A. of the full title, Imperial British East Africa."—A. H. Keane, *Africa (Stanford's compendium of geography, v. 2, ch. 11).*

**IBERA, Battle at** (216 B.C.). See PUNIC WARS: First.

**IBERIANS: Eastern.**—"The Sapeires [of Herodotus] appear to be the Iberians of later writers. The name is found under the various forms of Saspeires, Sapeires, Sabeires, or Sabeiri, and Abeires, whence the transition to Iberes is easy. They . . . must evidently have inhabited the greater part of the modern province of Georgia. . . . There is reason to believe that the modern Georgians—still called 'Virk' by their neighbours—are their descendants."—G. Rawlinson, *History of Herodotus, bk. 7, appendix 1.*—See also ALARODIANS.—If these Iberians of the east were connected in race or origin of name with the Iberians of western Europe, the connection does not seem to have been traced. See TURKEY: 1063-1073.

**Western.**—"The numerous skulls obtained from Basque cemeteries possess exactly those characters which have been remarked . . . in the Neolithic tombs and caves in Britain and on the Continent, and may therefore be taken to imply that the Basque-speaking peoples are to be looked upon as a fragment of the race which occupied the British Isles, and the area west of the Rhine and north of the Alps, in the Neolithic age. . . . Nor can there be any reasonable doubt as to this small, dark-haired people being identical with the ancient Iberians of history, who have left their name in the Iberian peninsula [Spain] as a mark of their former dominion in the west. . . . In ancient times they were spread through Spain as far to the south as the Pillars of Hercules, and as far to the

north-east as Germany and Denmark. The Iberic population of the British Isles was apparently preserved from contact with other races throughout the whole of the Neolithic age. On the Continent, however, it is not so; a new set of men, differing in physical characteristics from them, make their appearance. . . . The new invader is identified by Thurnam and Huxley with the Celts of history. . . . These two races were in possession of Spain during the very earliest times recorded in history, the Iberians occupying the north-western region, and the Celts, or Gauls, extending in a broad band south of the Pyrenees along the Mediterranean shore. . . . In the north the Vascones then, as now, held the Basque provinces of Spain. The distribution of these two races in Gaul is similar to that which we have noted in Spain. . . . When Cæsar conquered Gaul, the Iberian Aquitani possessed the region bounded by the river Garonne, the Cevennes, and the Pyrenees. . . . An ethnological connection also between Aquitaine and Brittany (Armorica) may be inferred from the remark of Pliny, 'Aquitania Armorica ante dicta.' . . . Just as the Celts pushed back the Iberian population of Gaul as far south as Aquitania, and swept round it into Spain, so they crossed the channel and overran the greater portion of Britain, until the Silures, identified by Tacitus with the Iberians, were left only in those fastnesses which were subsequently a refuge for the Welsh against the English invaders."—W. B. Dawkins, *Early man in Britain, ch. 9.*—See also SPAIN: Aboriginal peoples; AFRICA: Prehistoric peoples; AQUITAINE: Ancient tribes; CELTIBERIANS; EUROPE: Introduction to historic period: Correlation of race, nationality and language; GAUL: Civilization; LIGURIANS.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans, ch. 2, sect. 5.*

**IBERION,** early name for Ireland. See ALBION.

**IBERVILLE, Pierre le Moyné, Sieur d'** (1661-1706), French-Canadian naval and military commander. Attacked Schenectady, 1690; took Forts Nelson and Bourbon on Hudson bay, 1694 and 1697 respectively; built Fort Biloxi on the Mississippi river, 1690. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712; 1690-1763; MISSISSIPPI: 1600-1710.

**IBN KHALDUN** (1332-1406), Arabic historian. See HISTORY: 21; 33.

**IBN RASHID,** name of one of the leading dynasties of Arabia. See ARABIA: 1910: King of Hejaz.

**IBRAHIM** (1615-1648), Ottoman sultan, 1640-1648. See **TURKEY**: 1645-1666.

**IBRAHIM PASHA** (1789-1848), Egyptian general. Subdued Wahhabis, 1816-1818; captured Acre, 1832; defeated the Turks, 1832 and 1839, viceroy of Egypt, 1848. See **EGYPT**: 1840-1869; **GREECE**: 1821-1829.

**IBSEN, Henrik** (1828-1906), Norwegian dramatist. See **DRAMA**: 1800-1900; 20th century; **SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE**: 1857-1010.

**ICA**, city of southern Peru. See **PERU**: 1820-1826.

**ICARIA**, one of the demes of Attica, where Icarus, in a Greek legend, was taught wine-making by Dionysus.

**ICARIA**, Ægean, island near Samos which, in ancient times, belonged to the Samians.

**ICARIA**, Iowa, socialistic community. See **SOCIALISM**: 1840-1883.

**ICARIA-SPERANZA**, socialistic community in California. See **SOCIALISM**: 1840-1883.

**ICE**: Early processes of production. See **INVENTIONS**: 19th century: Refrigeration.

**ICE AGE**, Polar. See **ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION**: Scientific observations.

**ICELAND**: Geography.—Area.—Resources.—Early history.—Iceland, an island in the North Atlantic, northwest of the Hebrides, "lies just on the edge of the Arctic Circle, 250 miles from Greenland and 600 miles from Norway. [See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Map of the world.] It belongs geographically to the western hemisphere, but historically and politically to the eastern. . . . Iceland is of volcanic origin; its rocks are almost all igneous; and there are yet several active volcanoes, the chief of which is Hecla, over five thousand feet high. . . . Much of the island is perpetually covered with snow and ice—one jökul, the Vatna, having in itself an area of four thousand square miles. . . . The summers in Iceland are short, and warm considering the latitude; the winters are long and cold, yet tempered somewhat by the Gulf Stream. For four months in the year the stars do not shine, and for four months the sun does not shine. Thus the year in Iceland may be thought of as one long day—four months light, four months night, four months twilight."—E. U. Hoenshel, *Land of frost and fire*, pp. 19-20.—It has an estimated population, 1920, of 94,600, and an area of 39,709 square miles of which only one seventh is productive. The chief crops are hay, turnips, and potatoes. The principal occupation of the Icelanders is cattle and sheep-breeding. The total value of the fisheries in 1918 was estimated at 22,600,000 kronur, or approximately \$6,063,000. The capital and largest town is Reykjavik, with a population in 1920 of 17,976. Iceland is probably the only country with no debt, but with 1,000,000 kronur of savings in its exchequer. Women have been in possession of the municipal vote earlier in Iceland than any other country and they do not change their names when they marry.

"According to Decuil, Iceland [anciently known as Thule (see **THULE**)] was . . . discovered by Irish monks prior to 705. Are Frode [or Ari the Learned], the earliest Icelandic historian, who has written a very reliable work on the early history of Iceland, the 'Islandingabók,' says that at the time when the Norsemen first began to visit the island 'they found Christian men there whom they called *papa*, but they soon left because they did not wish to dwell among the heathens. They left Irish books, bells, and crosiers, from which one must judge that they were Irish.' The 'Landnámabók' also mentions these Irish monks, and

the name of the island of Papey, off the east coast, still brings to memory their stay in Iceland. . . . Are Frode says that Iceland was first settled in the days of Harald Haarfagre, 870 years after the birth of Christ, by people from Norway. According to Sturla's 'Landnámabók,' the Norseman Naddod first reached the island, having lost his way while on a voyage from Norway to the Faroe Islands. According to the 'Historia Norwegiae' and Hauk's 'Landnámabók' the Swede Gardar first discovered Iceland. But neither the story of Naddod, nor that of Gardar, can be regarded as anything but tradition."—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, p. 137.

Also in: T. Ellwood, *Book of the settlement of Iceland* (tr. from the original *Icelandic of Ari the Learned*).

870-1004.—**Norwegian immigration**.—Parliament established.—"The first Norwegian settler of Iceland was Ingolf Arnarson, about A.D. 874. When after the battle of Hafstríod, 872, Harald Fairhair became the undisputed King of all Norway and subjected its free chieftains to taxation, they preferred to emigrate. For sixty years a stream of men of the highest and best blood in Norway landed on the shores of Iceland. Chieftains took with them earth from below the temple altar in the motherland, and placed it in the new temple which they built in the new land. Each chieftain ruled his district or land-take (*land-nám*), as it was called. Iceland was settled in 870-930, partly direct from Norway, partly by Norsemen and Celts from the northern parts of the British Isles. . . . [See also **AMERICA**: 10th-11th centuries.] The chieftains, *Godar* (singular *Godi*), presided at temple feasts and sacrifices, and were, at the same time, the temporal and spiritual heads of the people. They sent Úlfljótt to Norway to make a Constitution for the Icelandic Commonwealth. He accomplished this in three years. In 930 a central Parliament for all Iceland, *Althing* or *Althingi*, was established at Thingvellir in Southwest Iceland, and a Law Speaker was appointed to 'speak the law.'—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, pp. 157-158.—"The Althing . . . lasted for several hundred years as the government of the land; it met for two weeks every summer at Thingvellir. While it was in session laws were made, cases tried, and sentences executed."—E. U. Hoenshel, *Land of frost and fire*, p. 26.—See also **THING**.—"In 964 the number of chieftaincies (*Godord*) was fixed at thirty-nine, nine for each of the four quarters into which the island was divided, except for the north quarter, which was allowed twelve chieftains instead of nine. The Althing, as a court of appeal, acted through four courts, one for each quarter. There was also a fifth court, instituted in 1004, which exercised jurisdiction in cases where the other courts failed. For legislative purposes the Althing acted through a Committee of 144 men, only one-third of whom, viz. the thirty-nine Godar, and their nine nominees, had the right to vote. These nine nominees were elected by the Godar of the south, west, and east quarters, three by each quarter in order to give each of them the same number of men on the Committee as the north quarter had."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, pp. 158-159.

981-1000.—**Introduction of Christianity**.—Function of the bishops.—Beginnings of a literature.—The first attempt at converting the Icelanders to Christianity was made by a native of the country, named Thorvald, known to history as Thorvald, the Far-travelled. After having spent

sometime in Viking raids he went to Germany where he made the acquaintance of a bishop named Frederick and by whom he was baptised and converted. Thorvald prevailed upon the bishop to undertake with him a journey to Iceland, in order to preach God's word; they reached Iceland in 981 and remained five years. "At the Althing in A.D. 1000 a debate took place about adopting Christianity as the religion of the country. Christian chieftains supported this proposal of the envoys of King Olaf Trygvason of Norway. To avoid civil war the heathens agreed to abide by the decision of the heathen Law Speaker as to whether the new or the old religion should prevail in Iceland. For three days and three nights the Speaker lay in his tent pondering over the two religions. On the fourth day he stood forth on the Law Mount and declared that the Icelanders were to be baptized and to be called Christians, the temples to be pulled down, but those who liked to sacrifice privately in their homes to the old gods might continue to do so, and some of the heathen customs were to be permitted. This met with acceptance as a wise political move; the hot springs in the neighbourhood were used for the baptism (i.e. immersion) as the men of Northern and Eastern Iceland stipulated that they should be baptized in warm water. . . . After the introduction of Christianity the two Bishops of Iceland were added to the *Lögretta*, over which the Law Speaker, the sole official of the Commonwealth, used to preside. It was his duty to recite aloud, in the hearing of all present at the Parliament, the whole law of Iceland, and to go through it in the course of the three years during which he held office. . . . As no laws were written down . . . he had to rely solely on his memory. . . . He was the living voice of the law, and his decisions were accepted as final."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, p. 160.—"With the liberation of the intellect there began to develop a literature. It was the age of the *Sagas*, (family legends and traditions) and of the *Eddas*, (productions similar to the *Sagas*, but more poetical)."—E. U. Hoenshel, *Land of frost and fire*, p. 26.—See also *EDDA*; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 9th-13th centuries.—"The first Bishop of Iceland, Isleif, was ordained at Bremen in 1056, and established the episcopal see at his family seat, Skálholt."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, p. 162.

ALSO IN: E. Magnusson, *Conversion of Iceland to Christianity, A.D. 1000* (*Saga Book of the Viking Club*, v. 2, p. 348).

12th-13th centuries. — Literature. — Political changes.—"In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries six Benedictine and five Augustinian monasteries were founded, all of them centres of learning and culture; a great part of the old Icelandic literature is supposed to have been written, or at least copied, in them. Two Benedictine monasteries in North Iceland, founded 1133 and 1155, were the earliest. The Icelandic monks wrote in Icelandic, and not in Latin, as all their brethren on the Continent did. . . . The Icelandic clergy were national, and many chieftains were learned men—both things unique in Europe at this time. . . . The two centuries and a half which followed the introduction of Christianity were the greatest period in the history of Iceland. A great literature sprung up in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries at a time when the rest of Europe had nothing better to show than dry annalists, with the single exception of the Provençal Troubadours. At the Courts of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Dublin, and Orkney, Icelandic poets were the only

singers of heroic deeds. It was an outburst of literature such as the world had not seen since the downfall of Rome."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, pp. 161-162.—See also SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 9th-13th centuries; MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia.—Iceland had gradually become a place of refuge for rebellious Norwegian subjects. Many attempts were made to conquer it, but for many years they met with no success. The internal history of Iceland was mainly one of rivalries among chieftains. "The Constitution of the Commonwealth did not provide for any central authority which could enforce obedience to the laws and hold lawbreakers in check. By degrees the chieftaincies passed into the hands of a few great families. In consequence some chiefs became masters of large districts, and, like feudal lords, rode to the Althing with an armed body of retainers, numbered by hundreds. The old blood-feuds became little wars, and armies of more than a thousand men sometimes took the field. Continual civil wars raged throughout the first half of the thirteenth century, and some of the great families who had monopolized the chieftaincies were exterminated in them. Rome and Norway took the opportunity to assert their supremacy."—*Ibid.*, p. 163.—The factions were largely connected with the contests of Snorri, Thord, and Sieghvat, the three sons of Sturle Thordson, who had been "godar," or supreme magistrate, of several provinces. His sons had inherited his offices, but were unable to agree among themselves and the whole country was in confusion.

1262.—Union with Norway.—Treaty of Union.—"The Kings of Norway had always held that the Icelanders as Norwegian colonists ought to own their supremacy, though they had in vain tried to induce the Althing to hold this view. King Hakon Hakonsson (1217-63) began to summon Icelandic chieftains to Norway in order to settle their disputes as if he were their suzerain. He interfered, and set chief against chief. Sturla Sieghvatsson entered into a secret league with Hakon to conquer Iceland for him and hold it as his liegeman. He attacked chief after chief and sent them to Norway. . . . Through bribery and persuasion and by sending emissaries through the island the King brought about that the Icelandic Parliament passed a Treaty of Union [in 1262] with the Crown of Norway in which they accepted its supremacy."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, pp. 163-164.—"The Althing of 1262, in accepting the overlordship of the Norwegian King, did not thereby surrender the sovereignty of Iceland. The standpoint of its honest members was that, for the sake of greater order and security in their country, the rule of the King was necessary; but in accepting that rule they did not declare their land to be part of the Norwegian kingdom. They accepted the King of Norway as King of Iceland. A just recognition of that position would have made for the peace and prosperity of both countries, but governments in those days were imbued by the theory that the land was the King's and his to dispose of according to his pleasure, but throughout their history the citizens of Iceland declared against this principle, and their greatest leader, Jon Sigurdsson, refused to accept the idea that the Treaty of 1262 was an acknowledgement of annexation."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, p. 8.—"The treaty of union, as passed by the Althing, enacted that a jarl should represent the King of Norway in Iceland; that the Icelanders should keep their own laws and keep

the power of taxation in their hands; that they should have all the same rights as Norwegians in Norway; that at least six trading ships should sail from Norway to Iceland annually; that 'if this treaty, in the estimation of the best men (in Iceland) is broken, the Icelanders shall be free of all obligations toward the King of Norway.' This treaty is the Magna Charta, the charter of liberty of Iceland. It has sometimes been in abeyance, but has never been abolished. It has sometimes been disregarded by Denmark, when it wished to make Iceland a Danish province, but the people of Iceland have always taken a firm stand upon it."—J. Stefansson, *Iceland: Its history and inhabitants* (Smithsonian Institution, Annual report, 1906, pp. 201-202).

1262-1281.—Abolition of the provincial courts and the fifth Court of Appeal.—Norwegian code of law substituted for the Gragas.—"The settlement made in 1262, under which the legislative power in Iceland lay in the hands of the Althing and the King, might have worked out quite successfully had there been an honest intent behind the King's work. . . . In the Icelandic interpretation of the Gamli Sattmali the Althing had granted Haakon of Norway merely mandatory powers, regarding him as their king and their protector against the menace of any other nation. . . . Norway in her days of might . . . proceeded slowly but gradually to destroy every vestige of the independence of the commonwealth. The people of Iceland were in no fit condition to resist the encroachments for the long civil wars of the Sturlunga period [1160-1262] left the land a little out of breath. . . . On the coming into force of the union with Norway the four provincial Courts and the fifth Court or Court of Appeal were abolished and their place taken by the Logrjetta of thirty-six men. Many of these men were just in their dispensation of the law, but many were merely the creatures . . . of the Norwegian King. . . . In the work of denationalisation the church was not far behind the lawyers. Like a great many continental bishops, those of Iceland were more in the nature of temporal princes than pastors. . . . [The Kings of Norway] took advantage of the bishops' desire for power to seize still more of the constitutional prerogatives of the Icelandic Commonwealth, and when opportunity occurred they appointed to the two dioceses of Holar and Skalholt bishops who were Norwegians or Danes. . . . The revenues of the country were farmed out to tax-proctors, who in most cases were foreigners."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 9-11.—"The old code of laws (*Grágás*), elaborate as the Codex Justinianus, was replaced in 1271 by the Norwegian code of law. Two Lawmen were to govern the country and the *Lögretta* was limited to its judicial functions. The Althing did not favour the new code and a compromise code, called *Jónsbók*, after the Lawmen who brought it from Norway, was passed in 1281, with some changes. Iceland was divided into *sýslur*, counties administered by sheriffs (*sýslumenn*) appointed by the King. The estates of the greatest house in Iceland, the Sturlungs, were confiscated by the King."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, p. 165.

14th-18th centuries.—Transferred to Denmark.—Trade and piracy.—English influence.—Economic ruin and disaster.—A "step towards the provincialisation of Iceland was made in the year 1389, when Denmark and Norway came under the rule of Olaf. This event was viewed by the Icelanders as merely a change of masters, but to

the Norwegians it meant extinction."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, p. 12.—The three Scandinavian kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were joined in a union which did not endure. Its dissolution left Norway, with Iceland as a dependency, attached to Denmark, and that connection was maintained till 1814. Norway was then transferred from the Danish to the Swedish crown; but Iceland was still kept as a part of the dominion of the Danish king. "No person was allowed to trade with Iceland save through the royal monopolists; no person in Iceland or Greenland could purchase goods from any trader save the representatives of the monopoly. After the Danish Union misfortunes and calamities came thick on Iceland. While the country was always menaced by storms, volcanoes, and glaciers, it was also exposed to foreign war from the 15th century. The wealth of the Iceland seas has always been an attraction to the nations of Europe, and from 1400 the English merchants fished in those waters and carried on a piratical and clandestine trade with the interior."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, p. 12.—"The fifteenth century is looked upon as the darkest age of Icelandic history. Denmark confined all Iceland trade to the one port of Bergen in Norway, and the English trade with Iceland, which began about 1412, was carried on in defiance of edicts from Copenhagen. Soon the English buccaneers took the law into their own hands and arrested all Danish and Norwegian officials who tried to prevent their trade. The Icelanders seem to have taken the English side in these quarrels, and about 1430 the two Bishops of Iceland were both Englishmen. At one time Iceland was actually held by them, and they built a fort in the south of the island. A number of English words came into the Icelandic language, and are in it today."—J. Stefansson, *Iceland: Its history and inhabitants* (*Journal of transactions of Victoria Institute*, 1906).—"Several times did the English carry fire and sword into the island, but they were not always successful, for in 1434 they were overthrown and slaughtered in a battle of Skagafjorthur on the Arctic coast. More frequently, however, they were only too successful. . . . So serious did the English poaching become that the Danes, in order to maintain their effective suzerainty and trade monopoly, issued a strict embargo against the foreign traders. As a result of this the English merchants brought a petition before the Parliament of Henry VIII. demanding action against the Danes, otherwise the Kingdom would be undone. . . . Still more dangerous than the English poaching was the visitation of the Algerian pirates, whose prowess and exploits are strangely reminiscent of the founders of the Commonwealth of Iceland. In the year 1627 four ships left the coast of Barbary and captured 350 people in Iceland, while they destroyed much property. . . . When Frederick III. of Denmark ascended the throne he made up his mind to secure his hold upon Iceland still more firmly, and for that purpose deputed the Governor, Admiral Bjelke, to obtain the absolute allegiance of every Icelandic citizen. Under the menace of a Danish battleship the citizens took the required oath of allegiance. Having done so they were required to sign a document which the Dane produced, in which the signatories acknowledged the King of Denmark, his heirs and successors for ever, as absolute monarchs of Iceland, the Gamli Sattmali notwithstanding."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 12-13.—"The Hanseatic trade was succeeded by a Danish monopoly of trade

which completed the economic ruin of Iceland. . . . Small-pox carried off one-third of the population in 1707, a famine raged in 1759, and the volcanic eruptions of 1765 and 1783 laid waste large tracts of the island. Nature seemed in league with man to render Iceland uninhabitable."—J. Stefansson, *Iceland: Its history and inhabitants* (*Journal of transactions of Victoria Institute*, 1906).

17th-18th centuries.—Development of literature. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1600-1850.

18th century.—Skuli Magnusson, patriot.—National consciousness awakened.—Althing abolished.—Landsfyrdomur or the supreme court.—"The national movements in Europe reached the shores of Iceland, and a band of patriots began to struggle to win back the old freedom. Skuli Magnusson and Eggert Olafsson were the fore-runners in the eighteenth century."—J. Stefansson, *Denmark and Sweden with Iceland and Finland*, p. 169.—"The people were poor and hard pressed; the Althing was useless; and the Danes had a firm control of their trade monopoly which was exploited to the utmost. Magnusson, . . . taught the people to rely upon themselves, to look less and less to the Danes for support in trade. He knew the commercial potentialities of the land such as few others did, and, whenever opportunity occurred, he restored native industries and undermined the monopoly. . . . Woollen mills were erected to spin the Iceland wool, better methods of agriculture were taught to the farmers, and the fishing industry was greatly improved by the importation of up-to-date smacks, nets and tackle. The labours of this great Icelander were cut short by his death in 1794, but the Danes felt the weight of what he had done. . . . In 1798, the Althing, useless as it was as a national assembly, was finally destroyed . . . and the Copenhagen Government felt they had achieved a great victory. . . . On the overthrow of the last sign of Icelandic sovereignty the country was ruled by a body of three judges called the Landsfyrdomur, or Supreme Court."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 16-18.

1830-1854.—Governed by Denmark.—Althing restored.—Jon Sigurdsson, father of the constitution.—Grant of free trade.—The Icelandic repeal movement began in 1830. The island had never been governed as a mere Province of Denmark, but always under its own laws. Its old representative assembly, the Althing, was suspended during most of the first half of the last century, but revived in 1843 as a merely consultative assembly. As such it voiced very steadily the claim of the Icelanders to more of autonomy and political distinctness than their Danish lord was willing to yield. "By 1845 they had removed their place of meeting from the lava-field beside the Oxera at Thingvellir to the modern town of Reykjavik, and in that place there began the final struggle, for at last Iceland had produced a man of the calibre of Skuli Magnusson. . . . It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of Jon Sigurdsson in his relation to modern Iceland; he was its creator and the father of its Constitution and independence. . . . He was born in 1811, . . . in the West quarter of Iceland of an old propertied family. . . . [He was] appointed secretary to the Bishop of Iceland [1830], the scholarly Steingrímur Jonsson, under whose influence the young man's studies took a definite inclination in the direction of the history and institutions of his native land. . . . He threw himself heart and soul into the national revolt when the Althing was restored, and though he had made his home in Copenhagen,

he visited Iceland sufficiently often to guide the revolt and to take up the important position of Speaker of the Assembly. . . . The trade monopoly was abolished in 1787, but only in name. . . . [Through Sigurdsson, the Danes opened] Iceland trade to all nations. This grant of Free Trade in 1854 was the first great step towards the final recognition of Icelandic sovereignty."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 19-21.

1851-1900.—Local government granted.—Constitution of 1874.—Political helotage.—"In 1851 a Bill was laid before the Assembly, offering a . . . measure of local government for parish affairs, but as far as the national demand was concerned the only status offered to Iceland was that of a large amt. or county. Sigurdsson urged the Assembly to reject the whole Bill without discussion, and to demand the full measure of home rule. . . . The Danes thereupon dismissed the National Assembly and threatened military action. . . . On the forced dissolution of the National Assembly of Iceland Jon Sigurdsson and all the members met and protested. . . . Their great speaker . . . fought the Danes with every constitutional weapon in his power. . . . For twenty years the passive resistance, the stubborn thwarting of the Danish Government continued, the Danes taking no step until 1871 when the Riksdag in Copenhagen defined the position of Iceland as an integral part of the Danish Kingdom, only of greater importance than the amt. of the Faroe Islands. . . . [In 1874] fell the Millennial Anniversary of the founding of the Commonwealth of Iceland, and to celebrate that event Christian IX. of Denmark landed on the island to participate in the celebrations. . . . [At this time] the Danes . . . recognised the essentially distinct nationality of the Icelanders by granting the Constitution of 1874. . . . There was no provision made for representation at the Copenhagen Parliament. Briefly the Constitution may be summarised as follows:—(1) The Althing received legislative powers. . . . (2) The Althing consisted of two houses, constituted as follows: The citizens elected 30 members, of whom 6, chosen by the 30, together with 6 nominated members formed the upper house. (3) The King was represented at Reykjavik by the Landhofstingi or Governor, who enjoyed a position analagous to that of the Viceroy of Ireland. (4) The affairs of Iceland were to be managed by the Danish Minister of Justice. . . . (5) The Landhofstingi had to keep an office in Copenhagen, and to bring Althing Bills to the Danish Government for approval. . . . At the close of every Althing session [the governor had] to get approval for the Bills of his Parliament. That approval, though nominally granted by the King, was really granted or withheld by the Danish Minister of Justice. . . . The result was that from 1874 till 1900 more than fifty Iceland Bills were vetoed by that Minister."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 22-24.—See also DENMARK: 1849-1874.

Also IN: J. Bryce, *Studies in history and jurisprudence*, ch. 3.

1898-1899.—Explorations. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1898; 1899.

1900-1915.—Revised constitution.—Women admitted to citizenship and the franchise.—"A change occurred in 1900 during the regime of the Liberals, when the Danish Government granted fresh concessions. . . . According to the revised Constitution the following changes were made:—(1) (a) The Minister for Iceland was to occupy himself solely with the affairs of Iceland, to be present at sessions of the Althing, and to be responsible to it in the first instance. He was

to be removable by vote of the Althing. He must be familiar with the Icelandic language, which practically meant that he must be a native of Iceland. (b) He was to reside in Reykjavik, but had an office in Copenhagen, which he used when taking to the King measures passed by the Althing, and to get the King's consent to proposed measures. . . . (c) All important measures were to be laid before the King at a Cabinet Council, and at those Councils the purely Danish Ministers have no voice in the decisions unless those measures also affected Denmark. . . . (2) The Althing was increased and the popular power was strengthened. (a) Thirty-four members were to be elected by the people at large according to Proportional Representation. (b) Of these 34 eight were chosen by the 34 to sit with six nominated members to form the upper house. . . . (3) The existence of the Ministry depended entirely on the confidence of the lower house, and the Minister for Iceland was similarly placed. . . . A still further amendment of the Constitution took place in 1915, when women were admitted to citizenship and the Franchise.—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 25-26.

1908-1915.—Prohibition legislation.—In September, 1908, Iceland "voted on the question of prohibition. . . . The measure carried with a majority of 1,464 votes. Then they passed a law prohibiting the importation of intoxicants, such law to take effect on January 1, 1912, and prohibiting the sale after January 1, 1915. The following is quoted from their bill relative to ships doing business in her ports,—'All ships must have their liquors under seal from the time they are three miles from land, and the ships must not sell liquors to passengers inside this limit.'—E. U. Hoenshel, *Land of frost and fire*, p. 28.

1918.—Home rule granted.—Federative alliance with Denmark.—"Denmark has [1918] proclaimed the federative independence of Iceland. Hereafter these two northern states, with the respective populations of about 2,775,000 and 80,000, are by agreement to remain united as free and equal sovereign states until 1940, when at the will of the governments the federative constitution may be reframed or abrogated. The Icelanders, more separate from the Danes nationally and linguistically than the Norwegians from the Swedes, have of late been following the self-determinative tendency of the Northern peoples and have been giving the Danish government to understand that they, too, aspired to an autonomous condition. In fact, Iceland has, by virtue of her increasing trade with Britain . . . broken away economically and commercially from Denmark to the point of provoking Danish trade interests. But these have had to give way; and when the island people began clamoring for more general home rule and a flag of their own, if not absolute independence commissions were formed between the two countries which eventually drew up the confederate agreement that was ratified this summer [1918] by them both."—*Home rule for Iceland* (*American Review of Reviews*, Nov., 1918, p. 540).—"In accordance with this Federative Constitution, . . . Iceland declares itself a perpetually neutral country. This Federative Constitution goes into effect December 1, 1918."—*Nation*, Aug. 17, 1921, p. 171.—The new political status of Iceland can best be defined as that of an independent and sovereign state in intimate alliance with Denmark; and while Iceland has neither a naval nor military flag of her own, she possesses one for her merchant ships. In 1918 she acquired her own national arms. The following is the text

of the federative constitution or Act of Union:

"1. Denmark and Iceland are independent and sovereign states, united by a common King and by the agreement contained in this Union Act. The names of both countries are taken into the title of the King.

"2. The order of succession to the throne is that decreed by clauses 1 and 2 in the Succession to the Crown Act of 31st July, 1853. The succession cannot be altered except by the consent of both countries.

"3. Statutory provisions now in force in Denmark concerning the King's religion, and his coming of age, as well as those concerning the exercise of the Royal power while the King is ill, under age, or dwelling outside the boundaries of either kingdom shall also be valid in Iceland.

"4. The King must not be a regent of other countries without the consent of the Danish Rigsdag and the Icelandic Althing.

"5. Each country makes its own regulations concerning State grants to the King and the Royal family.

"6. Danish subjects enjoy in every respect the same rights in Iceland as Icelandic subjects born in that country, and vice versa. The subjects of each country are exempt from military service in the other. Both Danish and Icelandic subjects, wherever their domicile may be, have an equal right to fishing within the territorial waters of either country. Danish vessels have the same privileges in Iceland as Icelandic vessels, and vice versa. Danish and Icelandic products, material and intellectual, shall mutually in no respect be subjected to less favourable treatment than the material and intellectual products of any other country.

"7. Denmark has charge of Icelandic foreign affairs by permission of Iceland. In the (Danish) foreign office there shall be appointed in accordance with the wish of, and after consultation with, the Icelandic Government an advisor who is conversant with conditions in Iceland for the purpose of looking after its interests. Where there is no (Danish) diplomatic agent or *consul missus*, one shall be appointed by the wish of, and in concert with, the Icelandic Government, the expenses to be borne by Iceland. On the same conditions attaches expert in Icelandic matters shall be appointed to the already existing legations and consulates. Should the Icelandic Government choose to send abroad delegates to negotiate on specific Icelandic matters, this may be done after consultation with the Minister of Foreign Affairs. Treaties between Denmark and other countries already concluded and published are also valid in Iceland, in so far as they affect that country. International treaties which Denmark may make after the Royal sanction of this Union Act, are not binding for Iceland unless sanctioned by the proper Icelandic authorities.

"8. Denmark carries out the inspection of fisheries within the Icelandic territorial waters under the Danish flag until such time as Iceland may, wish, partly or wholly, to take the inspection into its own hands and at its own expense.

"9. The monetary system which hitherto has prevailed in both countries shall continue to do so while the Coinage Union of Scandinavia remains. Should Iceland wish to establish its own mint, it will be necessary to negotiate with Norway and Sweden whether money coined in Iceland is to be recognized as a legal tender in these countries.

"10. The Supreme Court of Denmark is invested with the highest judicial power for Iceland until

such time as Iceland may decide to establish a Supreme Court of Justice in the country itself. Until that time an Icelander shall be appointed to one of the seats in the Supreme Court (of Denmark), which provision shall be carried out next time a seat becomes vacant in the Court.

"11. In so far as Iceland's share in the expense resulting from the management of affairs dealt with in this section has not been specified in the above, it shall be fixed by an agreement between the respective Governments of both countries.

"12. Other matters than those mentioned above concerning both Denmark and Iceland, such as communications, commerce, the customs, maritime affairs, postal affairs, telegraphy and wireless telegraphy, administration of justice, weights and measures, and financial matters shall be settled by agreements concluded by the Governments of both countries.

"13. The sum of 60,000 kronur, which hitherto has been paid out of the Danish National Treasury to Iceland, and the expense which the Danish National Treasury has incurred by the maintenance of the Icelandic Government Office in Copenhagen, are to be discontinued. Financial prerogatives of Icelandic students at the University in Copenhagen are also to be cancelled.

"14. The Danish National Treasury pays down a sum of two million kronur for the establishment of two funds, each of one million kronur, with a view of furthering intellectual intercourse between Denmark and Iceland, promoting Icelandic researches and scientific activities, and for supporting Icelandic students. Of these funds one is allotted to the University in Reykjavik, the other to the University in Copenhagen. Further regulations respecting the management and use of these funds will be issued by the King according to proposition of the Government of each country after the respective universities have been consulted.

"15. Each country fixes its own rules as to the means of guarding the interests of itself and its subjects in the other country.

"16. A Danish-Icelandic Advisory Committee shall be formed, consisting of at least six members, of whom one-half shall be elected by the Danish Rigsdag, the other half by the Icelandic Althing. Every Bill concerning the further handling of matters spoken of in this Union Act, and such Bills concerning the private affairs of either country as also relate to the other country and the status and rights of its subjects, shall, by the Ministry concerned, be submitted to the Committee for consideration before it is introduced into the Rigsdag or Althing, unless there are exceptional obstacles in the way. It is incumbent upon the Committee to propose amendments to such clauses in the Bill as it considers derogatory to the interests of either country or its subjects. It is further the task of the Committee, either by the request of the Government or of its own accord, to prepare the drafting of Bills which aim at the co-operation of the two countries and a harmony in their legislation, as well as to take part in the co-operation for a uniform legislation for the Scandinavian countries. Further rules for the constitution and activities of the Committee will be made by the King in accordance with the propositions of the Governments of both countries.

"17. Should a dispute arise concerning the interpretation of the provisions of this Union Act which the Governments are unable to settle between themselves, the matter shall be referred to a court of arbitration consisting of four members, half of which number shall be elected by the

highest court of justice in each country respectively. This court of arbitration settles the dispute by the majority of votes. Should votes be equal the decision shall be given to an arbitrator, whom the Swedish and the Norwegian Governments are requested to nominate in turn.

"18. After the expiry of the year 1940 either the Rigsdag or the Althing may at any time demand that negotiations for the revision of this statute shall be inaugurated. If the negotiations do not lead to a renewed agreement within three years from the time the demand was launched, the Rigsdag and the Althing respectively may resolve that the agreement contained in this law be repealed. In order to make this resolution valid at least two-thirds of the members of each of the houses of the Rigsdag or the united Althing must have voted for it, and it subsequently must have been sanctioned by a plebiscite of the electors eligible to vote at elections to the legislative assembly of the country. If by this ballot it is proved that at least three-fourths of the votes cast have been in favour of a repeal of the Act, the Act is thereby annulled.

"19. Denmark notifies foreign powers that in conformity with the contents of this Union Act she has acknowledged Iceland as a Sovereign State, and simultaneously announces that Iceland declares herself perpetually neutral, and that she has no naval flag.

"20. This Union Act comes into force on the 1st of December, 1918."—A. McGill, *Independence of Iceland*, pp. 27-31.

1919.—Supreme Court established.—Althing membership.—"Iceland established its own supreme court October 6, 1919, and it has been acting since the beginning of last year. There are five justices—a chief justice and four associates. The other functions of government still performed by Denmark will in all probability gradually be taken over by the Icelandic authorities except where, for reasons of economy, it is found advisable to make use of the already well-established Danish governmental machinery. It would hardly pay Iceland for years to come to establish diplomatic and consular service. Internally the Government remains much the same as before the country became independent. . . . The Althing has at present forty members, twenty-six in the lower house and fourteen in the upper. Of these thirty-four are elected in the various constituencies by direct vote of men and women, Iceland having been one of the first countries to grant women suffrage, while six are elected by proportional representation from the whole country. These six are elected to the upper house. Both houses in joint session elect eight members from the lower house to the upper. Because Denmark had for years past been giving Iceland more and more rope in running its affairs, practical self-government in Iceland is actually more than two and a half years old. . . . It is doubtful whether anyone has become more prosperous through freedom, but everyone has become more contented, and the Government has shown itself fully capable of meeting all its domestic problems, most of which are of an industrial nature."—*Nation*, Aug. 17, 1921, p. 171.

1920-1922.—New constitution.—Ministry.—By the charter of May 18, 1920, Iceland has universal suffrage for all those over twenty-five years of age who have lived in the country for a specified length of time. The king shares the legislative powers with the Althing which consists of 42 members, 36 of whom are elected for four years from separate electoral districts and six (formerly

nominated by the king) for eight years by proportional representation from the whole country. The Althing is divided into an upper and lower house of 14 and 28 members respectively. In the upper house are the six members elected by proportional representation and eight elected by the whole Althing from its own body. All bills may be introduced in either house, except budget bills, which must first be laid before the lower house. The cabinet consists of three ministers, a prime minister and two secretaries of state. In 1922 the following ministry was appointed: Sigurdur Eggerz, president of the council; Klemens Jonsson, minister of trade and communications; Magnus Jonsson, minister of finance.

See also MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Scandinavia; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE.

ALSO IN: W. P. Ker, *Iceland and the humanities* (*Saga Book of the Viking Club*, 1907-1910, pp. 341-353).—W. S. C. Russel, *Iceland*.—E. Magnusson, *Last of the Icelandic commonwealth* (*Saga Book of the Viking Club*, 1907-1910, pp. 308-340).—K. Gjerset, *History of the Norwegian people*, p. 137.

ICELAND, Constitution of.—The constitution of Denmark is embodied in the Act of Union of Nov. 30, 1918, and the charter of May 18, 1920. See ICELAND: 1918; 1920-1922.

ICENI, tribe of ancient Britain. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes; A.D. 43-53; 61; LONDON: A.D. 1st-4th centuries.

ICILIAN LAW. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 456.

ICKNIELD STREET, or Ikenild-Strete. See ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN.

ICOLMKILL, Statutes of (1609). See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: Scotland.

ICONIUM, ancient name of Konieh, a Phrygian city of Asia Minor. It was the capital of the Seljuk Turks after their conquest, 1072-1074. See TURKEY: 1073-1092.

ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY. —“Of the controversies that disquieted this age [the eighth century], the greatest and the most pernicious related to the worship of sacred images. Originating in Greece, it thence spread over the East, and the West, producing great harm both to the state and to the church. The first sparks of it appeared under Phillipicus Bardanes, who was emperor of the Greeks near the beginning of this century. With the consent of the patriarch John, in the year 712, he removed from the portico of the church of St. Sophia a picture representing the sixth general council, which condemned the Monothelites, whom the emperor was disposed to favour; and he sent his mandate to Rome, requiring all such pictures to be removed out of the churches. But Constantine, the Roman pontiff, not only protested against the emperor's edict, but . . . having assembled a council at Rome, he caused the emperor himself to be condemned as an apostate from the true religion. These first commotions, however, terminated the next year, when the emperor was hurled from the throne. Under Leo the Isaurian, a very heroic emperor, another conflict ensued; which was far more terrific, severe, and lasting. Leo, unable to bear with the extravagant superstition of the Greeks in worshipping religious images, which rendered them a reproach both to the Jews and the Saracens, in order to extirpate the evil entirely, issued an edict in the year 726, commanding all images of saints, with the exception of that of Christ on the cross, to be removed out of the churches, and the worship of them to be wholly discontinued and abrogated. . . . A civil war broke out; first

in the islands of the Archipelago and a part of Asia, and afterwards in Italy. For the people, either spontaneously, or being so instructed by the priests and monks, to whom the images were productive of gain, considered the emperor as an apostate from true religion. . . . In Italy, the Roman pontiffs, Gregory II. and Gregory III., were the principal authors of the revolt. . . . The Romans and the other people of Italy who were subjects of the Greek empire, violated their allegiance, and either massacred or expelled the viceroys of Leo. Exasperated by these causes, the emperor contemplated making war upon Italy, and especially upon the pontiff; but circumstances prevented him. Hence in the year 730, fired with resentment and indignation, he vented his fury against images and their worshippers, much more violently than before. For having assembled a council of bishops, he deposed Germanus, bishop of Constantinople, who favoured images, and substituted Anastasius in his place; commanded that images should be committed to the flames, and inflicted various punishments upon the advocates of them. The consequence of this severity was; that the Christian church was unhappily rent into two parties; that of the Iconoduli or Iconolatrae, who adored and worshipped images, and that of the Iconomachi or Iconoclastae, who would not preserve but destroyed them; and these parties furiously contended with mutual invectives, abuses, and assassinations. The course commenced by Gregory II. was warmly prosecuted by Gregory III., and although we cannot determine at this distance of time the precise degree of fault in either of these prelates, this much is unquestionable, that the loss of their Italian possessions in this contest by the Greeks, is to be ascribed especially to the zeal of these two pontiffs in behalf of images. Leo's son Constantine, surnamed Copronymus by the furious tribe of Image-worshippers, after he came to the throne, 741, trod in his father's steps; for he laboured with equal vigour to extirpate the worship of images, in opposition to the machinations of the Roman pontiff and the monks. Yet he pursued the business with more moderation than his father had done; and being aware that the Greeks were governed entirely by the authority of councils in religious matters, he collected a council of eastern bishops at Constantinople in the year 754, to examine and decide this controversy. By the Greeks this is called the seventh general council. The bishops pronounced sentence, as was customary, according to the views of the emperor; and therefore condemned images. . . . Leo IV., who succeeded to the throne on the death of Constantine, 775, entertained the same views as his father and grandfather. For when he saw, that the abettors of images were not to be moved at all by mild and gentle measures, he coerced them with penal statutes. But Leo IV. being removed by poison, through the wickedness of his perfidious wife Irene, in the year 780, images became triumphant. For that guilty woman, who governed the empire during the minority of her son Constantine, with a view to establish her authority, after entering into a league with Hadrian the Roman pontiff, assembled a council at Nice in Bithynia in the year 786, which is known by the title of the second Nicene council. Here the laws of the emperors, together with the decrees of the council of Constantinople, were abrogated; the worship of images and of the cross was established. . . . In these contests most of the Latins, —as the Britons, the Germans, and the French, took middle ground between the contending parties; for they decided, that images were to be



retained indeed, and to be placed in the churches, but that no religious worship could be offered to them without dishonouring the Supreme Being. In particular Charlemagne, at the suggestion of the French bishops who were displeased with the Nicene decrees, caused four Books concerning images to be drawn up by some learned man, and sent them in the year 790 to the Roman pontiff Hadrian, with a view to prevent his approving the decrees of Nice. In this work, the arguments of the Nicene bishops in defence of image-worship, are acutely and vigorously combated. But Hadrian was not to be taught by such a master, however illustrious, and therefore issued his formal confutation of the book. Charlemagne next assembled, in the year 794, a council of 300 bishops, at Frankfort on the Main, in order to re-examine this controversy. This council approved the sentiments contained in the Books of Charlemagne, and forbid the worship of images."—J. L. von Mosheim, *Institutes of ecclesiastical history*, v. 2, bk. 3, pt. 2, ch. 3.—See also PAPACY: 728-774.

ALSO IN: P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 4, ch. 10, sect. 101.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 49.—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire*, bk. 1.—H. F. Tozer, *Church and the Eastern empire*, ch. 6.

**ICONOCLASTS OF THE NETHERLANDS.** See NETHERLANDS: 1566.

**ICTINUS** (fl. 450-430 B.C.), Greek architect. See ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS; PARTHENON: B.C. 445-431.

**ICTIS**, island off the coast of Britain, to which tin is said to have been brought from the main shore by natives to be sold to Greek merchants. Whether it was the isle of Thanet, at the mouth of the Thames, or the isle of Wight, or St. Michael's mount, is a disputed question.

**IDA**, famous mountain range in Asia Minor, and an ancient seat of worship. It was also the name of a famous mountain in Crete now called Psiloriti. See TROY; CRETE: Effect of position, etc.

**IDAHO: Geographical description.—Meaning of name.**—"The area of the state of Idaho is 84,313 square miles, lying between the 42d and 49th parallels of latitude and the 111th and 116th meridians of longitude. It is one of the largest States in the Union. . . . Idaho is over 480 miles in length from north to south. Its width, however, varies from 48 miles across the 'Panhandle' to 310 miles from Wyoming to Oregon, across the southern part of the State. . . . The surface of Idaho is extremely broken and mountainous. Its altitude ranges from about 700 feet above sea-level, at Lewiston, to over 12,000 feet at the summit of Mt. Hyndman. With the exception of the great sage-brush plains across southern Idaho and a few prairie stretches here and there, the State is covered with ranges of mountains and deep valleys. The Bitter Root range of the Rocky Mountains forms the northeast boundary. . . . A number of lofty peaks and buttes serve as prominent and picturesque landmarks. No other physical feature has so affected the history of the State as its mountains."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, pp. 10-11.—The estimated population, 1920, was 431,866.—"The name Idaho comes from a Shoshoni exclamation 'E-da-how,' with the accent on the second syllable. It means 'Behold! the sun coming down the mountain.' It was used first in Colorado among the same tribe of Indians and was there applied by the first white men as a geographical term—Idaho Springs. There and later in the farther Northwest the sentimental

meaning 'Gem of the Mountains' was given as the meaning."—*Idaho: Its meaning and application* (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, v. 9, p. 71).

**Resources.**—Agriculture is the principal source of wealth in the state. In 1920, the number of farms was 42,106, with a total area of 8,375,873 acres, of which 4,511,680 acres were improved land; and the cereals, vegetables, and orchard fruits as the principal crops. There are three kinds of farming employed in the state: humid, irrigation, and dry. Except for the soils of North Idaho, the Nez Percés and Camas prairies, and the broad valleys of the Panhandle, the surface of the state is arid. In 1920 over 2,000,000 acres were under irrigation; and drainage projects costing \$1,706,462, providing drainage for 55,732 acres were under construction. The state also has an active live stock industry which, in 1920, had a total of 3,556,400 head. The state contains 18,682,031 acres of national forests; and has 260 lumber mills, one of which (Potlatch) is said to be the largest in the world. The mineral resources are second only to the agriculture. Lead constitutes about sixty per cent of the states total mineral production. The other mineral resources are, gold, zinc, copper, iron, coal, nickel, cobalt, mica, salt, and building stones. In 1920, the value of the mineral production was \$33,557,708.—See also U. S. A.: Economic map.

**Aboriginal inhabitants.** See NEZ PERCÉS; SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

**1803.—Question as to inclusion in Louisiana Purchase.—Grounds of American possession.** See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

**1804-1811.—As part of the territory of Oregon.—Lewis and Clark.—Establishment of fur companies.**—"What is now the State of Idaho, at one time was a part of what was called the Northwestern Territory. . . . The territory included . . . first, the Northwestern, and later, Oregon Territory, and was all included in the Organic Act of Congress creating and organizing a territorial government called Oregon. It must also be borne in mind that the Territory of Oregon, as first organized, included at that time all of what is now the States of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and a considerable portion of what are now the States of Montana and Wyoming."—J. Hailey, *History of Idaho*, preface, p. 1.—"In 1800 Spain ceded to France the Province of Louisiana, stretching between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, and in December, 1803, the famous Louisiana Purchase was completed by President Jefferson. [See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.] A few months previous to this, however, the President had secured a secret appropriation from Congress for the Lewis and Clark expedition to the Pacific. During 1804 and 1805 the Party under Lewis and Clark explored the Clark Fork, Clearwater, Snake, and Salmon River sources in the Rocky Mountains [Idaho], and the Columbia itself for 300 miles to where its broad waters sweep into the Pacific. This gave the United States our second strong claim to the Oregon territory."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, p. 27.—"When the account of the Lewis & Clark expedition became known, great interest was aroused, especially among what was then the western frontier towns, one of the results being the formation of the Missouri Fur Company, which established a fort at what was called Fort Henry, in 1810, but which was soon abandoned. In 1811, William P. Hunt, and a party of sixty belonging to the Pacific Fur Company [of which John Jacob Astor was the head] arrived at Fort Henry. Moving westward on the 19th of October of that year, they proceeded down

the Snake river in fifteen canoes, but encountered so many dangers owing to the rapids, that at last it was decided to abandon the boats and to divide the party into two sections. Hunt, with his guides and eighteen men, to take the right bank, and the remainder under the leadership of a man named Crooks, to take the left. Thus they proceeded down the river in the hope of reaching the Columbia. . . . No record exists of the final end of those poor fellows [under Crooks] who were left to perish alone."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 30-31, 33.—See also OREGON: 1808-1826.

1834-1860.—Early expeditions and settlements.

—Treaty with the Nez Percés Indians.—First discovery of gold.—"The next expedition to enter the future Idaho was that of Captain Bonneville, who with one hundred men in 1834, camped on Port Neuf river near where is now the city of Pocatello. In the same year Fort Hall was established by Nathaniel Worth, accompanied by a well equipped party of sixty men. The location was selected on the 14th day of June, 1834, on the east bank of Snake river, north of Port Neuf. . . . Among the important early settlements in Idaho was that made in 1836 by Rev. Henry Spaulding and family on Lapwai, a tributary of the Clearwater river. . . . They arrived at the foregoing place on November 29, 1836. . . . After a residence at that place of about one year, Spaulding concluded that a better location for his mission would be at the mouth of Lapwai Creek, near the bank of the Clearwater river, (called by the Indians Koos-koos-ki). . . . Among the things brought across the Rocky Mountain Divide by Rev. Spaulding and Dr. Whitman, who accompanied Spaulding, were a few seeds; a few kernels each of corn, wheat and oats; also a few apple and locust seeds. Preparing a small garden patch of fertile ground, he began patiently to plant and cultivate each species in order that he might in time be able to supply the Indians with seeds, hoping to induce them to become tillers of the soil. His efforts in this direction were crowned with a moderate degree of success. . . . Thus first began the civilization of the Nez Percé Indians; and the work accomplished in this direction by Rev. Spaulding, and his devoted Christian wife, was largely responsible for the friendly spirit with which those Indians received the whites when the discovery of placer gold caused such an increase in the population of their country."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 33, 36-37.—"These Nez Percé Indians roamed over and claimed the greater part of what is now called North Idaho and a portion of what is now the north-eastern part of Oregon, commonly called the Wallowa Valley."—J. Hailey, *History of Idaho*, p. 28.—"The next established settlement within what are now the boundaries of Idaho was made by the Jesuit Fathers in 1853, on Cœur d'Alene river, at, or near, what is now the head of navigation on that stream. . . . Prominent among the early pioneers who penetrated the vast . . . were the missionaries sent by the Church of Latter Day Saints, commonly called 'Mormons.' They came [June 15, 1855] to what is now Idaho for the purpose of locating and establishing a settlement among the Bannock and the Shoshone Indians near Salmon river. . . . In the fall of 1857 a large addition was made to the membership of the Lemhi colony. . . . Arrangements were at once made for the building of a new fort, or stockade, four or five miles below Fort Lemhi, thereby increasing the acreage and the strength of the colony, and also giving room for new arrivals."—W. J. Mc-

Connell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 40, 42-43, 51.—"Until the year 1855, there had been no serious trouble between the Indians and the whites, except the Whitman massacre. There had been some individual trouble at various times but all had been settled without any great difficulty. In 1855 they began to grow restive. Governor Stevens of Washington Territory, who was also ex-officio Superintendent of Indian Affairs, went immediately to the Nez Perce country and with the assistance of William Craig and a few other practical men, called the Indians together and made a treaty with them on the 1st of June, 1855. This treaty set apart what is known as the Nez Perce Reservation for the Indians and in consideration of the Indians ceding to the United States the remainder of the land they claimed, the United States was to make them certain annual payments in the way of annuities, establish an agency and Indian schools, to continue for a number of years. At this time the agreement appeared to be satisfactory, but there was one branch of this tribe who made their home in the Wallowa Valley, headed by a brave and wonderfully sagacious chief named Joseph. This chief claimed that he did not sign the treaty, that his home was in the Wallowa Valley in Oregon, and he would not consent to leave that place and remove to the reservation selected for him and his people. The other Nez Perce tribes kept the treaty in good faith."—J. Hailey, *History of Idaho*, p. 28.—"The first record we have of the discovery of gold in this district [Lemhi] was that made by a French Canadian on the Pend d'Oreille river in 1852, which did not prove of sufficient importance to attract much attention. Two years later gold was discovered by General Lauder, while he was exploring a route for a military road from the Columbia river to Fort Bridger. From 1852 onward placer mining was conducted in a desultory manner on various streams in what is now Shoshone county, Idaho. But it was not until the discovery of gold in 1860 by a party under the leadership of Captain E. D. Pierce, that a great mining boom began to assume proportions large enough to attract attention."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, p. 55.

Also in: K. C. McBeth, *Nez Perce since Lewis and Clark*.—H. H. Bancroft, *History of Washington, Idaho and Montana*.

1848.—Embraced in Oregon Territory. See OREGON: 1846-1855.

1858-1867.—Cœur d'Alene Indians attack Colonel Steptoe.—Inauguration of the mining era.—"It had been the boast of the Cœur d'Alenes and the Spokanes that they had never shed the blood of a white man. In the early spring of 1858, however, because of white men passing through the country, there was some restlessness among the northern tribes. Colonel E. J. Steptoe, who was in command at Fort Walla Walla, Washington, set out with a command of 150 men to examine into the affairs in the neighborhood of the Hudson's Bay Company's post at Fort Colville and to investigate the murder of two miners by a party of Palouse Indians. This was a feeble band of Indians and Steptoe considered his command large enough to overawe them. However, after crossing the Snake River, he found himself facing a force of fully 1,200 savages, hideous in their war-paint. They were from the Cœur d'Alene, Palouse, Spokane, and Yakima tribes. He saw that it would be impossible to go on in the face of this hostile force and started to withdraw, but the Indians opened fire on the rear-guard, and the fight began and continued through the day. A series of charges and counter-charges was kept

up with loss to both sides. Darkness found Steptoe's men exhausted, with their ammunition almost gone and the number of wounded increasing. A consultation of the officers was held and they decided to retreat during the night, if possible, as another day's fighting would undoubtedly result in the destruction of the entire force. Accordingly they left their supplies and two howitzers and stole away during the night. . . . Active preparations were begun to put a large force in the field to punish the Indians. Colonel George Wright was sent to take charge of the expedition. He left Fort Walla Walla in August, 1858, crossed the Snake River, and after a march of nearly 100 miles over a forbidding country, during which they were twice attacked, came upon a large body of Indians who were awaiting his attack. . . . During this march, in order to prevent further depredations on the part of the Spokanes, he rounded up all of their horses, drove them out on the plains about 20 miles east from where Spokane now stands and slaughtered the entire herd to the number of 800. Until very recently a large mound of whitened bones marked this spot. The Spokanes were helpless without their horses and were compelled to surrender. . . . Colonel Wright assembled some 400 of the Cœur d'Alenes at their mission on the Cœur d'Alene River and imposed his own terms, which were that they should give up the men who began the attack on Steptoe, restore all property taken from the whites, permit white men to go through their country unharmed, and give a chief and four men, with their families, as hostages. The Indians stood in such great fear of Wright that they accepted the terms without a murmur."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, pp. 129-131.—In the summer of 1860 Captain E. D. Pierce, a miner who had prospected in California and British Columbia, made his epoch-making discovery of gold on Canal Gulch of Oro Fino Creek, a tributary of the Clearwater. Although the first pan of dirt mined by a member of his little prospecting-party yielded only about three cents worth of gold, yet this discovery inaugurated the mining era which was destined to bring Idaho Territory into political existence less than three years later. . . . In March [1861], one of the prospectors returned to civilization with \$800 worth of gold-dust to sell. . . . From the California mines, . . . came a rush of miners overland to the Clearwater country. In April, 1861, 300 miners were in the new diggings and a month later the number had increased to a thousand. As the spring advanced, the excitement increased and all available steamers from Victoria and San Francisco were chartered for the purpose of hurrying the gold-crusaders toward the new Eldorado. . . . Parties of prospectors scoured the country to the southward and in the summer of 1861 located rich diggings in the gulches and creeks of the Elk City district, situated on the South Fork of the Clearwater. North of the Salmon and southwest of Elk City lay the astonishingly rich placer-camp of Florence which was discovered in the autumn of 1861. In August, 1862, a few miles south of the Salmon, James Warren discovered the more permanent but superficially less productive Warren's Diggings. The Florence placers were doubtless the most picturesque as well as superficially the richest of all the famous Idaho camps. . . . In the richness of its surface gravels it rivalled the most famous California placers in their palmiest days. The yield from a pan of dirt was often measured in terms of dollars instead of cents. One pan of gravel from Baboon Gulch yielded \$500. . . . In the spring of 1862 gold-dust

was weighed by the pound. . . . The Salmon River discoveries proved that the gold-fields of the future Idaho were extensive as well as rich. Consequently, the throng of prospectors which had later entered Idaho mainly from California and the Pacific Northwest, now began to pour into the Salmon River country from both east and west. Upon this far-famed mining-district there now converged streams of prospectors from Missouri, Minnesota, 'Pike's Peak,' as well as from California and the modern Inland Empire. In the summer of 1862 some eastern prospecting parties bound for the Salmon River mines, were diverted from their course and made important gold discoveries in the present western Montana. It was the golden gravel-bars of these Salmon mines that not only laid secure foundations for Idaho, but stimulated the peopling of Montana as well. . . . In the late summer of 1862 a little band of prospectors under the leadership of George Grimes and Moses Splawn discovered gold in the Boise Basin. . . . The Boise Basin rivalled in richness the most famous California placers. . . . In May, 1863, in what is now Owyhee County, a party of miners led by Michael Jordan prospected the little stream later known as Jordan Creek, and found gold in paying quantities. . . . The Owyhee mineral district soon showed indisputable evidences of permanency and began to attract heavy investments of outside capital. Only a few years after the original discovery the output of this famous district ran far into the millions and its rich and picturesquely named mines could be numbered by the score. . . . In 1866 a party of Montana prospectors discovered rich placer-diggings in what shortly afterward became Lemhi County. Five thousand miners soon rushed to this district. In 1868, about 12 miles from Salmon City, a Gold-bearing quartz-ledge was found. Soon other valuable placer and quartz claims were located. While the mineral district embraced within the present Lemhi County was rich, there were no bonanzas uncovered, such as characterized the discoveries at Florence, the Boise Basin, or Owyhee. In 1867 Salmon City was laid out by the future United States Senator Shoup and some associates. It became the county seat of Lemhi County and an important supply-centre for the adjacent mining-camps."—*Ibid.*, pp. 80-92, 94-97. See also U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

1863-1864.—Emigration from other states.—Organic Act creating Idaho Territory.—Appointment of officials.—First election.—Adoption of civil and criminal codes.—During the summer of 1863 large wagon trains of emigrants from Missouri and Arkansas arrived in Idaho. They consisted of entire families of men, women and children, and would have been a desirable acquisition to the population of any country. . . . As a rule they brought with them good teams and wagons and such household goods as were portable. Their advent marked the arrival of the first feather-beds into the territory."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 180-190.—"The rapid development of the part of Washington Territory now known as Idaho and Montana, due to the incoming of the gold maddened hordes who scattered to the various camps distributed over a vast area of country, made the enforcement of law so far away from Olympia, the then capital and seat of government, almost impossible. Hence it was deemed advisable to create a new territory out of eastern Washington, which was to include all the new mining districts."—*Ibid.*, p. 83.—"On March 3, 1863, Congress passed the Organic act creating and organizing the Territory of Idaho, taking in all that portion of Washington west of the Rocky

Mountains save and except that portion which now constitutes the present State of Washington, and also taking in a large tract east of the Rocky Mountain range. The eastern boundary is described as follows; Beginning at a point on the 40th parallel of latitude at the 27th degree of longitude west of Washington, thence south along said degree of longitude to the northern boundary of Colorado Territory. This eastern boundary of Idaho appears to have extended over on the east side of the Rocky Mountain range and taken in quite a large strip of what was then known as the Louisiana purchase."—J. Hailey, *History of Idaho*, p. 26.—See also DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1862-1865.—"In accordance with the provisions of the act creating Idaho Territory, on the 10th day of March, 1863, or one week after its approval, the President appointed the following officers: Governor, W. H. Wallace; Secretary, W. B. Daniels; Chief Justice, Sidney Edgerton; Associate Justice, Alex. C. Smith; Associate Justice, Samuel C. Parker. On the thirteenth of the same month he appointed D. S. Payne United States marshal. The position of United States attorney remained vacant until February 29, 1864, on which date C. C. Hough was appointed to that office. The first territorial offices were established in Lewiston, no territorial capital having been named in the organic act. . . . On September 22nd, 1863, Governor Wallace issued a proclamation calling for an election to be held throughout the Territory on the 31st day of October of that year (1863), naming the officers to be elected, including a delegate to congress and members of the first Territorial legislature, which afterwards convened by executive order in Lewiston, on December 7th, 1863. . . . The first election in Idaho resulted in a victory for the Republicans. They elected a delegate to congress and a majority of both houses of the legislative assembly. Governor Wallace was a candidate of the Republicans for delegate to congress and was elected, thus causing a vacancy in the Governor's office. . . . In the interim W. B. Daniels, Secretary of the Territory, became the acting governor, following the resignation of W. H. Wallace. . . . The first territorial legislature was convened in Lewiston, Idaho, on December 7th, 1863. . . . The organic act which created the Territory of Idaho failed to provide that the laws of the Territories, from which the new Territory was created, should continue in force, until such time as the legislative assembly of Idaho could enact Civil and Criminal Codes. Hence there was a period during the first year of Idaho's territorial existence, extending from April 3rd, 1863, until the first legislative session had met and enacted laws, when we had neither Civil nor Criminal Acts, and were entirely dependent upon the general laws of the United States, which were inadequate to meet all conditions. Consequently the first legislative assembly was confronted with conditions requiring prompt and speedy measures. The first district court to be held in the Territory was to be convened on January 5th, 1864, less than one month from the first day of the legislative session. . . . The members of the first legislature . . . [passed] an act adopting the Common Law of England."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 111-114, 152.

1864-1868.—Caleb Lyon appointed governor.—**Legislation.**—"Caleb Lyon, of Lyonsdale, New York, was appointed Governor of Idaho Territory, February 26, 1864, to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Governor Wallace. . . . The Second Session of the Idaho Territorial Legislature convened in Lewiston November 14, 1864, for a

forty-day session, as limited by the Act of Congress which created the territory. The House of Representatives was composed of thirteen members, five of whom were elected from Boise county, two from Idaho, two from Nez Perce, two from Owyhee and one from Shoshone county. The Council consisted of seven members, one from Alturas county, two from Boise county, one from Idaho county, one from Nez Perce, one from Owyhee and one from Shoshone county. The work of the second session of the Idaho legislature was devoted, largely, to amending and repealing the acts of the first session, but, in addition, several measures were enacted into laws. The act creating Ada county was passed by this session, and approved December 22, 1864. Another important act was passed providing for taxing foreign miners. It will be remembered that, up to the time of this enactment, no surveys of the public domain had been made by the United States government, and consequently no patents had been issued. Therefore there was no real property to be taxed. Hence the revenue necessary to carry on the government was provided very largely by collecting licenses from all sources possible, and the additional revenue derived from taxing alien miners four dollars a month, was an important item. Section X. of the act provided that it 'should be construed to apply only to such persons as are inhibited from becoming citizens of the United States, by the laws thereof.' The fact was that the law was designed to affect Mongolians alone, and prevent or check their influx to the placer mines. . . . The Third Session of the Legislative Assembly of the Territory of Idaho convened in Boise City December 4, 1865, and adjourned January 12, 1866. . . . The Fourth Session of the Idaho Territorial Legislature convened December 3rd, 1866. . . . [In 1866 David Ballard was appointed governor for the term ending in 1870.] During the years 1867-1868, a noticeable change had occurred in the types of new arrivals in the Territory, many of whom consisted of families who brought with them their household goods, and were prepared to make permanent homes. Especially was this apparent in the Payette and Boise valleys and their tributaries. The original locators having, in many instances returned to their former homes, their locations were occupied by the new arrivals, who, in most cases, intended to found lasting homes. The Union Pacific and the Central Pacific railroads were nearing completion, and this fact, no doubt, had an influence in diverting immigration to South Idaho. The vote cast for Delegate to Congress in 1868 revealed that the voting population had decreased during the previous two years. This was due to the fact that, while many permanent settlers had arrived during this time, a large number of placer miners had departed for their former homes, while others had abandoned the territory in search of new fields. The fifth session of the Territorial Legislature which convened in Boise City on Dec. 7th, 1868, was composed with one exception of new members; they were a conservative body, and while they enacted but few laws, they adjourned at the end of the session without having done any harm. The same tribute may be paid to the members of the Sixth Session which assembled on the 8th day of December, 1870. The Seventh Session began its labors on the second day of December, 1872, and adjourned on the 10th day of January, 1873. Its membership being composed of men who intended to remain permanently in Idaho, they were careful in the enactment of laws to avoid any unnecessary increase in taxes."—W. J. McConnell, *Early his-*

tory of Idaho, pp. 288, 301-302, 325, 344, 349-351.

ALSO IN: C. E. Rose, *Civil government of Idaho, 1864-1873.—Demarcation of boundary lines.*—"The following year [1864] the new Territory of Idaho lost a portion of its original area to form the new Territory of Montana. [See Montana: 1864-1876.] The boundaries of Idaho as organized were partly natural; that is, formed by rivers or mountain chains, and partly artificial, or parallels of latitude or meridians of longitude. The latter never having been indicated by markings on the earth's surface, controversies frequently arose as to the jurisdiction of the courts in the various territories contiguous to Idaho. For the purposes of taxation and the settlement of disputed matters before the courts, it became important that a demarcation of Idaho's artificial boundaries should be made. Accordingly, in 1873, Congress made an appropriation of \$10,800 to establish the western boundary of Idaho, or that portion lying east of the Territory of Washington not already established by nature. The Secretary of the Interior was directed to definitely mark on the earth's surface by conspicuous monuments, accurately established, this portion of Idaho's boundary. To execute this work, the then Secretary of the Interior, Columbus Delano, appointed . . . [R. J. Reeves], then a resident of Olympia, Washington Territory. . . . [He] was instructed to begin at the intersection of the Snake and Clearwater Rivers, as said intersection existed at the time of the organic act in 1863, and to mark a line on the earth's surface from that initial point running due north to the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, this being the boundary between British possessions and the United States. [The demarcation was established in 1873.]"—R. J. Reeves, *Marking the Washington-Idaho boundary (Washington Historical Quarterly, July, 1908)*.

1866-1890.—Territorial governors.—The territorial governors and their terms of office for the period covering 1866 to 1890 are as follows: David D. Ballard, 1866-1870; Thomas W. Bennett, 1871-1875; D. P. Thompson, 1875-1876; Mason Brayman, 1876-1880; John B. Neil, 1880-1883; John N. Irwin, 1883; William M. Bunn, 1884-1885; Edward A. Stevenson, 1885-1889; George L. Shoup, 1889-1890.

1869-1878.—Indian war.—Battle of Clearwater.—Uprising of the Bannocks.—Treaty with the Bannocks, 1869.—"In 1877 the Indian Bureau at Washington decided to force the Wallowa band of Nez Perces to go on the Lapwai Reservation in Idaho. This order was sent to Agent Monteith at Lapwai and to General Howard at Portland. They called a general solemn council of the non-treaty bands at Lapwai in May, 1877. . . . This council, . . . lasted three days. . . . On the third day Too-hul-hul-suit, the holy chief, or 'tu-at,' defiantly declared that he would not go on the reservation. For this he was arrested and placed in the guard-house by General Howard. The Indians, already in a disgruntled state of mind, were highly incensed over the arrest of their religious leader. Joseph and Whitebird were successful, for the time, in restraining the Indians from any violent outbreak, and agreed to go on the reservation within thirty days. On June 14, 1877, the final day set for the period in which the Wallows must go on the Lapwai Reservation, some Indians from the non-treaty bands began a horrible series of murders and outrages on men, women, and children in the lower Salmon River country. In response to urgent appeals for protection, General Howard

sent Captain Perry with two cavalry companies to the scene of the disorders. On the morning of June 17, Captain Perry's force and a small volunteer company from Mt. Idaho entered Whitebird Canyon at whose head the Indians were encamped. Four miles from the entrance of the canyon, Perry's troops . . . were attacked by nearly the entire hostile force of over 300 Indian warriors. The hostiles assaulted Perry's men simultaneously from the front and from both sides of the canyon and succeeded in splitting the troops into two detachments—one under Theller and Parnell, and one under Perry. Parnell's little company was forced into a side ravine and nearly wiped out. Lieutenant Theller and 18 brave comrades were caught in the trap and killed. Perry retreated by the main canyon. After running the gauntlet of a withering fire from the infuriated savages, the two broken detachments finally succeeded in effecting a junction on the mesa near the entrance to the canyon. . . . On June 22 General Howard took charge of the campaign in person, and in early July had managed to assemble a force of between 500 and 600 troops. After a search . . . he finally located Joseph's braves in a wild forest southeast of Kamiah. The two days' battle which was fought here (July 11-12) was signalized by the fiercest kind of fighting. . . . Joseph's entire band was massed against the united army of General Howard. . . . The first day's battle was indecisive. . . . On the second day, Howard decided to capture the Indian position by a charge. . . . The Indians were overwhelmed by this assault . . . and fled across the Clearwater. . . . On July 17, Joseph began his sensational retreat over the Lo Lo Trail. . . . On July 28, only eleven days after they had begun their flight from Idaho, the Nez Perces were nearing, without mishap, the Montana end of the Lo Lo Trail. After the battle of the Clearwater, General Howard halted for a few days in the Kamiab country in order to provide security to the settlers in his rear. On July 27 he began his memorable 1,300 mile pursuit after his elusive antagonist. Realizing that Joseph had by this time a start of fully 150 miles, General Howard telegraphed General W. T. Sherman, . . . to send an intercepting force to capture Joseph. . . . Surprised by Gibbon's brave but smaller army at Big Hole River, he [Joseph] shook himself loose from his pursuers and passed through the Lemhi Valley, Camas Meadows, and Lake Henry regions in southeastern Idaho. By a night attack at Camas Meadows Joseph succeeded in stampeding and capturing General Howard's mule herd. The Nez Perces then proceeded eastward into Wyoming through the Yellowstone Park. . . . By making a feint southward through Wyoming, Joseph succeeded in decoying Colonel Sturgis from his blockade of the 'bottle-neck' pass at Heart Mountain and struck northward through Montana for Canada and freedom. On September 13, at Canyon Creek, Sturgis failed again to stop Joseph, who now seemed to have a clear field northward. On September 17, Colonel Nelson A. Miles, who was stationed near the mouth of Tongue River in eastern Montana, received an order from General Howard to intercept the Indians. On the following day he began the march which resulted in the capture of Chief Joseph at Bear Paw Mountain on October 4, 1877."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, pp. 135-138, 140.—"It is an injustice to charge the Indian war of 1877 to the Nez Perce Indians as a Tribe. The contest was precipitated by Chief Joseph and his band; and while it is true they were Nez Perce Indians, yet their tribal organization was separate and dis-

tinct; Joseph being their chief. The Nez Perces proper were always friendly to the whites, and so remained during the Chief Joseph imbroglio. The Indian outbreak of 1877, was succeeded the following year, 1878, by an uprising of the Bannock Indians, who being eventually joined by renegade remnants of other tribes, after leaving Camas Prairie the scene of their first murderous attack, spread over the country westward and to the south glutting their savage instincts with murder and rapine; crossing Snake River they swept through Owyhee county into Oregon, extending their depredations as far west as John Day Valley. Although pursued almost from their start by both volunteer and regular soldiers, the movements of the Indians were so rapid and erratic, that it was difficult to force them into a general engagement, although several desperate skirmishes were fought, in which many of the Indians, as well as several soldiers were killed, finally to avoid capture or annihilation they scattered into small bands and taking to the hills and mountains made their way back as best they could to the protection of their reservation. The Bannock war with all its attendant horrors, cost of suppression, destruction of property, and loss of life, was precipitated by an error made by a clerk or stenographer in transcribing the treaty, which was written and ratified by the U. S. Senate Feb. 16, 1869, and provided that, 'It is agreed that whenever the Bannocks desire a reservation to be set apart for their use, or whenever the President of the United States shall deem it advisable for them to be put upon a reservation, he shall cause one to be selected for them in their present country, which shall embrace reasonable portions of the Port-Neuf and Kansas Prairie countries.' There being no such prairie as 'Kansas Prairie' and Camas Prairie being one of the most valuable possessions of the Bannock Indians, it is reasonable to suppose that it was agreed in the treaty that the Indians should be allowed to retain a part of their Camas ground, but the clerk who transcribed the Treaty had probably never heard of the blue flowered lily of the north-western states called 'Camas,' and being familiar with the name 'Kansas' wrote in 'Kansas Prairie,' when it was the intent of the treaty makers that the Bannocks should be allowed to retain a reasonable portion of Camas prairie. Those whose duty it was to see that the treaty was carried out, should have performed that duty, and prevented the settlers from encroaching upon the ground where the Indians were accustomed to harvest their annual crop of camas, but no protection was given to the treaty rights of the Bannocks, and when they discovered their harvest being destroyed by the white man's hogs, forbearance ceased to be a virtue, and they appealed to the only arbiter they knew, the God of Battle. . . . During the year 1879, central Idaho, including the Salmon river country, was afflicted with what proved to be but a miniature Indian war, but insignificant as were its proportions it cost the lives of many persons, and required the employment of several companies of regular soldiers accompanied and aided by volunteer scouts, to suppress and capture the 'hostiles,' which was finally accomplished. The Indians who were engaged in this outbreak were what were known as 'Sheep Eaters,' a small aggregation composed of Shoshones, Bannocks and renegades from other tribes. . . . The task of overtaking and capturing them was an arduous one. The regular troops detailed to make the capture were reinforced by a body of Umatilla Indian scouts, and a company of citizen scouts under the command of Colonel

Orlando Robbins, than whom no better trailer or fighter could have been chosen."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 362-366.

ALSO IN: K. C. McBeth, *Nez Perce since Lewis and Clark*.

1870-1901.—Mining development.—Gold hunter stampedes.—Coeur d'Alenes.—Desperadoes and vigilance committees.—"Between 1870 and 1880, important quartz-fields were discovered in what is now Custer County. In that remote region girded by the towering Sawtooth Mountains on the west, nature had with a lavish hand distributed her precious ore-beds. Near Bonanza, in 1875, was located the famous Charles Dickens mine. . . . Among the important mining-towns established in this district was Bonanza, which was founded in 1879. Challis, the future county-seat, was laid out the following year. During the late sixties and early seventies the menacing attitude of the Indians of southern Idaho greatly retarded mining development in the Wood River country. In the summer of 1879, soon after the successful termination of the Bannock War, some prospectors discovered rich quartz-ledges in this district. . . . This once inhospitable region, the abode of prowling savages, was almost overnight dotted with camps and mining-claims. In May, 1883, a branch of the Oregon Short Line reached Hailey and in the following year was extended northward to Ketchum. The arrival of railroad facilities greatly accelerated the prosperity of these already flourishing camps. Prominent capitalists, among them Jay Gould, came here and gathered a golden harvest from Idaho's newest treasure-house. In 1881 Hailey was made the seat of government for this mineral district and became a social, political, and financial centre. It was named in honor of John Hailey, the historian and pioneer transportation man of Idaho, who owned the land on which the town was built. . . . One of the wildest stampedes in the history of mining was the rush to the Coeur d'Alenes in the early months of 1884. Into a country without trails or roads, save the old Mullan Military Road, covered with a dense growth of cedar and fir, in the dead of winter, through deep snow, hurried thousands of excited gold-hunters. Once again did Idaho's gulches, creeks, and ravines prove treasure-laden, for some of the lucky argonauts succeeded in finding good-sized quantities of the precious 'pay-dirt.' These first placer finds, however, were but the prelude to the great mining drama that was soon to be enacted in this region. On a tributary of the South Fork of the Coeur d'Alene River, in the latter part of the year 1884, the first quartz 'strike' was made in the famous lead-silver belt of this district. At Wardner, in the following year (1885), the marvellously rich Bunker Hill and Sullivan mine was located. This mine has been an astonishingly heavy and steady producing property and, through its association with the problems of the relation of capital and labor, has connected Idaho in a large way with the outside world. In July, 1901, near the town of Burke, occurred the discovery of the great Hercules mine, 'The Wonder of the Camp.' The Hercules is as famous for its steady productivity as for the quality of its output. To-day it is producing the finest ore in the Coeur d'Alenes. . . . Our gold-fields had scarcely become known to the world before bands of desperadoes who had made crime a profession in California and Nevada, came flocking to the newest Idaho camps. Their chief business was robbing stages, stealing horses and cattle, and murdering miners. So well organized were these roughs that if a judge, jury, or miners' meeting

attempted to punish one of their number, other members of the 'gang' could be counted upon to wreck a brutal vengeance upon the men who presumed to bring the ruffian to justice. Finally these outlaws became so numerous and powerful in some of the camps that the miners found it necessary to form themselves into Vigilante Committees. The peculiar feature of the Vigilante procedure was that it first tried the criminal in secret, and arrested him afterward. The punishment that followed conviction was swift, sure, and generally terrible. Since there were no jails, these convicted outlaws usually left the camp 'at the end of a rope.' The mysteriousness and severity of the Vigilante tribunals overawed the most desperate criminals, and they usually began to conduct themselves decently or fled to districts where the strange sign of the Vigilantes was not in evidence. As soon as local and Territorial laws became effective, the career of these 'popular tribunals' was, of course, at an end."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, pp. 97-98, 100, 115-116.—"The decade including 1871 and 1880 was perhaps the most trying period in the history of Idaho Territory; up to 1870 the chief industry was placer mining, and the number of men employed in that enterprise, together with those in the towns and camps supported directly by the miners provided an excellent market for all kinds of farm produce raised in the valleys. It seldom requires many years to exhaust the wealth of the average placer mining camp, and while the placer mines discovered in Idaho were no doubt more than average in extent and productiveness, yet hundreds of the best producing claims were exhausted within the first five years after their discovery; hence each succeeding year added to the melancholy of the situation, until eventually, and that too within ten years after the discovery of Boise Basin, hundreds of cabins on the hill-sides and in the gulches were left tenanted and alone among the whispering pines. While it is true that many valuable properties continued to produce sufficient gold dust to justify the employment of a large number of men for many years later . . . yet the great rush had come and gone between the years 1863 and 1870, and those who remained were required to adjust themselves to the changed condition."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 357-358.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of Washington, Idaho, and Montana*.

1874-1875.—Eighth Session of the legislature.—Legislation.—"The Eighth Session of the Idaho Legislature convened at the capital on the 7th day of December, 1874, and adjourned on the 15th day of January, 1875. . . . One of the prominent incongruities of the early business management of Idaho Territory is found in the fact that the Legislature while providing for the collection of revenue to conduct the various departments of its government, left to the County Commissioners the duty of fixing the per cent. which the Tax Collector should retain out of all taxes collected as a recompense for his services in collecting the same. . . . The Eighth Session of the Territorial Legislature enacted a new revenue law which was approved January 15, 1875."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 355-356.

1880-1889.—Railroad development.—George L. Shoup elected governor.—Constitutional convention.—Adoption of new constitution.—Admitted to the union.—"The years following 1880, and including 1889, witnessed the most extensive and permanent improvements yet made within the Territory, railroad building being extensively prose-

cut during those years. During that era the Oregon Short Line, the Utah Northern, and the Wood River and the Boise branches were completed; also the Northern Pacific, and the Moscow branch of the O. R. & N. A line of railroad had also been built into Wardner and Wallace, giving impetus to the development of the Ceur d'Alene mines, the permanency and value of which had already been determined. New and prosperous towns sprung into existence like magic, while the old and fossilized marts of trade took on new life. Each succeeding month brought new arrivals of men and women who brought their household goods and were prepared to make Idaho their future home. School houses were built [the University at Moscow established, 1880], churches erected, and a spirit of peace and prosperity prevailed. The Indians which had caused so much trouble were assigned to their respective reservations, and confidence in the future of Idaho had arrived to remain. . . . On April 2, 1889, the Territorial Governor, Hon. E. A. Stevenson, issued a proclamation requesting the people to elect delegates to a constitutional convention to meet in Boise City at noon, the fourth day of July of that year. This meeting was to be held for the purpose of framing a constitution for the proposed state of Idaho and the proclamation prescribed the qualifications and apportionment of members, who were to total seventy-two. The proclamation thus issued was not authorized by law, and consequently the county commissioners could not appoint election officers, or use public funds to pay them for their services; nor was there any provision to pay the per diem and mileage of the delegates. The foregoing call failed in its purpose of convening a constitutional convention, and Hon. George L. Shoup, who was appointed April 3, 1889, to succeed Governor Stevenson to the office of Governor of Idaho Territory, issued another call on May 11, 1889. Governor Shoup's call was slightly different from the one issued by Governor Stevenson and resulted in the choosing of delegates to a convention to be assembled at Boise City July 4, 1889—at the same time and place named in the former call. . . . A constitutional election was held November 5, 1889, at which election the constitution was ratified by an almost unanimous vote. The citizens of Idaho were then in a position to ask the congress of the United States to admit Idaho as one of the Union of States; a bill was accordingly prepared and introduced entitled 'An Act to Provide for the Admission of the State of Idaho into the Union.' Hon. George L. Shoup who was then governor of the territory, ex-Governor Stevenson, James McNab and the writer, W. J. McConnell, went to Washington as a volunteer delegation to aid our then delegate, Hon. Fred T. Dubois, in securing the passage of the admission act. . . . The bill was passed and received the approval of the president July 3, 1890."—W. J. McConnell, *Early history of Idaho*, pp. 369-372, 384.—See also U.S.A.: 1889-1890.

1883-1907.—Mormon franchise.—Shoup, first state governor.—Other governors.—Adoption of Woman Suffrage.—In 1883, a law was passed depriving professed polygamists the right of franchise; but the anti-Mormon restrictions were removed, 1893, when the Mormon Church renounced polygamy. "On July 3, 1890, in accordance with a provision in the Admission Act, Territorial Governor Shoup became the chief executive of the newly admitted commonwealth. At the special election held October 1, 1890, he was continued in the governorship and to him belongs the distinc-

tion of having been the last Territorial and the first State governor of Idaho."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, p. 171.—The state governors and their terms of office covering the period, 1891-1907 are as follows: Norman B. Wiley, 1891-1892; William J. McConnell, 1893-1897; Frank Steuenberg, 1897-1901; Frank W. Hunt, 1901-1903; John I. Morrison, 1903-1905; Frank R. Gooding, 1905-1907. On December 11, 1896, an amendment of the constitution of Idaho, extending the suffrage to women, was submitted to the then voters of the state, and carried by 12,126 against 6,282. Though carried by a large majority of the votes given on the suffrage issue, it did not receive a majority of the whole vote cast on other questions at the same election; but the supreme court of the state decided that the amendment had been adopted.—See also SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851: 1920.

1892-1908.—Miners' strikes.—Murder of ex-governor Steuenberg.—Trial and acquittal of the defendants.—Haywood.—"Idaho, like other mining States, has had her share of industrial troubles. The first outbreak occurred in the Cœur d'Alene mining district, in 1892. Trouble over wages led to a strike. New men were brought in. This gave rise to acts of violence. A mill was blown up and federal troops had to be called in to restore order. From then until 1899 there were various acts of lawlessness in the Cœur d'Alene district. Men were killed on little or no provocation and the towns were terrorized. The climax came in the destruction of the Bunker Hill and Sullivan Mill by dynamite, in 1899. Governor Steuenberg was forced to call for federal troops. Several hundred miners were arrested and confined for a time in a stockade which at one time had been used for cattle. The prisoners called this the 'bull pen.' Paul Corcoran, a leader, was tried and sentenced to prison for a term of years. Order was finally restored, but feeling ran high and many threats were uttered against the governor. Six years afterward, when Governor Steuenberg was entering his home at Caldwell, on the evening of December 30, 1905, a bomb which had been fastened to his gate was exploded and caused his death. Harry Orchard was arrested for this crime and confessed that he had placed the bomb which killed the former governor. His confession also implicated Charles H. Moyer, the president of the Western Federation of Miners, William D. Haywood, secretary and treasurer, and George A. Pettibone, a member of the executive committee, under instructions from all of whom Orchard claimed he had been acting. Orchard also freely confessed that he had committed a number of other serious crimes. Haywood, and Pettibone were separately tried for the murder (May, 1907, to January, 1908). At these trials, Orchard acted as chief witness for the State. Both trials, however, resulted in the acquittal of the defendants and soon afterward the State dropped the prosecution against Moyer."—C. J. Brosnan, *History of the state of Idaho*, pp. 194-195.

1908-1912.—Irrigation project.—Forest fires.—Amendments ratified.—Governors.—The Minadoka reclamation project of the United States government, in 1908, opened up 120,000 acres of land in Idaho for settlement and improvement. The most disastrous forest fires in the history of the state occurred in 1910; these fires raged in the Cœur d'Alene region, several towns were almost entirely destroyed and many lives lost. In 1911, the Sixteenth Amendment (income tax) was ratified. In 1912, a constitutional amendment pro-

vided for the initiative, referendum, and recall (see INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM: Development in the United States); statutes relating to the state's bonded indebtedness were submitted and carried; also an amendment providing for an increased membership in the legislature. In 1909, James H. Brady was elected governor for the term ending 1911; and in 1911 he was succeeded by James H. Hawley.

1913.—Legislation.—The seventeenth amendment was ratified providing direct election of senators; the mother's pension act was passed; commission government was provided for in cities over 15,000; the blue sky law was passed, and an act granting the eight-hour day.

1913-1916.—Governors.—Legislation.—In 1913, John M. Haines was elected governor for the term ending 1915. In 1915, Moses Alexander was elected governor. An attempt was made to pass an alien land law similar to that of California, and a prohibition act was passed. In 1916, the United States Supreme Court rendered a decision which denied the right of an individual to possess liquor when the state forbids it.

1917-1921.—New departments created.—Legislation.—Part played in the World War.—Administrative consolidation.—Effort to create a new state of Lincoln.—Elections.—In 1917, a Department of Reclamation was created to insure greater control of the water supply, the department to include commissioners of reclamation, and a director of water resources; water legislation was codified; and the definition of powers made clearer. (See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1918.) Another enactment was the Workingmen's Compensation. In 1918, the Teachers' Retirement Fund was established. During the World War the state furnished 19,016 men, or .51 per cent of the Expeditionary Forces. In 1919, the federal prohibition amendment was ratified; D. W. Davis elected governor; and a Department of Law Enforcement was created. The object of the department is to enforce all the penal and regulatory laws of the state in the same manner and with like authority as the sheriff of the county. Such a department is somewhat in line with a state police and argues the need of a constabulary similar to that of Pennsylvania and New York. A law was enacted centralizing all the activities of the state into nine departments; the heads of these departments appointed by the governor and subject to his removal. This is considered one of the most far reaching acts in the line of administrative readjustment yet passed by any of the states. "Under this new system state government becomes a great business, and good men can be drafted to become general managers or heads of departments because their intellect and energy can be developed and results shown. The system's success largely hinges on the department heads. . . . Their salaries are small and will be until the public recognizes the value of the men. . . . Under this system there is no stated time for a term of office, and when the public realizes what it means, the good men will stay. . . . Most of these men are experts in their line and therefore dependable, so that office-holding is a higher occupation in Idaho than ever before."—D. W. Davis, *How administrative consolidation is working in Idaho* (*National Municipal Review*, Nov., 1919).—In 1921 an effort was made to secure legislation on a resolution to divide the state; its main object was the creation of a new state, "Lincoln," out of northern Idaho, eastern Washington, and possibly western Montana.



IDES, name for the 13th or 15th day of the month in Roman chronology. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era.

IDLE, Battle of the (617), fought between the East English, or East Angles, and the Northumbrians. The former were victorious.

IDO LANGUAGE. See INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: Other proposed languages.

**IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP.**—Origin and development.—Idolatry, the worship of images or other objects believed to be superhuman in themselves or inhabited by superhuman spirits, apparently marks a definite step in the development of primitive religions. Not until the deities have become possessed of distinct and individual personalities does the custom of idol-making appear, though it does not necessarily follow immediately. To make a protecting spirit more concrete or perhaps to placate one he fears, man forms an image of the god as he pictures him. At first the object, whatever it may be, merely symbolizes an idea,—harvest, victory, disease, or other forms of good or evil,—but gradually it comes, in the mind of the worshiper, to assume divinity and divine powers in itself. Idolatry marks an upward step in religious development, and is not found among the most primitive peoples. It has been a vital part of the religions of some of the highest civilizations—Egypt, Greece, and the Orient. At the same time it is conspicuously absent from Judaism, Christianity, and Mohammedanism, and has been allowed to gain an entrance, at certain periods, only through the influence of heathen religions and against the direct teachings of prophets and founders. Thus it might be said that, while idolatry marks a rise from a primitive stage, still higher development involves its decline.—See also RELIGION: Universal elements.

**Influence on Judaism.**—"The old Testament is full of testimony to the fact that the people of Yahweh, even while recognizing itself as such a people, was at times open to the allurements offered either by the indulgence or the ritualistic abstinence fostered by the native cults about it. . . . The earlier material in the Book of Judges proves that in ancient times the people indulged in practises which were not merely debased forms of Yahweh worship, but were lapses into practise of Canaanitic cults. . . . Political development opened a new way for the infiltration of worship of other deities. . . . The large harem of Solomon . . . [with its women worshiping many different gods] was only one of the causes of the erection of sanctuaries to other gods. More significant is the domestication in Israel of the Phenician Ash-toreth, the Moabitic Chemosh, and the Ammonitic Moloch, under whose protection the capital was placed. . . . In the eighth century, through the development which brought Mesopotamian powers into the West, a new stream of foreign religious customs began to cut its channel into Israel. New deities . . . were borne on this stream and the worship of the stars was included. . . . The worship of the sun and of the signs of the zodiac came into prominence, as well as that of the 'Queen of Heaven.' Tammuz, the Babylonian Adonis, and Philistine and Egyptian deities found entrance. While the reformation of Josiah removed the emblems of these cults, the cult itself was not destroyed but continued, not merely in Samaria but in Jerusalem itself, until the exile, in syncretistic union with the cult of Yahweh. The persistent strength of the religion of Yahweh in the midst of these assaults was manifested in the opposition of prophecy, contending for

the unity of that deity. . . . While externally the Babylonian exile drew a boundary line between the idolatrous tendencies of the earlier people and the post-exilic iconoclastic type, there are many signs among the exiles of relapse into the old idolatry and of lapses into newer forms. . . . The Maccabean epoch revealed a last mighty flaring up of the idolatrous inclination as the prelude to a period of martyrdom and victory for Israelitic faith. Greek religion found ready entrance and firm standing-ground among the Jews. . . . Not only was there sent a contribution to the great official feast of the Melkart-Heracles of Tyre, but in Jerusalem a sanctuary was consecrated to Olympian Zeus and . . . there arose in the city before the gates altars to Greek deities. . . . This time it was not the living word of prophecy which armed the opposition to these doings, but for the first time the written word."—P. Kleinert, *Idolatry* (*New Schaff-Herzog encyclopedia of religious knowledge*, v. 5, pp. 443-444).

**Image worship in Christianity.**—"The primitive Christian Church was utterly averse to anything like image-worship. Its early connection with image-hating Judaism and its bitter contest with an image-loving paganism made its attitude clear and unequivocal, and its manifold use of such symbols as the cross, the lamb, the fish, the dove, etc., involved nothing contradictory. There was, however, an inherent tendency toward image-worship in the Gnosticism of the 2d and 3d centuries, and images challenging the worship of the faithful sprang up everywhere. Edessa pretended to possess an authentic portrait of Christ; similar pictures of the Virgin were found in many places; the sufferings of the martyrs were painted, and the paintings looked upon with an admiration and awe which had nothing to do with their artistic merits. Although the Synod of Elvira, 306, forbade the introduction of images in the churches, they crept in nevertheless, and when in the 4th and 5th centuries the great uneducated mass of the people was admitted into the Christian community, the images were retained and defended as a means of teaching that kind of people who needed teaching the most and could not read. In the 6th century the worship was fully developed. It became common use to kneel down or prostrate one's self before the images, to kiss them, to light tapers and burn incense in front of them, to deck them out with costly clothings and ornaments of jewelry—nay, it even became customary to make pilgrimages to certain famous images which were considered to be peculiarly efficacious. Thus, between Judaism on one side and Mohammedanism on the other, image-worship gradually assumed the aspect of being a characteristic and essential element of Christianity, and the charge of idolatry was raised from both sides."—*Concise dictionary of religious knowledge*, p. 398.

**8th-9th centuries.**—Contest in the Eastern Church.—"In the Eastern Church this occasioned a long and bloody contest. The Byzantine emperor and the army were iconoclasts; the Byzantine empress and the monks were iconodoulists. . . . Under Irene a synod of Nicæa, 787, condemned the iconoclasts, and decreed what kind of honor and veneration was due to the images of Christ, the Virgin, the angels, the martyrs, etc.; and under Theodora a synod of Constantinople, 842, made image-worship an orthodox dogma of the Eastern Church."—*Ibid.*

—See also ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

**Practice and theory in Roman church.**—"In the Western Church the policy of the popes with respect to this question was very curious and

very characteristic. . . Adrian I. accepted the decrees of the Synod of Nicæa, which legitimized not only the use, but also the worship of images. The Frankish Church, however, was strongly opposed to the introduction of images, and the decrees of the synod and the decision of the pope were first refuted in the *Libri Carolini*, and then formally condemned by the Synod of Paris, 825, the popes succeeded in making image-worship first a general practice in the Western Church and then, by the Council of Trent, also a recognized principle. In a carefully worded chapter (Sess. xxv., cf. Schaff, *Creeds*, p. 201 sq.), the present doctrine of the Roman Catholic Church upon the point is thus clearly stated: 'The images of Christ, of the Virgin Mother of God, and of the other saints, are to be had and retained particularly in temples, and that due honor and veneration are to be given them; not that any divinity or virtue is believed to be in them, on account of which they are worshipped; or that anything is to be asked of them; or that trust is to be reposed in images, as was of old done by the Gentiles, who placed their hope in idols; but because the honor which is shown them is referred to the prototypes which those images represent; in such wise that by the images we kiss, and before which we uncover the head and prostrate ourselves, we adore Christ and we venerate the saints whose similitude they bear.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 398-399.

**IDOMENE, Battle of** (B.C. 426), one of the battles of the Peloponnesian War, in which the Ambrakiots were surprised and almost totally destroyed by Messenians and Akarnanians, under the Athenian general Demosthenes.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, v. 6, pt. 2, ch. 51.

**IDSTEDE, Battle of** (1850). See DENMARK: 1848-1862.

**IDUMEANS**, ancient Hebrew tribe. See EDOMITES; SYRIA: B.C. 64-63.

**IERNE**, one of the ancient names of Ireland. See IRELAND: Geographical description.

**IEYASU**. See IYAYASU.

**IGANIE, Battle of** (1831). See POLAND: 1830-1832.

**IGEL, Wolf von**, German spy employed in America by Ambassador Bernstorff during the World War. In April, 1916, secret-service men raided his New York office and captured papers showing the connection of the Germany embassy with various outrages in the United States. See U.S.A.: 1914-1917.

**IGLESIAS, Miguel** (1822-1901), Peruvian soldier and statesman. See PERU: 1884-1908.

**IGNATIUS OF LOYOLA, Saint**. See LOYOLA, SAINT IGNATIUS.

**IGUALA, Plan of**, manifesto proclaimed in 1821 by Iturbide. See MEXICO: 1820-1826.

**IGUALADA, Battle of** (1809). See SPAIN: 1808-1809 (December-March).

**I HO CH'UAN**, secret society in China hostile to foreigners. See CHINA: 1900.

**II KAMON NO KAMI** (1815-1861), Japanese statesman. See JAPAN: 1857-1862.

**IKENILD-STRETE**, or Icknield Street. See ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN.

**ILA, ILARCH**.—The Spartan boys were divided into companies, according to their several ages; each company was called an Ila, and was commanded by a young officer called an Ilarch.—G. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 3, ch. 1.

**ILERDA**.—Modern Lérida, in Spain. It was the scene of Cæsar's famous campaign against

Afranius and Petreius, in the civil war. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 49.

**ILIAD**, epic poem relating the siege of Troy. See HOMER; HISTORY: 13.

**ILIUM**, Asia Minor, name for Troy in ancient geography. See TROY; GREECE: Map.

**ILKHANS**, Mongol rulers of western Asia. See PERSIA: 1258-1393.

**ILLINOIA**, Proposed state of. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

**ILLINOIS: Geographic description**.—Illinois, popularly known as the "Prairie State," is a north central state of the United States. It is bounded on the north by Wisconsin; on the east, by Lake Michigan and Indiana; on the southeast and south, by the Ohio river which separates it from Kentucky; and on the southwest and south, by the Mississippi river, which in its turn separates it from Missouri and Iowa. The organization of the Illinois territory into a state, by the Enabling Act of Congress, 1818, extended its jurisdiction to the middle of Lake Michigan and the Mississippi river, thereby giving the state a total area of 56,665 square miles, including 622 square miles of water. The estimated population, 1920, was 6,485,280.

**Resources**.—Illinois, near the center of the humid region of the United States, has a climate highly favorable for agricultural pursuits. In 1910, there were 237,181 farms with an area of 31,977,513 acres, of which 27,294,517 acres were improved lands. The chief crops are hay, potatoes, tobacco and the cereals: maize, wheat, oats, barley, rye, and buckwheat. According to the 1921 estimate, the live-stock industry had a total of 9,216,000 head of which 1,324,000 were horses; 146,000 mules; 1,028,000 cows, 1,244,000 other cattle, 889,000 sheep, and 4,585,000 swine. In the United States, Illinois ranks third for mineral output. The chief mineral product is bituminous coal, the productive field having an area of 42,900 square miles. The 1920 output was 80,401,786 long tons. The state also yields petroleum, natural gas, zinc, limestone, Portland cement, and clay products.—See also U.S.A.: Economic map.

**Aboriginal inhabitants**. See ILLINOIS AND MIAMIS; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests.

**1673**.—Traversed by Marquette and Joliet. See CANADA: 1634-1673.

**1679-1682**.—La Salle's fort and colony. See CANADA: 1669-1687.

**1679-1735**.—French occupation. See CANADA: 1700-1735.

**1700-1750**.—"Illinois country" under the French.—"For many years the term 'Illinois country' embraced all the region east of the Upper Mississippi as far as Lake Michigan, and from the Wisconsin on the north to the Ohio on the south. The extent of the Illinois country under the French varied but little from the extent of the present State of Illinois. At a later date, its limits on the east were restricted by the 'Wabash country,' which was erected into a separate government, under the commandant of 'Post St. Vincent,' on the Wabash River. . . The early French on the Illinois were remarkable for their talent of ingratiating themselves with the warlike tribes around them, and for their easy amalgamation in manners and customs, and blood. . . Their settlements were usually in the form of small, compact, patriarchal villages, like one great family assembled around their old men and patriarchs."—J. W. Monette, *History of the discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi*, v. 1, pp. 181-183.—See also LOUISIANA: 1719-1750.

1751.—Settlements and population.—“Up to this time, the ‘Illinois country,’ east of the Upper Mississippi, contained six distinct settlements, with their respective villages. These were: 1. Cahokia, near the mouth of Cahokia Creek, and nearly five miles below the present site of St. Louis; 2. St. Philip, forty-five miles below the last, and four miles above Fort Chartres, on the east side of the Mississippi; 3. Fort Chartres, on the east bank of the Mississippi, twelve miles above Kaskaskia; 4. Kaskaskia, situated upon the Kaskaskia River, five miles above its mouth, upon a peninsula, and within two miles of the Mississippi River; 5. Prairie du Rocher, near Fort Chartres; 6. St. Geneviève, on the west side of the Mississippi, and about one mile from its bank, upon Gabarre Creek. These are among the oldest towns in what was long known as the Illinois country. Kaskaskia, in its best days, under the French régime, was quite a large town, containing 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants. But after it passed from the Crown of France, its population for many years did not exceed 1,500 souls. Under the British dominion the population decreased to 460 souls, in 1773.”—J. W. Monette, *History of the discovery and settlement of the Mississippi valley*, v. 1, pp. 167-168.—“The population of the French and Indian villages in the district of the Illinois, at the period of which we write, is largely a matter of conjecture and computation. Father Louis Vivier, a Jesuit missionary, in a letter dated June 8, 1750, and written from the vicinity of Fort Chartres, says: ‘We have here whites, negroes, and Indians, to say nothing of the cross-breeds. There are five French villages, and three villages of the natives within a space of twenty-five leagues, situate between the Mississippi and another river called (Kaskaskia). In the French villages are, perhaps, eleven hundred whites, three hundred blacks, and sixty red slaves or savages. The three Illinois towns do not contain more than eight hundred souls, all told.’ This estimate does not include the scattered French settlers or traders north of Peoria, nor on the Wabash. It is stated that the Illinois nation, then dwelling for the most part along the river of that name, occupied eleven different villages, with four or five fires at each village, and each fire warming a dozen families, except at the principal village, where there were three hundred lodges. These data would give us something near eight thousand as the total number of the Illinois of all tribes.”—J. Wallace, *History of Illinois and Louisiana under the French rule*, ch. 16.

1763.—Cession to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS’ WAR: Treaties.

1763.—King’s proclamation excluding settlers. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1763.

1763-1783.—English control.—Taken from British by George Rogers Clark.—“The proclamation of 1763 failed to extend English law to the west, nor did the crown ever take such action. We may therefore lay down the general principle that although with the change of sovereignty the public law of England was substituted for that of France, the private law of the province remained unchanged. The British government then was obliged to govern its new subjects in this region according to the laws and customs hitherto prevailing among them; any other course would manifestly be illegal. The commanding general of the army in America and his subordinates, who were embarrassed by the presence of this French settlement for which no provision had been made by the ministry, and

who found it necessary to assume the obligation of enforcing some sort of order in that country, had no power to displace any of the laws and customs of the French inhabitants. . . . It is apparent from the foregoing considerations that the government of the Illinois people was *de facto* in its nature. It had no legal foundations. Every act of the military department was based on expediency. Although in general this course was accepted by the home authorities, all officials concerned were aware that such a status could not continue indefinitely. Nevertheless it did continue for about a decade, during which time the inhabitants were at the mercy of some six or seven different military commandants. In 1774, however, Parliament passed the Quebec act, which provided, among other things, for the union of all the western country north of the Ohio River, which but for the cataclysm of the American Revolution would have secured civil government for the whole region. [See CANADA: 1763-1774.] . . . In 1774 came the opportunity to make a final disposition of the Illinois French. During the period under consideration events had so shaped themselves in the neighboring colony of Canada that the ministry was under the necessity of reorganizing the government of that province. The proclamation of 1768 had extended English law to Canada with the result that the French inhabitants were subjected to many hardships. Their grievances were now to be taken into consideration by the government, and as the solution of the western and Canadian problems seemed to be closely connected, the two questions were taken up at the same time. General Gage was summoned home in 1773, and was directed to bring with him every paper relating to the West which might tend to ‘explain as well the causes as the effects’ of the abuses and disorders in Illinois. As a result of his recommendations and of the investigations of the ministry the Quebec Act of 1774 was enacted, according to the provisions of which the entire Northwest was included within the limits of the province of Quebec. In the instructions issued to the governor of Canada in January, 1775, we find provisions for the government of Illinois. It was to be governed from Quebec, and a lieutenant-governor or superintendent was to reside at Kaskaskia, at which place also a lower court of King’s Bench was to be established to cooperate with the superior courts of the province in general. These arrangements were not put into execution, however, because of the outbreak of the American Revolution, which absorbed the whole attention of both the home government and Canada. As early as January, 1774, the detachment of troops had been ordered to leave Fort Gage, and the allowance to commanding officer discontinued. From this time on little or no attention was paid to western affairs. Illinois was left in the hands of a Frenchman named Rocheblave, who acted as agent for the government from 1776 to 1778. His best efforts to save the country to Great Britain were, however, in vain. As the government had ignored his call for troops, an American army under George Rogers Clark easily effected the conquest of Illinois, and the whole Northwest in 1778.—C. E. Carter, *Great Britain and the Illinois country*, pp. 25, 161-163.—See also U.S.A.: 1778-1779: Clark’s conquest.

1765.—Possession taken by the English.—“The French officers had, since the peace, been ready loyally to surrender the country to the English. But the Illinois, the Missouri, and the Osage tribes

would not consent. At a council held in the spring of 1765, at Fort Chartres, the chief of the Kaskaskias, turning to the English officers, said: 'Go hence, and tell your chief that the Illinois and all our brethren will make war on you if you come upon our lands.' . . . But when Fraser, who arrived from Pittsburg, brought proofs that their elder brothers, the Senecas, the Delawares and the Shawnees, had made peace with the English, the Kaskaskias said: 'We follow as they shall lead.' 'I waged this war,' said Pontiac, 'because, for two years together, the Delawares and Shawnees begged me to take up arms against the English. So I became their ally, and was of their mind'; and, plighting his word for peace, he kept it with integrity. A just curiosity may ask how many persons of foreign lineage had gathered in the valley of the Illinois since its discovery by the missionaries. Fraser was told that there were of white men, able to bear arms, 700; of white women, 500; of their children, 850; of negroes of both sexes, 900. The banks of the Wabash, we learn from another source, were occupied by about 110 French families, most of which were at Vincennes. Fraser sought to overawe the French traders with the menace of an English army that was to come among them; but they pointed to the Mississippi, beyond which they would be safe from English jurisdiction [France having ceded to Spain her territory on the western side of the river]. . . . With Croghan, an Indian agent, who followed from Fort Pitt, the Illinois nations agreed that the English should take possession of all the posts which the French formerly held; and Captain Stirling, with 100 men of the 42d regiment, was detached down the Ohio, to relieve the French garrison. At Fort Chartres, St. Ange, who had served for fifty years in the wilderness, gave them a friendly reception; and on the morning of the 10th of October he surrendered to them the left bank of the Mississippi. Some of the French crossed the river, so that at St. Genevieve there were at least five-and-twenty families, while St. Louis, whose origin dates from the 15th of February 1764, and whose skillfully chosen site attracted the admiration of the British commander, already counted about twice that number, and ranked as the leading settlement on the western side of the Mississippi. In the English portion of the distant territory, the government then instituted was the absolute rule of the British army, with a local judge to decide all disputes among the inhabitants according to the customs of the country, yet subject to an appeal to the military chief."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 3, pp. 151-152.

1765-1774.—Early years of English rule.—"Just before and during the first years of the English domination, there was a large exodus of the French inhabitants from Illinois. Such, in fact, was their dislike of British rule that fully one-third of the population, embracing the wealthier and more influential families, removed with their slaves and other personal effects, beyond the Mississippi, or down that river to Natchez and New Orleans. Some of them settled at Ste. Genevieve, while others, after the example set by St. Ange, took up their abode in the village of St. Louis, which had now become a depot for the fur company of Louisiana. . . . At the close of the year 1765, the whole number of inhabitants of foreign birth or lineage, in Illinois, excluding the negro slaves, and including those living at Post Vincent on the Wabash, did not much exceed two thousand persons; and, during the entire period of British possession, the influx of

alien population hardly more than kept pace with the outflow. Scarcely any Englishmen, other than the officers and troops composing the small garrisons, a few enterprising traders and some favored land speculators, were then to be seen in Illinois, and no Americans came hither, for the purpose of settlement, until after the conquest of the country by Colonel Clark. All the settlements still remained essentially French, with whom there was no taste for innovation or change. But the blunt and sturdy Anglo-American had at last gained a firm foot-hold on the banks of the great Father of Rivers, and a new type of civilization, instinct with energy, enterprise and progress, was about to be introduced into the broad and fertile Valley of the Mississippi. . . . Captain Thomas Stirling began the military government of the country on October 10, 1765, with fair and liberal concessions, calculated to secure the good-will and loyalty of the French-Canadians, and to stay their further exodus; but his administration was not of long duration. On the 4th of the ensuing December, he was succeeded by Major Robert Farmer, who had arrived from Mobile with a detachment of the 34th British infantry. In the following year, after exercising an arbitrary authority over these isolated and feeble settlements, Major Farmer was displaced by Colonel Edward Cole, who had commanded a regiment under Wolfe, at Quebec. Colonel Cole remained in command at Fort Chartres about eighteen months; but the position was not congenial to him. . . . He was accordingly relieved at his own request, early in the year 1768. His successor was Colonel John Reed, who proved a bad exchange for the poor colonists. He soon became so notorious for his military oppressions of the people that he was removed and gave place to Lieutenant-Colonel John Wilkins, of the 18th, or royal regiment of Ireland, who had formerly commanded at Fort Niagara. Colonel Wilkins arrived from Philadelphia and assumed the command September 5, 1768. He brought out with him seven companies of his regiment for garrison duty. . . . One of the most noticeable features of Colonel Wilkins' administration was the liberality with which he parceled out large tracts of the domain over which he ruled to his favorites in Illinois, Philadelphia, and elsewhere, without other consideration than requiring them to re-convey to him a certain interest in the same. Lieutenant-Colonel Wilkins' government of the Illinois country eventually became unpopular, and specific charges were preferred against him, including a misappropriation of the public funds. He asked for an official investigation, claiming that he was able to justify his public conduct. But he was deposed from office in September, 1771, and sailed for Europe in July of the following year. Captain Hugh Lord, of the 18th regiment, became Wilkins' successor at Fort Chartres and continued in command until the year 1775. . . . On the 2d of June, 1774, Parliament passed an act enlarging and extending the province of Quebec to the Mississippi River so as to include the territory of the Northwest. . . . Who was the immediate successor of Captain Lord in command of the Illinois, is not positively determined."—J. Wallace, *History of Illinois and Louisiana under the French rule*, ch. 20.

1784.—Included in the proposed states of Assenisipia, Illinois, and Polypotamia. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

1785-1786.—Partially covered by the western land claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut, ceded to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1781-1786.

1787.—Ordinance for the government of Northwest Territory.—Perpetual exclusion of slavery. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1787.

1795.—Control gained by the United States of territory around site of Chicago. See CHICAGO: 1673-1804.

1809.—Detached from Indiana and organized as distinct territory. See INDIANA: 1800-1818.

1809-1839.—Territorial appointees.—First and second sessions of the territorial legislature.—Legislation.—Changing capitals.—“February 3, 1809, Congress passed an act dividing the Indiana Territory into two separate governments, and establishing the Territory of Illinois. President Madison appointed John Boyle, an Associate Justice of the Court of Appeals of Kentucky, Governor of the Territory, but he declined, and Ninian Edwards, Chief Justice of the same Court, was appointed in his stead. Nathaniel Pope was appointed secretary; Alexander Stuart, Obadiab Jones and Jesse B. Thomas, Judges; Benjamin H. Boyle, Attorney-General. This composed the Territorial Government. Under the Ordinance of 1787, and the act of Congress February 3, 1809, the Governor and Judges constituted the law-making power of the Territory, and as such they met for the first time at Kaskaskia, June 13, 1809, and their first act was to resolve that the laws of Indiana Territory, in force prior to March 1, 1809, which applied to the government of the Territory, should remain in full force and effect. The duration of the session was seven days, in which thirteen acts were passed. The second session of the Council was held in 1810, at which fourteen acts were passed, and the third and last session was held in 1811, at which five acts were passed. Among the laws enacted were some from the Georgia, Kentucky, Pennsylvania and South Carolina statutes. In May, 1812, Congress passed an act authorizing the formation of five Legislative districts in the Territory which were to be apportioned by the Governor, and from each of which was to be elected a member of the Legislative Council, who should hold the office four years; the number of Representatives to be elected was not to be less than seven nor more than twelve, until the number of ‘free male, white inhabitants’ should equal six thousand, and after that time the number was to be governed by the Ordinance of 1787. The office of Representative was for two years. Governor Edwards called the first election for Councilmen and Representatives for October 8, 9 and 10, 1812. . . . Illinois has had three capitals—Kaskaskia, Vandalia and Springfield. When Kaskaskia became the seat of government it was also the county seat of Randolph county. There were then but two counties in the Territory, Randolph and St. Clair. The first session of the Territorial Legislature was convened November 25, 1812—and the first Legislature of the State, October 5, 1818. In 1820, the seat of government was removed to Vandalia; there were then nineteen counties. The first session of the Legislature convened there December 4, 1820. The Capital was removed to Springfield in 1839, at which time there were seventy-two counties. The first session of the Legislature convened there December 9, 1839.”—D. W. Lusk, *Eighty years of Illinois, politics and politicians, anecdotes and incidents*, pp. 2-3, 13 of the appendix.

1818-1830.—First government of Illinois as a state.—Council of revision.—In 1818, Illinois was admitted into the Union. (See INDIANA: 1800-1818; WISCONSIN: 1805-1848.) “The constitution

of 1818 and the laws under which the people of the state lived for the first ten years of its existence afford an interesting elaboration and commentary on certain phases of the general life of the people already described. Such material, of course, has to be used cautiously; the passage of a law by no means implies that the condition toward which it is apparently directed prevailed to any considerable extent. Without some such study, however, the picture of early Illinois would be incomplete. . . . The government of Illinois in its constitution and in its tendency for the first fifteen or twenty years after 1818 was a government by the legislature. The observer is impressed not only by the extent of the power exerted by the general assembly in comparison with that exercised by the judiciary and the executive, but by its assumption of the choice of local officers which are now by almost universal practice chosen by individual communities. The legislature by the terms of the constitution was to meet biennially; there were to be between one-third and one-half as many senators as representatives. In practice the first and second general assemblies consisted of fourteen senators and twenty-nine representatives; there was a slight increase thereafter until 1831. The representatives were elected annually for each assembly and the senators for terms of four years, half of the senate retiring every two years. In addition to its powers of legislation the assembly enjoyed the usual powers in impeachment, counted the votes in gubernatorial elections, elected members of the supreme court, appointed the auditor, attorney-general, state treasurer, state printer, and other necessary state officers. By a two-thirds vote it could submit to the voters the question of calling a convention to amend the constitution. The senate could pass on the governor's nominee for secretary of state and had a similar voice in the selection of other officers created by the constitution without a specific provision for their election. On the legislative department the constitution grafted a very curious body, almost indeed a third house—the council of revision. The origin of this institution was generally traced to a similar one in New York, and when it became unpopular Elias Kent Kane was usually charged by his enemies with responsibility for it. The council was composed of the governor and the justices of the supreme court; its duty was to examine all laws passed by the house and senate and to return such as it disapproved, which last could be passed over its veto by a majority of the members in each house. In practice the institution prevented some useless legislation by calling to the attention of the legislature technical defects in laws passed; but the council's vetoes of laws on grounds of public policy or of unconstitutionality were apt to be futile or merely irritating, because legislators in early Illinois were rarely absent during the session and the majority of members elected in each house required to pass a bill over the veto of the council was usually only one or two greater than the vote by which it originally passed. Furthermore, the supreme court in deciding cases involving the constitutionality of state laws was continually embarrassed by the fact that the justices in the council of revision had already passed on them. This function of the justices undoubtedly heightened the political character, already too apparent, of the early Illinois judiciary.”—T. C. Pease, *Frontier state*, pp. 33-34.

1818-1861.—Governors.—The governors of the state and their terms of office covering this period

were as follows: Shadrach Bond, 1818-1822; Edward Coles, 1822-1826; Ninian Edwards, 1826-1830; John Reynolds, 1830-1834; Joseph Duncan, 1834-1838; Thomas Carlin, 1838-1842; Thomas Ford, 1842-1846; Augustus C. French, 1846-1853; Joel A. Matteson, 1853-1857; William H. Bissell, 1857-1860; and John Wood, 1860-1861.

**1831-1837.—Slavery controversy.—Gag rule passed.**—"The slavery question in Illinois remained in a state of quiescence for at least a decade after the decision of the convention struggle. The black laws remained and even increased in severity; the shameful kidnapping of free blacks out of the state went on in defiance of legislation, aided in some sections by a proslavery public opinion which was prone to sooth itself with the excuse of the kidnappers: that they recovered runaway slaves for their masters and therefore were merely vindicators of a just property right. On the other hand the underground railroad had its obscure beginnings as the escaping Negroes found sympathy and assistance at an increasing number of doors; there were always communities in the state where the slave was safe from his hunters. Little interest in the antislavery movement was publicly evidenced. In 1831 a Presbyterian layman of Bond county—that source of much propaganda in early Illinois—William M. Stewart by name, put forth a vigorous protest against the toleration of slavery by the churches. On January 9, 1831, an antislavery meeting at Shoal Creek, Bond county, made a vigorous protest against buying, selling, or holding slaves, declaring that the participation of its members in these things was a disgrace to the Presbyterian church. Along with the protest came the establishment of a local colonization society. During the next year or two the colonization movement attracted more notice, especially as it came to be contrasted favorably with abolition. The increased activity of the abolitionists and the gag rules began to bring the subject of slavery under wider discussion. The *Sangamon Journal*, *Alton Spectator*, and *Chicago American* were all strongly anti-abolition in their utterances. The *Alton Telegraph*, on the other hand, denounced the gag and interference with the right of petition in round terms. It is rather hard to define the attitude of the Illinois representatives in the national house of representatives on the subject. They voted for the gag resolutions designed to cut off abolition petitions in 1836; but on motions and petitions involved in Adams' diplomatic fencing with his adversaries, the delegation, Zadoc Casey particularly, occasionally voted with him. In Illinois the general assembly in the session of 1837 passed the resolutions unanimously; but in the house, Abraham Lincoln, Andrew McCormick, Gideon Minor, John H. Morphy, Parven Paulin, and Dan Stone cast their votes in the negative. Before the end of the session, Abraham Lincoln and Dan Stone recorded on the Journals of the house their formal protest against the resolutions. Declaring their belief that abolition agitation tended to increase rather than diminish the evils of slavery, they pronounced the peculiar institution founded on injustice and bad policy; and they based their dissent to the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, not on the lack of power on the part of congress to do away with slavery there, but on the fact that congress should act only on the petition of the people of the district. In view of the increasing rage against abolitionism rising in the state and even more in the country at large, the men who signed this document took

their political future in their hands."—T. C. Pease, *Frontier state*, pp. 363-364.

**1832.—Black Hawk War.**—"In 1830 a treaty was made with the tribes of Sacs and Foxes, by which their lands in Illinois were ceded to the United States. They were nevertheless unwilling to leave their country. . . . Black Hawk, a chief of the Sacs, then about 60 years of age, refused submission, and the next year returned with a small force. He was driven back by the troops at Rock Island, but in March, 1832, he reappeared, at the head of about 1,000 warriors,—Sacs, Foxes, and Winnebagos,—and penetrated into the Rock River valley declaring that he came only to plant corn. But either he would not or could not restrain his followers, and the devastation of Indian warfare soon spread among the frontier settlements. . . . The force at Rock Island was sent out to stay these ravages, and Generals Scott and Atkinson ordered from Buffalo with a reinforcement, which on the way was greatly diminished by cholera and desertions. The Governor of Illinois called for volunteers, and an effective force of about 2,400 men was soon marched against the enemy. Black Hawk's band fled before it. General Whiteside, who was in command, burned the Prophet's Town, on Rock River, and pursued the Indians up that stream. . . . The Indians were overtaken and badly defeated on Wisconsin River; and the survivors, still retreating northward, were again overtaken near Bad Axe River, on the left bank of the Mississippi. . . . Many of the Indians were shot in the water while trying to swim the stream; others were killed on a little island where they sought refuge. Only about 50 prisoners were taken, and most of these were squaws and children. The dispersion was complete, and the war was soon closed by the surrender or capture of Black Hawk, Keokuk, and other chiefs."—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 4, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: T. Ford, *History of Illinois*, ch. 4-5.—J. B. Patterson, ed., *History of Black Hawk dictated by himself*.—*Wisconsin Historical Society Collections*, v. 10.

**1840-1846.—Settlement and expulsion of Mormons.** See MORMONISM: 1830-1846; 1846-1848.

**1848.—Construction of Illinois and Michigan canal.** See CANALS: American canals: Illinois and Michigan.

**1858.—Senatorial election contest of Lincoln and Douglas.** See U. S. A.: 1858.

**1861-1865.—Participation in Civil War.**—"In the war for the preservation of the Union Illinois was one of the first to respond to the call for men. This again was but natural. It was the home of Lincoln. The people knew the issues. They loved Lincoln and believed in his cause. They responded to his call with every man that could shoulder a gun. Before the struggle was over Illinois gave 259,092 men to the cause of the Union. At that time our population was only 1,712,920. This response was only exceeded by three States, which were much older. New York, with a population of 3,880,595, furnished 448,850 men; Pennsylvania with a population of 2,906,208, furnished 337,936 men; and Ohio, with a population of 2,339,481, furnished 313,180 men. Illinois furnished more men in excess of her quota than did any other Northern State. She furnished 14,596 more men than her quota, while New York furnished 58,298 less than her quota, and Pennsylvania furnished 47,433 less than her quota, and Ohio but 6,858 more than her quota. The records show that during the Civil War there were less men paid commutation for military service from

Illinois than from any other State except Kansas, which of course furnished comparatively few soldiers. During the entire period of the war there were but 55 from Illinois that paid commutation. There were 28,171 from Pennsylvania, 13,197 from New York, 6,479 from Ohio, 5,318 from Massachusetts, and 2,007 from Maine that did so."—Speech of E. E. Denison, *Congressional Record*, July 26, 1916.

ALSO IN: A. C. Cole, *Centennial history of Illinois*, v. 3.

1861-1870.—Constitutional convention.—Defeat of constitution.—Provisions concerning negroes.—"Among the more important acts of the Twenty-second General Assembly was the passage of a law providing for a constitutional convention to frame a new constitution. The election for delegates took place in November, 1861. The convention was composed of seventy-five members, forty-five of whom were Democrats, twenty-one Republicans, seven Fusionists, and two doubtful. . . . The convention assembled on the 7th of January, 1862. . . . This body assumed, in a very large degree, both the powers of the Legislature and convention, and among other extraordinary acts, passed an ordinance appropriating \$500,000 for the benefit of the sick and wounded soldiers of Illinois. Bonds were to be issued on which to raise the money, to bear ten per cent. interest, but Gov. Yates gave no heed to this act, or any other of a like nature, believing, as he did, that the duty of the convention was confined simply to the framing of a new constitution. The constitution framed provided for biennial State elections for all State officers, and legislated out of office the Governor and other State officers, and fixed the time for electing a new State Government for November, 1862. The constitution was submitted to a vote of the people the following June. There were two articles submitted separately; one concerning banks and currency, and the other relating to negroes and mulattoes. The latter we reproduce: 'Article 18. Sec. 1. No negro or mulatto shall migrate to or settle in this State, after the adoption of this Constitution. Sec. 2. No negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage or hold office in this State. Sec. 3. The General Assembly shall pass all laws necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this article.' The vote for the constitution was 126,730; against, 151,254. Majority against the constitution, 24,515. . . . It was contended by some of the leading Democratic lawyers that the article relating to negroes and mulattoes became a part of the constitution of 1848, but the question had not been passed upon by the courts when the constitution of 1870 was adopted."—D. W. Lusk, *Eighty years of Illinois, politics and politicians, anecdotes and incidents*, pp. 142-144.

1861-1901.—Governors.—The governors of Illinois and their terms of office for this period were as follows: Richard Yates, 1861-1865; Richard J. Oglesby, 1865-1869; John M. Palmer, 1869-1873; Richard J. Oglesby, 1873; John L. Beveridge, 1873-1877; Shelby M. Cullom, 1877-1883; John M. Hamilton, 1883-1885; Richard J. Oglesby, 1885-1889; Joseph W. Fifer, 1889-1893; John Peter Altgeld, 1893-1897; and John Riley Tanner, 1897-1901.

1865.—Economic results of Civil War.—Canal transportation.—Growth of factories.—"Modern industry in Illinois is built upon the foundations laid in the tumultuous era of civil strife. The transportation phase was marked by the extension to a point of greater adequacy of rail and water communication. During the war water

transportation again became the great hope of all Illinoisians; they expected to revolutionize transportation facilities by improving the navigation of the Mississippi, Illinois, and Rock rivers and by building a ship canal to the Mississippi. They urged federal aid for the accomplishment of their ends and justified it as necessary to the efficient transportation of supplies and to the triumph of the federal arms. All projects found only local support, however, except as they connected themselves with the proposed ship canal. At first this meant merely the enlarging of the Illinois and Michigan canal so as to end the prevailing low water problems and permit the passage of ships of large draught between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi. The disunion crisis further emphasized the need, in order to reverse the course of trade and direct the products of the upper Mississippi eastward instead of toward the gulf. When war closed the Mississippi below Cairo the need became more definite. In the legislative session of 1861 the general assembly authorized an investigation of the possibility of an enlarged canal; when a favorable report was made appeals were sent to congress for federal aid. The constitutional convention of 1862 unanimously adopted a formal memorial to congress; other memorials were sent in, including one from the Chicago Board of Trade. In February, 1862, Colonel F. P. Blair, Jr., of the committee on military affairs of the house, reported a bill for the enlargement of the canal so that gunboats and other vessels drawing six feet of water might pass from the Mississippi to the lakes. By this time the matter was squarely before congress. Representative Arnold from the Chicago district, a member of the committee on roads and canals, assumed the leadership of the Illinois delegation and made a favorable report to the house. In July, however, the project was killed on a test vote in which the eastern members lined up against the representatives of the west. Governor Yates, not to be thus silenced, then pressed the matter upon the attention of the President; in November he went to Washington for a joint interview in the company of Congressman Arnold. The war department was directed to examine into the practicability of the undertaking; meantime, the canal project was again pressed upon the attention of congress. Eastern selfishness, the canal advocates claimed, was giving force to the movement for the separation of the western from the eastern states and the formation of a northwestern confederacy. Even republican leaders declared that governmental policy was destroying the value of the agricultural products of the west, while manufactured articles from the east doubled and quadrupled in price. This discrimination could be removed by a restoration of the natural exchange of commodities by easy channels of commerce; and the canal was, therefore, a political as well as a military necessity. Governor Yates at the suggestion of western business and farming interests went so far as to send a commission to Canada to arrange for a Canadian route to the seaboard. . . . Industrially, Illinois on the eve of the Civil War showed many frontier survivals; another decade, however, worked out a revolution that brought the state to the threshold of modern industrialism. The extended transportation system was one of the greatest factors in stimulating this progress; the other factors proceeded from the war itself. The war, in bringing high prices for grain and livestock, in bestowing protective duties that far surpassed the rosiest dreams of infant industry, gave a remarkable impetus to

manufacturing industries. Cook county, in 1860, had only 469 manufactories; another decade and this number had more than tripled. In the same period the manufacturing establishments of the state had increased from 4,268 to 12,597 with the value of manufactured products rising from \$57,580,886 to \$205,620,672. The number of operatives employed in the state increased from 5,593 to 82,979. These figures tell the story of a revolution which, after having broken out in England a century before, had irrepressibly swept on and on until it reached the prairies of Illinois. The focusing point of the manufactures as well as of the railroads was Cook county. In 1870, although it contained just one-ninth of the establishments in the state, it listed about one-half of the employees; the industries, therefore, were not only more numerous but were organized on a larger scale. Chicago became a center for the manufacture of iron products, which received special protection under the tariff schedules; in 1860 there were 26 iron works in the city which increased in the decade to over a hundred, including about one quarter of the capital invested in manufacturing. The large output of farm implements and machinery reflected the demand of the agricultural population of the northwest. . . . Wood works to supply the building trades were second in importance followed by combined wood and iron establishments. Brick, stone, metal, and terra cotta works, together with leather plants, and textile factories were important in the industrial development of the city."—A. C. Cole, *Era of the Civil War*, pp. 354-355.

1865-1871.—Legislation for relief of Chicago.—State management of Illinois and Michigan canal.—"On the 8th of October, 1871, a fire broke out in Chicago, which laid that city in ashes and rendered thousands of its citizens helpless and homeless, and the cry for help, immediate help, went forth broadcast throughout the land. [See CHICAGO: 1871.] Two days after, Governor Palmer issued his proclamation convening the Legislature in special session on the 13th of October. . . . The Constitution of 1870 had forbidden all special legislation, and there were grave doubts in the minds of many members as to the power of the Legislature to pass, constitutionally, effective laws for the relief of the city; but the Governor issued a stirring message, and clearly pointed out the way. In 1865, the Legislature had passed an act providing for the completion of the Illinois and Michigan Canal upon the plan adopted by the State in 1836, and entrusted the work to the city of Chicago, under certain conditions, restricting, however, the expenditure to \$2,500,000, which was, ultimately, to be paid, principal and interest, by the State. In this work Chicago had expended the amount limited by the act of 1865, and at this session the General Assembly appropriated a sum sufficient to pay to Chicago the principal and interest, which amounted, in exact figures, to \$2,955,340, on the payment of which the canal was surrendered to the management of the State. This measure brought relief to the stricken city."—D. W. Lusk, *Eighty years of Illinois, politics and politicians, anecdotes and incidents*, pp. 225-226.

1870.—New constitution.—Board of railroad commissioners.—The second constitution of the state had been adopted in 1848. Replacing this, a new constitution was adopted in 1870; this forbade the creation of special corporations by law. At the same time a state board of railway commissioners was created.

1870.—Proportional representation adopted.

See PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION: United States. 1870-1871.—Establishment of system of rates for railways.—Unconstitutionality. See RAILROADS: 1870-1876.

1880.—Origin and reason for formation of National Farmers' Alliance. See NATIONAL FARMERS' ALLIANCE; U. S. A.: 1866-1877.

1892-1893.—World's Columbian exposition at Chicago. See CHICAGO: 1892-1893.

1895.—Creation of industrial arbitration board. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1899.—First juvenile court in Chicago. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.

1900.—Supreme court decisions concerning distribution and ownership of news. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1865-1917.

1901-1921.—Governors.—The governors of the state and their terms for the period 1901-1922, are as follows: Richard Yates, 1901-1905; Charles S. Deneen, 1905-1913; Edward F. Dunne, 1913-1917; Frank O. Lowden, 1917-1921; and Len Small, since 1921.

1902.—Care of deaf and blind children. See CHARITIES: United States: 1874-1902.

1910.—Mining investigation commission.—"It is the opinion of one, who by his official position and practical achievements is recognized to be among the chief mine experts in this country, that the appointment of the Illinois Mining Investigation Commission and the results of its work may prove to be epoch-making in the progress of the mining industry in America. He bases this opinion upon the fact that this is the first government commission invested with full authority and scope to investigate and promote both the industrial and human interests involved in mining; and further that miners and operators are for the first time officially in joint conference and action regarding their common interests in the industry. Other committees and commissions have been limited in scope to special inquiries and specific legislative revisions. Joint conferences over wages, hours and other items of trade agreements are regularly held. But this commission only approaches the all comprehensive functions of the English royal commissions on mining. The federal and state governments have long maintained and greatly developed agricultural departments and experiment stations, railway, waterway, and commerce commissions, but mining has been left to find its own fortuitous way, unaided either by consistent legislation or by any authoritative basis for co-operation in promoting the community of interests which operators, miners and the public have in working the mines. Yet mining involves the lives and safety of a million and a half underground workers and an annual production valued at two billion dollars [1910]: Coal mining employs 700,000 men and produces 500,000,000 tons of coal a year. In Illinois, the coal miners number 70,000 and produce 50,000,000 tons a year. To keep pace with the demand for fuel, the production of coal increased from one ton per capita in 1880 to six tons per capita in 1908. . . . Illinois has done well to set the type of thorough inquiry into the conditions and prospects of mining."—G. Taylor, *Epoch in American mining (Survey, Jan. 29, 1910)*.

1911-1912.—Senator Lorimer's election declared invalid.—"In 1911 occurred . . . the investigation of the charges that in 1910 Senator Lorimer, of Illinois, secured his seat through bribery. An investigation was conducted by the senate, which decided that, although money had been spent, about \$100,000, the beneficiary had



not spent it, and should keep his seat. The verdict did not satisfy the people, who believed that an election secured by bribery should be vacated, even though the man elected had not furnished the money. The party organization in Illinois, with which Lorimer was closely identified, supported Taft, and this caused the president's opponents to say that he associated with the Illinois bribers. The charges against the senator were renewed and in 1912 his election was declared invalid."—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, p. 842.

**1911-1917.—Workmen's Compensation Act.—Some of its provisions.**—"The capstone was placed upon . . . [the] protective arch of labor legislation which had been building during the previous generation by the passage in 1911 of the workmen's compensation act. . . . The passage of the act followed a long agitation and discussion of the subject, in which effective service was rendered by Professor Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago and his coworkers. . . . The first workmen's compensation act of 1911 applied only to certain designated employments, but the new law of 1913 as amended in 1917 has enlarged the list and introduced other improvements. Certain extra hazardous employments are enumerated to which the act applies automatically, such as building, excavating, electrical work, transportation, mining, manufacturing of explosives, and similar dangerous businesses. Employers engaged in other industries may elect to come within the provisions of the act. In the case of accidents to employees of all such employers, resulting in death or disability, certain fixed compensations are provided. The administration of the law is intrusted to an industrial board. For the calendar year 1915 the total amount paid as compensation in 16,869 accidents amounted to \$1,292,735. . . . Provision is made for apprenticing children until they arrive at the age of sixteen. Barbers and horseshoers must secure certificates of registration from boards of examiners created for this purpose. Convict labor shall not be employed so as to compete with free labor; but convicts may be employed in manufacture of road material and machinery and under certain circumstances may be employed on the public roads. Eight hours shall constitute a legal day's work, where there is no agreement to the contrary. The wages of a head of a family to the amount of fifteen dollars per week shall be exempt from garnishment; this was an increase from eight dollars. The pay of mechanics and miners shall constitute a first lien upon property for materials or service furnished. Wages shall be paid in bankable currency, in full on pay day, and in the case of corporations for pecuniary profit such pay days shall be at least semimonthly."—E. L. Bogart and J. M. Mathews, *Centennial history of Illinois*, v. 5, pp. 187-189.

**1913.—Woman suffrage.—Public utilities commission.—Unemployment commission.—Ratification of sixteenth and seventeenth amendments.**—"The partial right to vote was granted to women by the legislature; because of the constitutional difficulty of submitting a full suffrage amendment to the people, the women were given only the right to vote for presidential electors and for all state and local officers whose election was now limited to men by the state constitution. A bill establishing a state public utilities commission was passed after a keen contest between "home rule" and state control advocates; Governor Dunne and the Chicago representatives favored provision for a part of the commission to be devoted en-

tirely to Chicago, but this feature was eliminated by the legislature. A state commission was created to study the causes and effects of unemployment. The sixteenth, or income tax, amendment to the Federal constitution was ratified by Illinois on March 1 and the seventeenth, providing for direct election of senators, on February 13.

**1916.—Manufacturers' Association.**—"The Illinois Manufacturers' Association is about 20 years old. It numbers between 2,000 and 3,000 members. It reaches out from the great city by the lake down through the State of Illinois. The requirement for membership in that organization, as I understand it, is that the person seeking membership be a manufacturer, no matter how small, and most of them are small manufacturers, and they pay an annual fee of \$25. The organization exists, as I understand it, for the purpose of promoting the manufacturing industries of the great State of Illinois, for the purpose of looking after credits, better transportation, better and more efficient business methods, and for the purpose of developing and promoting the industries of Illinois. Not long ago representatives of this great organization visited the Republics of South America, promoting there the trade interests of the United States and calling attention to the goods we manufacture in the State of Illinois. Since this organization was perfected and commenced its work Illinois has forged rapidly to the front as a manufacturing State, until to-day [1916] we are the third State in the Union in point of manufactures. Five hundred thousand skilled workmen are employed in the factories of Illinois, more than in any other State except New York and Pennsylvania, and we pay out to the wage earners in those factories in Illinois over \$300,000,000 per year. No State has increased as fast as has Illinois the wages of the men who work in her factories. To-day in 20,000 manufacturing establishments distributed through the great State I have the honor to represent in part here we turn out every year over \$2,000,000,000 worth of manufactured products. Farming lands in Illinois are worth to-day more per acre than in any other State in the Union, and Illinois is our greatest agricultural State."—H. T. Rainey, *Congressional Record*, Apr. 27, 1916.

**1916.—Budget system.**—"Power of legislature in taxation of personal property. See BUDGET: Illinois budget system; STATE GOVERNMENT: 1913-1921.

**1917.—State administration.**—"Illinois surprised itself in the passage, by the practically unanimous vote of both houses of the legislature, of the act consolidating the civil administration of the state government in nine departments. . . . The act abolishes or consolidates no less than 128 boards and commissions and 300 official positions or jobs having salaries aggregating \$400,000, and combines all their functions in the nine departments of finance, agriculture, labor, mines and minerals, public works and buildings, public welfare, public health, trade and commerce, registration and education. At the head of each department there will be a director, assistant director and other officials with functions specialized in accordance with its work. In addition to these paid officials an unpaid advisory and non-executive board is provided for each of six departments. All these appointive positions are to be filled by the appointments of the governor, with the consent of the Senate for a period of four years. The classified civil service is protected by a provision that nothing in the act shall be construed to amend, modify or repeal the state civil service

law and by another requiring that every civil service employee in the classified list at the time this act takes effect shall be assigned to a position having so far as possible duties equivalent to his former office or employment. While those connected with the branches of work that have been consolidated in the several departments will be thus protected, those whose functions have been abolished may be dropped. The extent and outworking of the changes thus introduced are well illustrated in the newly created Department of Public Welfare. It will combine not only the State Board of Administration hitherto controlling all the state charitable institutions and the State Charities Commission, but also the separate boards hitherto managing the several penal and reformatory institutions which have never been under any centralized control or supervision, except the governor's authority over his appointees and their management. The purchasing and contracting function, however, is hereafter to be exercised for all departments by the Department of Public Works and Buildings. The director, at a salary of \$7,000, and an assistant director at \$4,000, an alienist, criminologist, physical supervisor, superintendent of pardons and paroles at \$5,000 each, constitute the staff of the Department of Public Welfare appointed by the governor, who in turn holds the director responsible for the appointments of the wardens, superintendents and other officials not included in the classified civil service. All these executive officers are supplemented by an advisory and non-executive Board of Public Welfare Commissioners composed of five persons. Its functions are to investigate the condition and management of the whole system of charitable, penal and reformatory institutions of the state, including jails and almshouses, not only upon request but at its own initiative; likewise to inquire into the equipment, management and policies of all institutions and organizations, charitable and correctional. It is authorized, at request and on its own initiative, to report and recommend to executive officers of the department, the governor and the General Assembly, and also to collect and publish annually statistics relating to insanity and crime. The Department of Labor combines the prerogatives hitherto exercised by the commissioners of labor, the management of the free employment offices, the inspection of private employment agencies, the state factory inspectors, the Board of Arbitration and Conciliation and the Industrial Board, which has operated the workmen's compensation act. In addition to the director and assistant director of labor, a chief factory inspector, superintendent of free employment offices, chief inspector of private employment agencies and five industrial officers are provided, besides an advisory board of five members for the state free employment offices and a similar board for each local free employment office established by the state. On these boards two members represent labor, two the employing interests and one the general public. The other departments are organized with similar regard to their functions. The department of finance, however, is given very large powers to unify, standardize and direct the bookkeeping, accounting and reporting of the several departments and to prepare a state budget, including exhaustive statements of revenues and expenditures for the two years preceding those covered by the budget. Each department, office and institution is required to file estimates of receipts and expenditures for the ensuing two years, accompanied by a written statement giving facts and explanation of reasons for each item of

expenditure requested. The state budget thus prepared is to be submitted to the governor and recommended by him to the general assembly."—*Illinois' reorganized state service (Survey, Mar. 10, 1917)*.

1918.—Part played in World War.—The total number of men furnished by Illinois during the World War was 251,074, or 6.68 per cent of the entire expeditionary forces. When the government asked the farmers of the country to increase their wheat acreage, fourteen per cent of the total winter-wheat increase came from Illinois.

1918.—Organization of labor party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1921.

1919.—Outline of blue sky law. See BLUE SKY LAWS: Illinois law.

1919-1920.—Amendments ratified.—Waterway from Great Lakes to Gulf.—The state ratified the eighteenth (prohibition) amendment, January 14, 1919, Illinois, which had been the first to ratify the amendment abolishing slavery, was also the first to ratify the woman suffrage amendment, June 10, 1919. Interests in the state for some years had favored a deep water canal. When Chicago completed the drainage canal as far as Lockport, it was with a view to a deep canal to St. Louis, constructed by the government. The law provided that the drainage canal would be enlarged and transferred to the government when the latter improved the Illinois and Desplains rivers. It was estimated that a fourteen foot cut from Lockport, the end of the drainage canal, to the mouth of the Illinois river would cost \$23,500,000.

1920-1921.—Constitutional convention.—Conflict of interests.—Long recess.—"The Illinois constitutional convention, after nearly a year of floundering, has taken a long recess, leaving the people of the state, who expected so much from this body, in doubt as to whether it will ever submit anything that will meet with the approval of the voters. The convention met in January, 1920, and was in session most of the time until July, when it took a recess until November. After reconvening, and remaining in session for a few weeks, another recess was taken until September, 1921. . . . The subjects arousing the most controversy were those of revenue, limitation of Chicago's representation in the legislature, and the initiative and referendum. Many citizens of Illinois confidently expected that the convention would authorize a provision for the classification of property for purposes of taxation. The majority refused, however, to give sanction to this idea, but voted to leave in the constitution the requirement for the taxation of all property according to the rule of uniformity. The draft as approved in committee of the whole does stipulate, however, that there may be an income tax on intangible property as a substitute for other forms of taxation of such property. There is provision also for a graduated, progressive income tax with the proviso that the highest rate shall not be more than four times the lowest rate. At the time the delegates were elected, the *Hearst* newspapers of Chicago were instrumental in securing a popular vote on the question as to whether the proposed new constitution should contain initiative and referendum provisions. The vote on this question was favorable in the state at large, including Chicago. The proposition failed to carry, however, in the part of the state outside of Chicago. When the principle of the initiative and referendum was rejected several members left saying they would not return, and the *Hearst* papers announced that the convention was dead. After bitter debate, the

majority of the committee of the whole voted for drastic limitations upon Chicago's representation in both houses of the state legislature. Thereupon some of the Chicago members withdrew; others resigned committee memberships and announced that they would perform no more work so long as the attitude of the convention should remain what it was upon the question of limiting Chicago's representation. The Chicago members, while contending for the principle of equality of representation in both houses of the legislature, stood willing to accept as a compromise some limitation in one house. While the convention contains some able advocates of the short ballot principle, the majority of the body is opposed to any move in favor of a shorter ballot. The provision concerning counties, as tentatively approved, though awkward in form, holds out hope for substantial progress in county government. After repeating various restrictions of the existing constitution that interfere with intelligent legislative action regarding counties, the proposal stipulates that notwithstanding such provisions the legislature may enact laws uniform as to classes of counties for the organization and government of counties, which shall become effective when approved on local referendum. The convention approved the idea of giving Chicago broad constitutional home rule powers, with the right to frame and adopt its own charter. However, it refused to give home rule charter making powers to other cities of the state. There are provisions intended to authorize the consolidation of the governments of Chicago and Cook county, but it is doubtful whether in their present form they will serve their purpose. There are provisions about zoning and excess condemnation that are held to be fairly satisfactory. One interesting provision approved by the committee of the whole is that intended to give cities additional borrowing powers for the acquisition of local public utilities. The present constitution limits debts to 5 per cent of the assessed valuation of the taxable property. The proposal in question aims to authorize an additional indebtedness for municipal ownership purposes of 15 per cent of the value of the real estate. This additional debt-incurring power is accompanied by the condition, however, that the rates charged by municipally owned utilities shall be high enough to make the property self-sustaining."—*Notes and events (National Municipal Review, Feb., 1921, pp. 104-105)*.—This constitution was rejected by the voters.

1922.—Coal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Nation wide coal strike.

ALSO IN: C. W. Alvord, *Illinois country*.—N. Bateman, *Illinois, historical*.—G. Humphre, *Illinois, the story of the prairie state*.—J. Moses, *Illinois, historical and statistical*.—H. Davison and B. Stuve, *Complete history of Illinois*.—I. F. Mather, *Making of Illinois*.—L. E. Robinson and I. Moore, *History of Illinois*.—R. L. Schuyler, *Transition in Illinois from British to American government*.—S. Eldridge, *Social legislation in Illinois*.—W. F. and S. H. Dodd, *Government of Illinois*.—E. Freund, *New constitution for Illinois (New Republic, Dec. 13, 1922)*.

ILLINOIS, American unarmed vessel sunk by German submarine during the World War. See U. S. A.: 1917 (February-April).

ILLINOIS AND MIAMIS.—"Passing the country of the Lenape and the Shawanoes, and descending the Ohio, the traveller would have found its valley chiefly occupied by two nations, the Miamis or Twightwees, on the Wabash and its branches, and the Illinois, who dwelt in the neighborhood of the river to which they have

given their name, while portions of them extended beyond the Mississippi. Though never subjugated, as were the Lenape, both the Miamis and the Illinois were reduced to the last extremity by the repeated attacks of the Five Nations; and the Illinois, in particular, suffered so much by these and other wars, that the population of ten or twelve thousand, ascribed to them by the early French writers, had dwindled, during the first quarter of the eighteenth century, to a few small villages."—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac, ch. 1*.—See also ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; CANADA: 1669-1687.

ILLINOIS AND MICHIGAN CANAL. See CANALS: American; Illinois and Michigan canal.

ILLINOIS CENTRAL RAILROAD. See RAILROADS: 1850-1860; 1921: Twenty rail, etc.

ILLITERACY. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Evening schools; General education: Russia; United States: Illiteracy; AMERICANIZATION: Effect of World War; INDIA: 1835-1922; IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1910-1920.

ILLUMINATED MANUSCRIPTS. See BIBLE: Sources; Modern biblical research; BOOKS: Books in medieval times; EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

ILLUMINATI, name of secret society in Germany during the eighteenth century. See ROSICRUCIANS.

ILLYRIA, ILLYRIANS.—Illyria is the region extending from northwestern Greece and the eastern shores of the Adriatic to the Danube. "Northward of the tribes called Epirotic lay those more numerous and widely extended tribes who bore the general name of Illyrians, bounded on the west by the Adriatic, on the east by the mountain-range of Skardus, the northern continuation of Pindus, and thus covering what is now called Middle and Upper Albania, together with the more northerly mountains of Montenegro, Herzegovina, and Bosnia. Their limits to the north and northeast cannot be assigned. . . . Appian and others consider the Liburnians and Istrians as Illyrian, and Herodotus even includes under that name the Eneti or Veneti at the extremity of the Adriatic Gulf. . . . The Illyrians generally were poor, rapacious, fierce and formidable in battle. They shared with the remote Thracian tribes the custom of tattooing their bodies and of offering human sacrifices: moreover, they were always ready to sell their military service for hire, like the modern Albanian Schkipetars, in whom probably their blood yet flows, though with considerable admixture from subsequent immigrations. Of the Illyrian kingdom on the Adriatic coast, with Skodra (Scutari) for its capital city, which became formidable by its reckless piracies in the third century B.C., we hear nothing in the flourishing period of Grecian history."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, v. 3, pt. 2, ch. 25*.—See also ALBANIA: Early history; Name and the people; BALKAN STATES: Races existing.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk. 8, ch. 6*.

B.C. 336.—Conquest by Alexander the Great. See GREECE: B.C. 336-335.

4th century.—Union with Dalmatia.—Location and extent. See DALMATIA: B.C. 1st-A.D. 6th centuries; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map showing barbaric migrations.

Middle Ages. See ALBANIA: Medieval period. 1807.—Settlement of boundaries by Treaty of Fontainebleau. See FRANCE: 1807-1808 (August-November).

1809.—Inclusion of Dalmatia. See DALMATIA: 1797-1814.

1809-1815.—Provinces of Napoleon.—Yielded to Austria by Congress of Vienna. See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September); JUGO-SLAVIA: 1807-1835; AUSTRIA: 1815-1846; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF. 1812.—Extent. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

ILLYRIAN PROVINCES, formed by Napoleon in 1809 from Austrian cessions. They comprised Istria, Fiume, Carniola, Dalmatia, Trieste, Görz, Gradisca, and parts of Croatia and Carinthia. See GERMANY: 1809 (July-September); JUGO-SLAVIA: 1807-1835; DALMATIA: 1797-1814.

ILLYRICUM OF THE ROMANS.—“The provinces of the Danube soon acquired the general appellation of Illyricum, or the Illyrian frontier, and were esteemed the most warlike of the empire; but they deserve to be more particularly considered under the names of Rætia, Noricum, Pannonia, Dalmatia, Dacia, Mæsia, Thrace, Macedonia, and Greece. . . . Dalmatia, to which the name of Illyricum more properly belonged, was a long but narrow tract, between the Save and the Adriatic. . . . The inland parts have assumed the Sclavonian names of Croatia and Bosnia.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 1.—See also ROME: 394-395.

ILOILO, capital of the province of the same name in the Philippine islands. It is located on the island of Panay and was taken by the Americans in 1899, during the Spanish American War. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1899: Armed opposition, etc.

ILORIN, capital of Nigeria in West Africa. See AFRICA: Modern: Chronology: 1897.

IMAGE-BREAKING IN THE NETHERLANDS. See NETHERLANDS: 1566.

IMAGE WORSHIP. See IDOLATRY AND IMAGE WORSHIP.

IMAGE WORSHIP CONTROVERSY. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY.

IMAMS, IMAMATE.—“When an assembly of Moslems meet together for prayer, an Imam is chosen, who leads the prayer, and the congregation regulate their motions by his, prostrating themselves when he does so, and rising when he rises. In like manner, the khalif is set up on high as the Imam, or leader of the Faithful, in all the business of life. . . . Among strict Moslems, it is a doctrine that Islam has been administered by only four veritable Imams,—the ‘rightly-guided khalifs,’—Abou Bekr, Omar, Othman, and Ali. But the Muhammadan world, in general, was not so exacting.”—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Khalifs of Baghdad*, pt. 3, ch. 1.—Among the Shiites, the term applies to the twelve legitimate successors of Ali.—See also SHIITES; ULEMA.

IMBECILES, Education of. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, etc.; Feeble minded.

IMBROS, island in the Ægean sea. In 1920 it was put under Greek control. See ÆGEAN; GREECE: 1918-1920; SÈVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part III: Political clauses: Greece.

IMECOURT, village in France, south of Sedan. During the World War it was taken by the Americans. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 10.

IMERETIA, or Imeritia, region in Transcaucasia. See CAUCASUS: Ethnology; 1801-1877.

IMGUR-BEL, name of one of the walls of Babylon. See BABYLON: Nebuchadrezzar, etc.

IMMACULATE CONCEPTION OF THE VIRGIN MARY, Promulgation of the dogma of. See PAPACY: 1854.

IMMÆ, Battle of (217). See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

## IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION

Migration.—“Emigration and immigration, as we understand them, are phenomena of modern life. Of course, from the beginning of human history there have been migrations of men. In early times these consisted of movements of whole tribes in a career of conquest and differed radically from emigration which is a movement of individuals. A second sort of migration began with the discovery of America and of the new route to India around the Cape of Good Hope and may be called colonization. The newly discovered countries were utilized at first merely for the purpose of booty and afterwards for the establishment of trading posts or factories. . . . The value of these colonies was almost entirely commercial. The planters received their capital and supplies from the home country and naturally disposed of their products and made their purchases there. . . . The colony was no real outlet for surplus population. A second class of colonies differed radically from these. They were the agricultural colonies or plantations where people came for the purpose of settling and cultivating the soil. These persons expatriated themselves with the intention of making their permanent home in the new country. They did not intend merely to trade with the natives or to superintend servile labor, but to build up a community which should be self-supporting and which should after a while enjoy the same civilization as the mother country. . . . It is not too much to say that the colonial expansion of the seventeenth and the eighteenth century changed the whole aspect of the world. . . . The extension of colonies established the world commerce and

brought the products of the whole earth to the inhabitants of Europe; it magnified the scale of things tenfold. Even when the colonies in America rebelled against England and Spain and established themselves as independent nations, the results were not lost. The trade still remained, and also the language, customs and habits of life. The civilization of the new world was simply a new European civilization and the expansion of Europe still went on. It is true that it was no longer an expansion of particular nations. The wanderers from Europe, if they went to the United States or to South America, gave up their home connection. But they still went principally to a country where either their language was spoken or the people were of a kindred race. . . . [But with the separation of the colonies from the parent countries, the political aspect of this movement of peoples changed.] The state which sends out its citizens is no longer transplanting them to another part of its own dominion, but is giving them up to a foreign nation. The migrations of the nineteenth century are not colonization, but emigration. This new movement is peculiar to the nineteenth century and has grown in intensity until it has become an important phenomenon of social life.”—R. Mayo-Smith, *Emigration and immigration*, pp. 12-15.

European problems of emigration.—The question of immigration is of vital importance, and as much to the self-governing dominions of the British empire as to the other nations of the new world. Conversely, emigration is a problem which has had to be faced and grappled with by the

older nations which have supplied the populations which now commence to teem in the new world, and provide the heterogeneity which is one of the most vexing problems that confront modern statesmen. "In the past fifty years [written in 1905] about nine million natives of the United Kingdom have emigrated to foreign lands, over two-thirds of these having gone to places other than British colonies. Add to these the three million foreigners who have tarried in the United Kingdom for more or less time and then departed, and we have a total emigration from the British Isles alone of about twelve million people. . . . Last year about 50,000 emigrants went to South Africa, about the same number went to Australia, and 75,000 were added to the population of Canada. . . . The emigration from France has been barely a quarter of a million people in fifty years, and the annual exodus is now less than six thousand. These people go to the United States or to Argentina. France is deeply concerned, however, in emigration matters, owing to the fact that her territory is a great highway for those coming from countries to the east and to the south. . . . Germany is largely in the same category as France, and her interest in emigration as an international question is along much the same lines. Last year Germany lost less than 25,000 of her native-born through emigration, but a quarter of a million people from countries to the east and south crossed her territory, and embarked from German ports for other lands. [See also GERMANY: 1881-1913.] There is no immigration into Spain, but 60,000 of her citizens left that country last year to take up their residence elsewhere. Most of these people went to Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina, and by their going created a dearth of labour in many agricultural districts to the end that production was checked or made unprofitable. . . . [In 1904] Italy recorded a movement of 530,000 people from her territory, and while perhaps 40 per cent. of these returned after a short absence, the net loss to her population represents a serious blow to her commerce and industry. Nearly half a million people moved out of Russia . . . [in the same year] and from this movement has arisen the serious problem . . . [which confronted England] in immigration matters, and which . . . [was] shared to a certain extent by the United States. . . . The Government of Italy maintains a close supervision over departing emigrants, attempts to restrain the soliciting of transportation business, and will not allow the conduct of emigrant traffic to countries not desirable as places of residence for Italian citizens. While avowedly restrictive in its intent, the Italian law is far from effective in keeping people at home; for the cause of the emigration lies deeper in the economics of the country. . . . For years England has been a sort of clearing-house for undesirable emigration to the United States from many countries. Many emigrants rejected for passage at Continental ports found it easier to get to England than to return to their homes. The enormous alien and British emigrant traffic from British ports has resulted in the refuse being left upon British soil. The greater number of deportations from the United States are returned to England, even though they may have come originally from other foreign countries. The effect of this upon British population is almost indescribable. Charitable institutions, prisons, and hospitals are crowded with aliens, and some of the trades are so burdened with this low grade of labour that the British workman is driven out. . . . The European countries of the Continent have given forth over 20,000,000 of their popu-

lation to contribute to the building up of the North American communities. In earlier years the movement was from Germany, Scandinavia, Denmark, Holland, and France, and a majority of the emigrants were of a class welcome in any part of the world, especially where thrift, industry, and intelligence were needed to develop a new country. As opportunity for other than manual work grew less in the United States, as the arable free land disappeared and, indeed, as the supply of the adventurous, intelligent emigrants became exhausted in the countries of origin, the movement subsided, but only for a short time. The people of other nations, such as Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia, discovering that it was easy to get to America, and learning that conditions were far more favourable there than at home, then began to move. . . . At first, little was done in Europe to put a stop to the tremendous loss of population which was threatened, except to demand that every citizen should perform his military service before leaving. Emigrant traffic had in the mean time become a most profitable business. Great fleets of vessels were operated by reason of it, and competition for passengers reached the point where it became absolutely necessary, in the interests of humanity as well as public policy, to put some restraint upon the energy and enterprise of the ticket-sellers, and to check, if possible, the exodus of labourers. Police regulations were found entirely inadequate to cope with the situation. In 1860 France adopted a law which required a license for the conduct of emigration business, and imposed some regulation upon shipping in the interest of the emigrant. In 1876 Belgium adopted a law containing the same provisions as the French measure, but more elaborate as to detail. . . . In 1888 Switzerland enacted a law which . . . has served as a model for the law-makers of other countries in framing similar legislation. Indiscriminate ticket-selling was stopped by providing for a limited number of agencies. . . . To urge a Swiss citizen to emigrate was made a crime under the law, and many similar provisions were rigorously enforced, to the end that emigration should be free from any artificial stimulus. . . . An agent is forbidden to forward any person without a passport and identification paper, or any person who cannot be admitted to the country of destination. . . . The Swiss law was drawn with the purpose of making emigration difficult for Swiss citizens. It was also framed so as not to interfere with the large and profitable emigration movement across Switzerland from other countries, but in such a manner as to hold those who handled it responsible for every action detrimental to the Swiss people. Heavy bonds were exacted, and severe fines and penalties were provided, for all violations of the law or Government regulations. . . . Up to 1897 Germany controlled emigration more by police regulation than in any other way. The performance of military service was the test of the right of a German citizen to leave his country. Thousands of emigrants evaded the law, and thus voluntarily exiled themselves. It was not until the great mass of German emigration recorded of the past fifty years had crossed the border, that the German Government took cognizance of the possibility of holding this movement in check, and devised a measure dealing with the question in a more scientific manner. . . . In brief, the law forbids the emigration of a German citizen who has not fulfilled the requirements of his military obligation, places the regulation of emigration agencies under special Government officials appointed for that purpose, and affords every

emigrant sailing from a German port full protection and safety through shipping regulations, and fines and penalties for agents who fail to live up to contracts made for transportation. . . . The emigration of German citizens has decreased of late years, so much so that . . . [about 1905 only between 30,000 and 40,000 were] leaving the country annually. American statistics would indicate a larger movement than this, but many German-speaking residents of other European countries . . . [were] accredited to the German Empire by reason of racial origin. . . . In 1901 [a new] Italian emigration law went into effect. Over 2,000,000 citizens had left that country for the United States in the preceding twenty-five years, and some sections of Southern Italy had become almost depopulated through this exodus. Bad economic conditions were responsible for the beginnings of this movement, but encouragement from those who had emigrated, and the activity of ticket agents in persuading others to follow, increased the departure from year to year, until something in the nature of a crisis was reached. For many years money has been sent from the United States to Italy to assist emigration. . . . [In 1904] nearly 25,000,000 dollars was remitted by Italians in America, and most of this money was for the purpose stated. The Italian emigration law is drawn with the intent of meeting all of these conditions so far as is possible. . . . The Italian law to all intents and purposes puts the business of emigrant transportation into the hands of the Government. . . . The business is under constant and minute inspection by Government officials with almost unlimited power. No citizen can lawfully emigrate without the Government being fully aware of his intention and giving permission for him to go. Agents are not allowed to solicit business or to advertise. Emigrants can only go to countries where conditions meet with the approval of the Italian Government. . . . In 1903 the Government of Hungary, a country which . . . [suffered] almost equally with Italy a great loss of population through emigration, put into force a restrictive law. . . . In the other Northern European countries, Holland, Denmark, and Scandinavia, emigration is carefully watched and controlled by Government authorities, to the end that the laws of the respective countries shall be observed in the matter of departures, and the emigrants themselves fully protected in their dealings with transportation agents and ship-owners. In Spain and Portugal the regulation of emigration is largely a police function, the enforcement of military service being almost the sole reason for any restraint upon the outward movement of population. . . . England is [1905] the only European country in which immigration restriction has become an economic necessity, and is, in consequence, a live political issue. On the other hand, notwithstanding the great loss to the population annually through emigration, England is practically the only European country which does not . . . place considerable restraint upon citizens contemplating departure."—J. D. Whelpley, *Problem of the immigrant*, pp. 11-14, 18, 26-39.

ALSO IN: K. L. Roberts, *Why Europe leaves home*.

Extent of European emigration from 1894 to 1921.—"For twenty years up to the outbreak of war, [there was] an exodus from Europe on an enormous scale. Emigrants from the United Kingdom to the United States were only half the number of Italians, Austro-Hungarians, or Russians. The total average annual immigration into

the United States for the decade preceding the war exceeded a million, the United Kingdom's proportion being between 9 and 10 per cent, or nearly 100,000 per annum. It must be added that the emigration from . . . [England] was greater than ever, but the British Dominions, by dint of advertised inducements to settlers, had succeeded in diverting the stream of emigration to their own shores. Taking the year 1912-13, Canada, the Argentine, and Brazil were attracting emigrants in considerable numbers. The total received by these countries and the United States together was nearly 2,000,000 persons. 'It is probable that emigrants from Russia, Austria-Hungary, and the Balkans did not fall far short of 800,000, whilst Italy, Spain, and Portugal contributed about 700,000. The number of persons who emigrated westwards from the United Kingdom was about 250,000, mostly to Canada. In the same year the Argentine Republic admitted 166,000 Spaniards, 81,000 Italians, 7,000 Austro-Hungarians, 3,000 British, and 66,000 of other nationalities; a total of 323,000. Brazilian immigration consisted of 112,000 Spaniards and Portuguese, 32,000 Italians, 1,000 from the United Kingdom, and 35,000 unclassified immigrants, a total of 180,000. Canada was favoured by 139,000 Americans who crossed the border, and 263,000 Europeans, being 151,000 from the United Kingdom, 22,000 Austro-Hungarians, 21,000 Russians, 17,000 Italians and 52,000 unclassified—a total of 402,000 persons. . . . A marked change occurred in the destination of British migrants after the year 1900. 'Whereas in the period 1891-1900 only 28 per cent went to the British Dominions and the remainder to foreign countries, principally the United States, in the period from 1901-1912, 63 per cent migrated to places within the Empire. In 1913 this proportion increased to 78 per cent.' . . . The emigrants from Europe are usually classified into groups. . . . These emigrants were from Russia (excluding Finland), Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, France, Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and Rumania. With the exception of the small numbers from Holland, Belgium, France, and Switzerland, all had to pass through or evade the Control Stations. . . . The excess of emigrants over immigrants last year was 118,938, compared with 172,747 in 1920, and 241,997 in 1913. More remarkable are the comparative figures for the first half of 1922, when, despite schemes introduced by the Imperial and Dominion Governments to assist emigration and land settlement, the excess was only 22,000, compared with 61,375, and 157,779 respectively in the corresponding periods of 1921 and 1913."—D. W. Caddick, *Effect of emigration on shipping prosperity* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial*, Nov. 16, 1922).

Post-war regulation of European emigration.—"The peace treaties have had a profound effect upon emigration policies. . . . Before the war, [World War] if the emigrant could meet the prescribed standards of immigration countries, he proceeded with little formality, after his own fashion, to the country of his choice. Now he is hampered and delayed, if not forbidden to leave, by his native country. He is inspected and disinfected, if not denied entry, by transit countries. He is accepted or rejected, according to a new and strange valuation, by immigration countries. For this attention he pays a high tax to each Government. . . . The conception of the emigrant, so exclusively as a possible economic asset or liability, to be made the object of calculating competition between States, has greatly intensified the problem for emigration countries,

like Russia, the Baltic States, Poland, Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Jugoslavia, Italy, Rumania, or Bulgaria. Each of these countries other than Russia and Italy, is at the same time an emigration, immigration, and transit country. . . . The new European policies are the 'outgrowth of the hard experiences of the war. Governments, careless of man-power, have learnt the value of its intelligent conservation, so the protection of the emigrant everywhere assumes new importance. That he may wander away at will, not to be heard from again, to enrich another country, is unthinkable. Instead appear regulations that prohibit in every form the recruiting of settlers and of workers, and the stimulation of emigration. Agencies of steamship lines are abolished, and advertising prohibited. . . . Idle is the boast of new countries that they intend to 'skim the cream of Europe' to advance their prosperity. . . . Official information offices, labour contracts, and a more precise knowledge of the situation make such undertaking impossible, except the Government itself is a party to them. . . . No steamship line may sell tickets unless it guarantees his safety, comfort, and care, according to nationalist specifications, during the entire journey. Convoys are required to accompany emigrants over the rail journey. Disinfection plants and lodging-houses must be maintained according to prescribed standards. Conditions on board vessels, their arrangement, outfitting, and provisioning must be satisfactory. Emigrants may no longer work for their passage. Doctors, commissioners, and observers are detailed on board to see that the regulations are enforced and heavy penalties are imposed for violations. . . . There seems to be a new sense of the dignity of the emigrant, due probably to his improved position since the war. With the equalization of classes, the better distribution of such wealth as exists and of land, and with increased political power of the peasants such things as the steerage and an Ellis Island are coming to be regarded as aspects of barbarism. . . . Before the war the direct and positive benefits of emigration accrued largely to the country of destination. It selected the strong and the fit, rejected the weak, deported the failures, and profited by a head tax, visé charges, and the cash on hand required of the immigrant—to the extent of many hundreds of thousands of pounds a year. Each adult emigrant was raised, educated, and fitted for his work in the new country at no cost whatever to it—an enormous saving. . . . The emigrant now pays to his native country, in fees and taxation, for the privilege of leaving, quite as much as he does to the country he enters. To balance the emigrants' account, nationals of immigration countries are heavily taxed to travel in Europe. Steamship lines, through various assessments on their emigration business, are a profitable source of income. . . . The exchange of emigrant traffic for trade privileges has been effected between certain countries. . . . It is, therefore, not surprising to find emigration countries reaching the conclusion that indiscriminate mass emigration is a wasteful and short-sighted way to solve their internal racial and economic problems. So the Russian famine has not been followed by an inundation of Europe, because forbidden by Russia and obstructed by neighbouring countries. So, also, widespread unemployment has not filled the quotas of immigrants permitted to enter the United States from countries in which it is most prevalent; nor has Austria, in her great need, turned to emigration as a remedy."—F. Kellor, *Emigration policies of the*

*chief European states (Manchester Guardian Commercial, Nov. 16, 1922).*

ALSO IN: C. S. Johnson, *Emigration from the United Kingdom to North America.*

Italian emigration.—"Emigration from Italy belongs among the extraordinary movements of mankind. In its chief lineaments it has no like. Through the number of men it has involved and the courses it has pursued, through its long continuance on a great scale and its rôle in other lands, it stands alone. . . . It is certain that the modern emigration of Italians was well under way long before the official collection of statistics was undertaken. . . . Duval gives occasional figures for the transoceanic emigration of this earlier period. . . . In the years 1835-1842, he says, 7894 Sardinians arrived at Montevideo; in 1856, 2738 Sardinians sailed for Buenos Aires; in June, 1860, there were 12,755 Italians in Algeria; and so forth. In these years, as the American figures show, few Italians came into the United States. When Correnti, in 1858, published a compilation of many sorts of Italian statistics, he estimated that some 30,000 Italians were living in South America. 'In these last months an Italian colony was venturesomely planted in Mexico, a mere sapling on the shore of a turbulent sea.' Italian laborers, he said, were in Switzerland, Belgium, and England. In France there were 63,000, chiefly seamen, soldiers, and workmen 'many of them among the most intelligent silk workers of the Lyons mills.' . . . In Italy this early emigration appears not to have roused much attention. Serious enough problems of other sorts pressed for solution. Besides, the impulse, though imminent, was yet to come, which would swell the streamlet to the proportions of a flood. From 1860 on, our knowledge begins to be more precise. Leone Carpi, perhaps fairly to be regarded as the first Italian to study broadly the emigration of his people, wrote, 'Numerous provinces which before 1860 made no contribution to the stream sent contingents, from 1861 to 1869, which were annually larger.' . . . Indeed, by the end of this decade (if not earlier, for no figures apply before 1869) more than a hundred thousand Italians per year were quitting their country, and the proportion to her population was already such as to place Italy beside Germany as a land of emigration. . . . The total number of recorded emigrants for the thirty-one years 1876-1914 is about fourteen million. In both the overseas emigration and the European a great growth has taken place. The quinquennium 1886-90 marks a turning point; while the total emigration increased much, that into Europe changed slightly, and for the first time in its career was surpassed by the American current. . . . In the quarter century that has since elapsed, the emigration into America has apparently remained in excess of that into Europe. In 1901 there was a sharp bound in the movement. The new level was virtually maintained until 1905, when another bound occurred, chiefly in the overseas emigration; and in 1913 the new level was in turn exceeded. . . . The new exodus was still proceeding when the shock came of the outbreak of the European war. Promptly, on August 6, 1914, a royal decree suspended the emigration of all men of military age. . . . What with the restrictions upon the issuance of passports, the dangers to navigation, and the suspension of the steamship service, the great movement of Italian emigration, caught almost at its zenith, was violently brought to a stop. Consider now the figures for emigration into the principal countries of Europe. . . . Austria-Hungary, France,

Switzerland, Germany. . . . Into each of these countries emigration has been much greater than into any other country of Europe. For each it averaged about 54,000 persons a year in 1901-05. From 1876 to 1885 the emigration into European countries was greatest into France; from 1886 to 1900, greatest into Austria-Hungary. Before 1900 the emigration into Hungary was about half that into Austria; since, it has run one-tenth to one-fourth. Emigration into France reached its lowest point in 1896; so sensitively does the barometer of emigration register a period of strained relations. In 1901 the emigration into France suddenly sprang to a new level, which it has maintained. From the middle eighties to 1905 the average annual emigration into Switzerland has, roughly speaking, doubled with each quinquennium; in subsequent years this emigration has been greater than that into any other country of Europe. Since 1890 emigration into Germany has progressed similarly, but not to such heights. . . . In the last thirty years Italian emigration has become increasingly of a temporary nature. Note the high percentage of emigrants returned from the United States in 1897-1901 as compared with 1892-96, when economic conditions were so radically different; and note the astonishing rate in the years after 1906."—R. F. Foerster, *Italian emigration of our times*, pp. 3-6, 8-9, 34.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1890-1914.

Japanese emigration problem.—"The history of Japanese emigration began only a few decades ago. . . . Because of the geographical proximity and alluring temptations that the vast uncultivated lands and rich natural resources presented, Australia was the place which early attracted the Japanese. A few hundreds of them began to migrate to several colonies, chiefly to Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria. But they soon found the conditions exceedingly uncomfortable, owing to the hostile feeling already prevalent there against the Asiatics. The Canadian census of 1901 shows that 4074 persons born in Japan were in the Dominion at that time; 4415 were in the Province of British Columbia, the rest being scattered in the . . . [other western Provinces]. After that year the number of Japanese immigrants coming to Canada gradually increased, and when the United States placed restrictions on the influx of Japanese from Hawaii, and the latter began to seek entrance into Canada, the number grew considerably and . . . it was estimated that in 1907 the Japanese domiciled in Canada had reached eight thousand. . . . [Objection to their rapid increase was raised in Canada which was met by Japan agreeing to limit the number of passports to Canada to 400 annually.] Canada's treatment of the Asiatic races lawfully admitted has been marked by leniency. She has extended to the Orientals the privilege of naturalization and of securing homesteads. . . . The number of Japanese coming to the United States has decidedly increased in recent years, especially since the war, the annual number reaching the ten thousand mark. This would certainly be alarming were it not for the correspondingly large number of Japanese who returned every year [amounting in 1920 to 90% of the total emigration for that year to the United States]."—T. Iyenaga and K. Sato, *Japan and the California problem*, pp. 64-65, 67-68, 98.—"According to the report of the Department of Foreign Affairs, the Japanese residing abroad, exclusive of those in China and Hongkong, which are returned at about 350,000, numbered 270,300 at the end of June 1916, but the actual number must have reached about 400,000 as no small

number leave Japan as stowaways. . . . [In] the South Seas [group, which] . . . comprises Singapore, Malay Peninsula, Java, Sumatra, Philippines, etc. . . . some 18,000 Japanese reside, employed in rubber plantations. . . . They own or lease 30,000 *cho* of land. . . . [In the Hawaiian islands] the emigrants number nearly 100,000, which are about one half of the total population in the islands. . . . Nearly 90,000 Japanese emigrants reside in the United States and 14,000 in the Dominion of Canada, most of them being engaged in farming, fishery or lumbering. . . . [In Latin America] the emigrants number 3,000 in Mexico, 7,000 in Peru, 30,000 in Brazil and 3,000 in Argentine and other countries. [See also LATIN AMERICA: 1890-1914.] . . . [In Australasia], including those employed at nickel mines in New Caledonia, the Japanese . . . number nearly 12,000."—*Japan Year Book, 1921-1922*, pp. 35-36.

### ARGENTINA

1854-1914.—Early immigration.—"It was . . . in the Santa Fé province, that modern agricultural colonization began in the nineteenth century. It goes back to the foundation (in 1854) of the colony of Esperanza, west of Santa Fé. . . . European immigrants—Swiss, French, and Piedmontese—had settled there."—P. Denis, *Argentine republic*, pp. 190, 191.

1914-1922.—Proportion of foreigners in 1914.—Immigration after the World War.—"Foreigners were, in 1914, 30 per cent. of the total population. The proportion of foreigners to the total population is one of the indications by which we can best follow the advance of colonization. As soon as it relaxes in any region, the number of immigrants diminishes. . . . In 1914 the proportion of foreigners at Buenos Aires rose to 340 per 1,000 (development of the maize region and the southern wheat area). It sank at Santa Fé (350 per 1,000), in spite of considerable immigration in the southern maize-growing departments. At the same time there was a great influx of foreign population in the province of Cordoba (200 per 1,000) and in the area of the Central Pampa (360 per 1,000)."—P. Denis, *Argentine republic*, pp. 263-264.—"Argentina is [written in 1920] receiving large numbers of Italians, Spaniards, and Frenchmen, now totaling several millions of population. They have full liberty to engage in any business and to acquire property. Free land is also given to newcomers. Naturalized citizens are exempted from military service for ten years. . . . In the course of three months more than 600 families with some capital from Central Europe have settled in the country. If the stream of immigrants from Germany, Austria, and the Balkan States is strong, that from Italy is not less so. An Italian vessel which recently came into port brought some 800 Italian immigrants, of whom no less than 250 had sufficient money to acquire their own land. Before the war, immigrants arrived without any other means than their will to work. Today, in addition to this, they come provided with capital for acquiring allotments and land, which enables them to settle with their families."—F. Kellor, *Immigration and the future*, pp. 78-79.—"The temporary immigrants come partly from Europe. Not only is the stream of immigration to Argentina fuller during the months which precede the harvests, while the stream of re-emigration to Europe is greatest in the autumn, but it is not a rare thing for Italians to go every year to Argentina merely to stay there during the harvest, when wages



are high. This seasonal immigration from Italy is of long standing; it is mentioned by Daireaux in 1889."—P. Denis, *Argentine republic*, p. 266.—See also ARGENTINA: Population.

ALSO IN: W. A. Hirst, *Argentine*, pp. 131-138.—United States Immigration Commission, 1907.

### AUSTRALIA

1878-1901.—State-aided immigration.—"There has been a steady immigration movement to the British colonies of Australasia since the earliest days of their settlement. Previous to the formation of the Australian Commonwealth in 1901, however, the extent of immigration from overseas is not definitely shown, because the various colonies did not distinguish between trans-oceanic immigration and the constant movement of population that went on among the colonies. . . . In 1788, 1,030 persons settled in New South Wales, the parent colony of Australia, and since that beginning immigration has been a very important factor in the growth of the population. . . . [The rate of increase between 1831 and 1841 was very high, due to the] policy of state-aided immigration, which was vigorously pursued during that period. The rapid growth between 1851 and 1861 was largely due to the discovery of gold in Victoria and the consequent heavy immigration to that colony. Later the large gains in the populations of Queensland and Western Australia were also mainly the results of the large immigration attendant upon gold discoveries. . . . [During the 11 years ending 1901 there was a] decided decline in 'net immigration.' Western Australia alone seemed to continue to attract a large number of immigrants, the excess arrivals in that State from 1891 to 1900 being 118,592. . . . The policy of assisting immigration has been vigorously pursued by the several colonies of Australasia for a greater part of the time since the early days of their settlement. This practice was practically discontinued in Victoria in 1873, in South Australia in 1886, and in Tasmania in 1891. In 1887 it was discontinued in New South Wales, but with certain reservations which enabled that colony to assist a limited number of immigrants during the period 1888 to 1899."—*Immigration situation in other countries (Reports of Immigration Commission, 1910-1911, Senate Documents, v. 22, no. 761)*.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840, to 1821-1845; NEW SOUTH WALES: 1831-1855; WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

ALSO IN: R. E. Mills, *Colonization of Australia*.

1901-1910.—"White Australia" policy.—Literacy test for Asiatics.—For half a century prior to confederation, "the most vital phase of the Australian immigration situation . . . [was] the exclusion of Asiatics. The colonies have fought this immigration by entrance fees and fines, limitations of the number of passengers to a given tonnage of ships, educational tests, and absolute prohibition. There were Chinese in Queensland as early as 1848, but the number of persons of that race in all Australia was inconsiderable up to the rush to the Victorian gold fields in 1851. The influx of Chinese at that time was the immediate cause of the adoption of a vigorous exclusion by all the colonies. In 1855 Victoria enacted a law providing that no ship should bring more than 1 Chinese to each 10 tons of its tonnage and that a shipmaster must deposit £10 with the collector of customs for each Chinaman brought. South Australia, New South Wales, and Queensland soon afterwards enacted similar

legislation. Under these laws the exclusion of the Chinese became so effective that after several years they were repealed in Victoria and New South Wales. In 1880, however, the Chinese movement again became the subject of even more drastic legislation. New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania decreed that every Chinaman must pay an entrance tax of £10 and that a ship might bring only 1 person of that race to every 100 tons of its tonnage. Queensland in 1884 raised the entrance fee to £30 and allowed 1 to 50 tons. . . . In 1888, . . . the colonies conferred and agreed to adopt more stringent measures. New South Wales fixed the entrance fee for Chinese at £100 each and permitted ships to bring only 1 Chinese to each 300 tons of the tonnage. The restrictions in the other colonies were made almost equally severe. [See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1855-1907.] . . . In the few years preceding the federation the colonies adopted the policy of imposing upon all immigrants an educational test in a European language. This measure proved an effectual barrier to the Asiatics, and the same provision was embodied in the Commonwealth immigration restriction act of 1901, which, slightly amended, is still operative. . . . Kanakas, black laborers, recruited from the Pacific Islands, were introduced in Queensland about 1865. . . . The traffic grew and the greater part of the field work on the sugar plantations of that colony was done by the Kanakas. . . . In 1901 the Commonwealth Parliament passed the Pacific Island laborers' act, which aimed to abolish the employment of Kanakas. It provided that only a limited number of Pacific Islanders should be admitted to the Commonwealth before March 31, 1904, and that after that date none would be permitted to enter. No contract could be made with those already in the Commonwealth after December 31, 1906. Any Pacific Islander found in the Commonwealth after the latter date would be liable to deportation. . . . Since the federation in 1901 immigration has become a national question and its regulation has been within the Commonwealth. The immigration policy of the Commonwealth, however, is similar to that pursued by the separate colonies, which in general was the exclusion of Asiatics and Pacific Islanders, and the preservation and development of a 'white Australia.' . . . In order to induce settlers to take up unoccupied land the government allows them to purchase the freehold by the payment of small half-yearly installments upon liberal terms. Advances for improving their holdings are also made in all the States except Tasmania. . . . From 1900 to 1905 no assistance was given by that colony, but the practice was resumed in 1906. Queensland and Western Australia have continually pursued the policy of assisted immigration. . . . Some of the States . . . induce immigration by paying the passage wholly or in part of persons desiring to settle on the land or to engage in farm or dairy work, or work of a similar nature. Such assistance is also afforded to domestic servants and to other persons who can satisfy the agents-general of the Commonwealth in London that they would make desirable settlers for Australia. . . . Recent immigration [written in 1910] to Australia is mainly British, 82.1 per cent of the 301,207 persons . . . being of that nationality. Moreover, British immigration to Australia increased rapidly during the period considered. In 1902 it was 35,330, and in 1908 it had increased to 64,374. No other nationality comes in any considerable numbers; the French being second with 10,976 during the seven years considered;

the Germans third with 9,098. . . . Of the British, . . . only a little more than one-fourth are recorded as coming to Australia from the United Kingdom; the remainder being from New Zealand and other British colonies. . . . At one period New South Wales voted £5,000 for the dispatch to Great Britain and Ireland of agents for the purpose of inducing immigration, and also during the later periods of assisted immigration, the propaganda was confined to British sources. Another factor in determining the character of Australian immigration has been the great distance and the cost of transportation."—*Immigration situation in other countries (Reports of Immigration Commission, 1910-1911, Senate Documents, v. 22, no. 761)*.—See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1903-1908.

1909-1921.—Land policy.—Continued "White Australia" policy.—Asiatic immigration.—Speaking at a dinner in his honor, given in London in 1909, after his return from five years of service as governor-general of Australia, Lord Northcote, said: "There is plenty of land all through Australia for men who are willing to go there, . . . plenty of land available for close settlement. If the great landowners are disinclined to sell their holdings—and I quite acknowledge that a great deal of the best land in Australia is in comparatively few hands—at all events the State Governments have very large reserves of land; and by the application of irrigation and other methods of scientific farming they could compete on even terms at least with these squatters, and . . . turn these waste lands into fertile country fit for settlers." In 1911 Australia had a smaller population than New York City. "The Commonwealth needs population badly, but future immigrants must be . . . white. It was only the other day that Australia's inhabitants reached the five-million mark. [According to the 1921 census she had a total population of 5,436,794; of these about 37,300 were non-European.] . . . In addition, there are estimated to be over 30,000 Australian aboriginals, excluding the natives of Papua and German New Guinea, over which the Commonwealth was given a mandate at Versailles. . . . Labor is Australia's problem. [In 1919, the increase of population by immigration was 160,000. The decrease during the World War had been at least 260,000.] At present [1921] ex-service men are coming in goodly numbers from England, under an assisted payment scheme of immigration, especially to West Australia. . . . It is asserted that there are parts of Australia which will never be successfully developed, except by colored labor. This argument is applied to the part of the Commonwealth north of the Tropic of Capricorn; in that section, and further north, sugar is most largely cultivated. Some years back these sugar fields were worked by indentured Kanaka labor from the South Sea Islands. Their pay was so small, the mortality so high, and attendant abuses so rife, despite more or less close Government supervision, that the people of Australia rose up against what was termed the 'slave trade.' Notice was given to planters that after a specified time the 'White Australia' policy, as it is now called, would be introduced by the Government, and colored labor would be abolished. . . . In the State of Queensland Chinese aliens are not allowed to employ aboriginals or half-castes, while a Northern Territory ordinance . . . does not permit any Asiatic to employ an Australian aboriginal. In Papua a recruiting license is not issued to any person who is not a European, i.e., a white man. The Queensland Land act of 1910 (Section 7) prohibits the subleasing of any land to any

alien who fails to pass a dictation test. In the Northern Territory an Asiatic cannot acquire the 'fee-simple' of land. In South Australia Asiatics are disqualified from being lessees of irrigation lands. Queensland's Mining act of 1889 . . . disqualifies persons 'who, by lineage, belong to any of the Asiatic, African or Polynesian races,' from holding a business license, mineral lease or miner's homestead lease, or from being the mortgagee of a miner's homestead lease. No Asiatic is allowed in the Northern Territory . . . to take a right on a new goldfield, or . . . for working on a new goldfield, unless the discoverer is an Asiatic; nor is an Asiatic allowed to have any interest in a dredging lease. Queensland, . . . formerly received more Asiatics than any other of the Australian States. The immigrants were employed mainly in the pearling industry, and in gold and tin mining. They and their descendants still work in these industries, but since the adoption of the 'White Australia' policy no Japanese or Chinese, whatever their status, are allowed to enter Australia with a view to permanent residence. . . . Bona fide Japanese students, merchants or tourist travelers . . . [are] admitted on production of passports issued by the Government in Japan for twelve months only, which period . . . [may] be prolonged if the officials . . . [are] satisfied that the bearer of the passport . . . is genuinely engaged in overseas trade. With this exception, the disabilities placed in the way of Japanese immigration to Australia may be summed up in the phrase 'complete exclusion,' . . . The same arrangement holds good for Chinese, except that visitors must have their passports visé by the British Consul at the port of embarkation. . . . There never were many Japanese in Australia. . . . [In 1901 the total of Japanese] was 3,593, Queensland having 2,257 and West Australia 867 of that total. Since the coming of the 'White Australia' there has been a gradual diminution. . . . In 1915 the number had dropped to 2,636. After this there was a gradual increase, according to a return . . . supplied by the Commonwealth authorities, which gave the number on June 30, 1920, as 3,006. . . . More than half of these . . . [were] admitted temporarily under indentures as divers in the pearling industry. In June last [1920] 1,800 came under that heading, while 138 were merchants, admitted under temporary passports."—J. A. Burke, *Australia's laws against Asiatics (New York Times Current History, Mar., 1921)*.—"The law provides, furthermore, that Asiatic immigrants may be required to pass a test at any time within two years after they have entered the Commonwealth. Even for the reception of those Asiatics who have been lawfully admitted [written in 1921], some of the States . . . do not allow them the right of owning or leasing land. . . . The Commonwealth of Australia does not extend the right of naturalization to Asiatics."—T. Iyenaga and K. Sato, *Japan and the California problem*, pp. 66-67.—See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1913.

## BRAZIL

1817-1919.—Nature of immigration.—Nationalities.—"The story of colonization in Brazil is unique in the annals of the human movement across the world that has been going on ever since man began to multiply and to seek elbow-room; it is one of the phenomena of exodus. . . . It was the result of a studied policy, inaugurated by the Emperors of Brazil, and carried on to the present day by the Federal Government

and certain of the separate States; experiments in various kinds of people were made on a concerted plan, the colonies were grouped, in many cases isolated, retained their language and customs, still produce the food to which they were accustomed in the home land, and only become assimilated as their populations leave them or touch in time the fringe of others. . . . The first official, deliberate importation of colonists of blood foreign to Brazil or Portugal began in 1817, when Dom João brought in Swiss settlers. . . . [The venture was unsuccessful, and the authorities then turned to Germany for recruits. Colonies of Germans were formed in Rio Grande do Sul and Santo Caterina between the years 1825 and 1850, and in 1852 state-aided colonies of Germans were settled in Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Caterina, Paraná, Minas Geraes and São Paulo. For about fifty-two years Germany was the best recruiting ground for Brazil. About 1852, however] German colonizing in arranged shipments had come to an end; any additional German colonists came singly. The German Government . . . passed a law to forbid emigration to Brazil. . . . With organized German settlement checked, Brazil during the eighteen fifties turned her attention to the mother country, and brought in Portuguese . . . [who were settled in the warmer provinces of Maranhão, Para, Rio de Janeiro and Bahia. These colonies were not strikingly successful until joined by other colonists, for the Portuguese who are artisans rather than agriculturists, melted from the lonely settlements and found jobs in the coast cities. In the years immediately preceding and for some time after abolition of slavery, numbers of immigrants were brought over from Europe to work on the *metayer* system. Bavarians, Holsteiners, French, Alsations, Dutch, Tyrolese, and even Mongolians and Icelanders are mentioned among the immigrants of this period. The larger number were employed on coffee plantations, where, as might have been expected, the *metayer* system broke down]. It was after the dwindling of the flow of German incomers about 1860 that a steady stream of Italians was directed towards Brazil. Their wooing was in a great measure due to the systematized efforts of the coffee-growers of São Paulo state, and, after the establishment of the republic in 1889, of the state authorities. . . . From the year 1820 to the end of 1915, a total of one million, three hundred and sixty-one thousand, two hundred and sixty-six Italians have officially entered Brazil as immigrants. With their children born in Brazil they total well over two millions today, greatly out-numbering any other entering race. Their colonization has been a marked success, due not only to their personal characteristics, but to the just treatment given them by the authorities. There was a time, soon after the abolition of slavery, when the *colonos* brought in to fill labour gaps complained of the relations between themselves and the *fazendeiros*; realizing that the existence of friction and subsequent scandals would defeat their object, the São Paulo Government put machinery into working order, known as the *Patronato Agrícola* which adjusted differences, looked into social conditions, and took in hand the work of giving medical care and schooling to immigrants. The Italian has remained upon coffee fazendas, acquired land and coffee trees of his own or taken up commercial work in the towns, rather than remained in *nucleos*; he has identified himself with the modern progress of South Brazil, taken up manufacturing, built himself some of the most

splendid and extravagant houses in São Paulo city. . . . The year of greatest immigration in Brazil is said to have been that of 1801 when out of a total of nearly two hundred and seventy-six thousand, about one hundred and sixteen thousand were Italians; their influence upon prosperity in São Paulo may be estimated by the fact that more than one million out of the State's three million population are of Italian blood. No other state has so systematized immigration, perhaps because none had the pressing need and the immediate rewards to offer, as has São Paulo; she no longer pays passages on steamships, but she maintains free hotels in Santos and São Paulo city, where five meals a day are given, good airy rooms, baths, etc., and where immigrants are lodged for a week or until work is found. . . . Poles and Russians came in notable quantities in the late 1870's and early 1880's, settling in the Paraná uplands as well as in *nucleos* in São Paulo. At the end of the century there were two thousand Russo-Germans from the Volga, farming land on methods of their own in the neighbourhood of Curitiba; an obstinate folk, they . . . shared all goods on the Russian communistic plan, and . . . bodies of them deserted the *nucleos* and demanded to be sent back to Russia. . . . The system under which land is made over to colonists demands more explanation than space permits; São Paulo, briefly, only sanctions the establishments of *nucleos* near a railway line or navigable river, with an eye to marketing. . . . Nobody can obtain a lot unless he has a wife and family, but sons twenty-one years old can also obtain grants while bachelors; payments are made on easy terms, generally at the end of each harvest for five successive years. . . . When the male head of a family dies before payments are complete, the widow and family are handed clear titles if three quarters of the debt has been liquidated, and if ability to continue work is demonstrated; if not, the family is sent back to Europe at State expense. . . . One of the interesting recent experiments of São Paulo was the cession of some twelve million acres of coastal land to a Japanese company with the object of creating an agricultural colony with Oriental brains and labour. The organizing syndicate, with the approval of the Japanese Government, was formed in Tokio in 1913, used Japanese capital, emigrants and ships. . . . Studied preparations and soil experiments were made before any colonists were carried over. . . . Besides the members of this agricultural colony there are at least another eight or ten thousand Japanese in Brazil, chiefly house servants. . . . Apart from the serious, long-continued work of the São Paulo authorities to win labour from abroad, there is still a remarkable amount of support given to immigration by the Federal Government. . . . In 1915, when entries from abroad were checked on account of the war in Europe there were still immigrants from Portugal to the number of 15,000, 6,000 Italians, nearly as many Spanish, 600 Russians and 500 'Turco-Arabs.' . . . [From 1820 to the end of 1915, 3,250,285 listed immigrants entered Brazil, including 1,361,200 Italians, 976,386 Portuguese, 468,583 Spaniards, 122,830 Germans, 103,683 Russians, 78,543 Austrians, 52,434 Turk-Arabs, 28,072 French, 22,005 English, 15,608 Japanese, 10,713 Swiss, 5,435 Swedes, 4,727 Belgians. Additional official lists] give another 200,000 of 'diversas' nationalities and a margin must also be allowed for persons who did not enter as immigrants."—L. E. Elliott, *Brazil, today and tomorrow*, pp. 50, 59, 60, 66-73.—"According to the

annual report of the Government of the State of São Paulo, Brazil, [in 1919] 17,418 immigrants entered the State through the port of Santos. Of these 12,220 were 'voluntary' immigrants and 5,198 were 'subsidized' immigrants. It should be noted that all immigrants who are considered voluntary immigrants by reason of the fact that they have made the journey to Santos at their own expense are entitled to a refund of their traveling expenses, provided that they go to work on the coffee plantations. It is reported that 4,394 immigrants, of whom 4,332 were voluntary immigrants, came to the State of São Paulo by rail. The statistics do not show the number of emigrants from the State, but their number must have been considerable, because all steamers leaving Santos and Buenos Aires for European ports carried a full list of steerage passengers.—United States Department of Labor, *Monthly Labor Review*, Dec., 1920, pp. 218-219.—See also BRAZIL: 1906: Status, etc.; LATIN AMERICA: 1910.

### CANADA

1763-1867.—United Empire (U. E.) Loyalists.—Early movements.—The French settlement of Canada is more properly spoken of as colonization than as immigration, and therefore, the history of Canadian immigration begins after the Peace of Paris, 1763. "Though Canada had received great numbers of emigrants from the United Kingdom [after the Peace], these were few in comparison with the crowds of men and women who entered this territory after the war [of the American Revolution] broke out. The extent of this complex movement is but imperfectly understood. It is known, however, that [beginning in 1783] the Loyalist migration into British territory flowed in two great streams, one by sea to Nova Scotia and the other overland to Canada. [See CANADA: 1782-1784.] . . . The actual settlement of the Loyalists forms in itself an important chapter of colonial history, but the welcoming of these refugees from the south to the sparsely populated lands of Canada is to be remembered most for its effect on succeeding generations of emigrants. We must remember that, until the arrival of the Loyalists, most of the lands situated more than a few miles from the chief waterways were uninhabited, uncultivated, and more or less forbidding. But the Loyalists went in of sheer necessity and formed, as it were, the nucleus for later settlers. Thus, it is not too much to say that they laid the foundation for the westward extension of Canada as we know it to-day. [Three other early immigration movements deserve slight mention.] In 1785, the men of Glengarry, Canada, induced a party of five hundred Scotch Glengarries to come and join them. . . . Among the earliest organizers of colonization schemes in the nineteenth century may be placed Lord Selkirk. This Scotchman banded together a number of thrifty farmers of his own race who had given up their highland territories, and escorted them to Prince Edward Island, where they were comfortably located [1803-1804] on a settlement vacated by the French. . . . What money was necessary came either from Lord Selkirk or was derived from sales, held in the Old Country, of the settlers' stock. . . . So great was the success of Selkirk's first attempt at colonization that he made plans for a second scheme in 1811, [and assayed an attempt to open up the North West, which proved to be abortive]. . . . Closely following the schemes of Selkirk came that of Colonel Talbot, a member of the Lieutenant-Governor's staff in Can-

ada. From various parts of the United Kingdom, but specially from Scotland, he collected some two thousand men, women, and children, probably during the year 1813, and settled them at Port Talbot on Lake Erie. To this nucleus of settlers he annually added other emigrants, until in 1823 it was reported that he had under his control no less than twelve thousand souls. The financial burden of his undertaking was probably borne jointly by the British Government and the Canadian Legislature, the former finding the passage money, and the latter providing the food supplies."—P. Davis, *Immigration and Americanization*, pp. 98-99, 101-103.

"There must have been a steady increase in the population not only by birth rate but by immigration, for when the Act of Union in 1867 . . . [was passed] the population of . . . [the four] provinces for 1861, upon which the act of Union was based, was 3,090,561. . . . From the small number of 60,000 inhabitants in 1763, when Canada passed under the British flag, the population had grown in just one hundred years to over three millions, that is about doubling itself every twenty years. . . . The major source of increase in Ontario was not so much the birth rate but rather immigration from the British Isles and parts of Europe. In fact it was the steady increase in the population of Upper Canada which rendered more and more acute the internal strife between 'the Canadas,' which issued in the Report of Lord Durham in 1838 urging the union of the two provinces. . . . [These early immigrants encountered many hardships and adventures in the wilds, which it now seems difficult to realize.] The conditions of hardship and distress did not wait for the immigrant to settle on the land. They found him on his voyage from Europe. The passage occupied on the average six weeks, and frequently extended to eight or nine weeks. The ships were overcrowded, more emigrants being taken than the space and provisions warranted and than the law allowed. Vessels were chartered for emigration by persons whose sole object was to make money, and who made a trade of evading the provisions of the Passengers' Act. This was the case in many vessels coming from Ireland, the number of persons on board being greater than that allowed by the Law. . . . The condition of the emigrants upon arrival need not be detailed. The inspecting physician at Quebec often found himself at a loss for words to describe their state. But, he declares, 'with few exceptions, the state of the ships was quite abominable.' . . . Another inspecting physician reported: 'The poorer class of Irish, and the English paupers sent by parishes, were, on the arrival of vessels in many instances, entirely without provisions, so much so, that it was necessary immediately to supply them with food from shore. This destitution, or shortness of provisions, combined with dirt and bad ventilation, had invariably produced fevers of a contagious character, and occasioned some deaths on the passage; and from such vessels numbers, varying from twenty to ninety to each vessel, had been admitted to hospital with contagious fevers immediately on their arrival.' . . . This is quite sufficient, perhaps more than sufficient, to indicate the conditions surrounding immigration in the period from 1830 to 1850. But despite all these hardships the tide was moving westward in great strength. In 1831, 50,254; 1832, 51,746; 1833, 21,752; 1834, 30,935; 1835, 12,527; 1836, 27,728; 1837, 22,500; 1838, 4,992; for the eight years, a total of 222,704, an average of over 27,000 per annum. The distracted state of the

country evidently accounts for the small number in 1838, but both before and after the report of Lord Durham things began to improve."—W. G. Smith, *Study in Canadian immigration*, pp. 39-40, 42, 45, 47, 48, 51.—See also IRELAND: 1847-1860.

1867-1910.—Immigration policy.—Immigration law.—Juvenile immigration.—Following Confederation, immigration into Canada steadily increased, especially after the opening up of the North West. "Canada affords an interesting example of a country with a definite immigration policy based on local needs and conditions, and an immigration law sufficiently broad and flexible to permit the effective carrying out of that policy. The Canadian policy is based on the purpose of the government to promote the immigration of settlers for the newly opened agricultural regions of the western Provinces and not of such classes of immigrants as tend to congregate in towns and cities. The United States, the United Kingdom, and certain northern and western countries of continental Europe are regarded by Canada as the sources most likely to furnish the class of immigrants desired, and in them the Government carries on a systematic and usually successful propaganda to promote or direct immigration to the Dominion. No effort is made to promote immigration from southern and eastern European countries, and while immigrants from such countries are not specifically excluded by the Canadian immigration law, they are not . . . desired unless it is clearly shown that they do not intend to become city dwellers. . . . With the opening up of the great areas of agricultural lands in the western Provinces of the Dominion and the extension of the propaganda referred to, immigration increased until Canada is now one of the great immigrant-receiving countries of the world. During the period July 1, 1900, to March 31, 1909, a total of 1,244,597 immigrants were admitted to the Dominion. . . . The chief sources of Canadian immigration are the United States and the United Kingdom, the former having furnished 393,908, or 31.6 per cent, and the latter 502,264, or 40.4 per cent of the total number of immigrants admitted to the Dominion during the period referred to. During the same period Canada expended more money in promoting immigration from the United States than from the United Kingdom, the amounts being respectively \$1,662,000 and \$1,445,000. From 1901 to 1909, inclusive, 71.2 per cent of the total European immigration to Canada originated in those northern and western countries where the Canadian propaganda is carried on. . . . The large immigration from the British Isles to the Dominion is chiefly responsible for this result, but even where continental European immigration alone is considered, Canada receives relatively fewer immigrants from southern and eastern Europe than does the United States. . . . The movement of population from Canada to the United States is one of early origin, but immigration to Canada from the States is largely a development of recent years, having grown from 2,412 in 1897 to 59,926 in 1909 and 103,984 in the Canadian fiscal year ending March 31, 1910. . . . The Canadian immigration law [1910] is admirably adapted to carrying out the immigration policy of the Dominion. Under its terms no immigrants are specifically denied admission solely because of their race or origin, or because of the purpose for which they have come to Canada, but the discretion conferred upon officials charged with the administration of the law does make such discrimination entirely possible. . . . Canada divides the emigrating races of the

transoceanic world into three general groups, as follows: First, natives of the United Kingdom and of northern and western continental Europe; second, southern and eastern Europeans; third, the races of the Orient. . . . Every effort is made to induce persons of the first class to settle in Canada. Those of the second group, although admitted in rather large numbers, are not solicited, and . . . more or less effective obstacles are placed in their way. Those of the third class are practically prohibited from coming by the Chinese immigration act, and by barriers erected under various provisions of the immigration law. . . . During the nine years mentioned 78.4 per cent of the immigration to Canada consisted of races or peoples from the north and west of Europe and from the United States, 18.9 per cent of races or peoples from the south and east of Europe, and only 1.7 per cent was from Asiatic countries. What proportion of the immigration of favored classes was induced by Canada's efforts, and how many persons of the classes not favored were prevented from coming because of the indifferent attitude of Canada, or by the barriers erected against them, can not, of course, be determined. . . . During the fiscal years 1905 to 1909 . . . 71.2 per cent of European immigration to Canada was from the northern and western countries. . . . British immigration, however, was largely responsible for the preponderance of northern and western Europeans in the movement to Canada, for . . . 74.6 per cent of the continental immigrants to the Dominion came from southern and eastern Europe and Syria. . . . The immigration of poor and homeless British children to Canada began many years ago, and is now encouraged and supervised, but not otherwise assisted, by the Dominion government. This juvenile immigration is chiefly recruited from the orphan or industrial homes of the British Isles. The children are sent to Canada by charitable and religious organizations, and are there distributed through various philanthropic homes and agencies. . . . It is estimated that during the . . . fifty years [preceding 1909] nearly 60,000 juvenile immigrants . . . [were] transported to Canada from the British Isles. . . . In addition to [this] . . . juvenile immigration, . . . Canada annually receives a considerable number of British, and particularly English, immigrants, who, by private charity or state aid, have been sent from the mother country. Until [1908] . . . the Canadian government had practically no part in the selection of such immigrants abroad, and as a result many were rejected at Canadian ports or deported after landing. . . . [But] on April 18, 1908, there became effective an order in council which prohibited the landing in Canada of any person whose passage had been paid wholly or in part by any charitable organization or out of public moneys unless the emigration to Canada of such person had been approved by the Canadian emigration authorities in London."—*Immigration situation in Canada* (Reports of the Immigration Commission, 61st Congress, 2nd Session, Document no. 469, pp. 9-10, 15, 18, 25-26).—See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1003-1908.

1904.—Hostility of organized labor towards Asiatic immigration.—Imposition of head tax on Chinese immigrants.—Its effects. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906; 1903-1908.

1909-1919.—Character and extent of immigration.—Difficulties of assimilation.—Statistics of Asiatic immigration.—Immigration law of 1919.—"In comparison with the number of immigrants for the period 1901-09, when 1,244,597 entered, the number for the next decade is even greater.

... Nine and a half years, ending October 31, 1918, are involved [during which], there came into Canada 2,040,358 people, an average of 214,775 per annum. . . . Prior to the summer of 1918, for a period of ten years, people were coming into our midst at the rate of about a thousand a day, and being somehow absorbed into the body politic. . . . [As a rule the foreign speaking immigrants have been in a very decided minority, but in 1913 they numbered 111,579 out of a total of 402,432 and in 1914 133,079 out of 384,978. In these figures] there is included a rapid increase in the German immigrants, 5,525 for the fiscal year 1914 ending March 31, more than twice the number for 1911 (2,530); a falling off in Austrian from 7,891 to 3,147, also in Galician from 3,553 to 1,698; a great increase in Hebrew (Russian) from 4,188 to 9,622; a tremendous increase in Italian from 8,359 to 24,722; a great increase in Polish-Austrian from 1,065 to 4,319; and a still greater increase in Russian from 6,621 to 24,485; and Ruthenian from 2,869 to 18,372; while the immigration from the United States actually diminished from 121,451 to 107,530. . . . From April 1, 1914, to March 31, 1915, there entered Canadian ports Austrians 502, Bulgarians 4,048, Germans 2,470, Hebrew-Austrians 160, Hungarians 218, Polish Austrians 1,272, Polish Germans 7, Turks 187; a total of 8,864. . . . Taking the first Canadian division as 33,000 officers and men who spent the winter of 1914-15 in England and in February proceeded to France—for every four soldiers who went out of our doors, one alien from enemy countries came in. . . . Not a large percentage of the total immigration enters as farmers or farm labourers, for since the total immigration, of the classes specified, for the period 1910-1918 is 2,009,190, and the total number entering as farmers or farm labourers is 682,175, the proportion is only 34 per cent., general labourers 26 per cent., mechanics 15 per cent., clerks and traders 5 per cent., miners 2 per cent., domestics 5 per cent., unclassified 13 per cent. . . . According to a special report of the census and statistics office in 1915 the foreign-born population of Canada in 1911 was given as 752,732 or 10.4 per cent. of the total population of 7,206,643, and this is worthy of a more minute analysis. If we go back to the beginning of the present century the total population of Canada, as given by the census of 1901, was 5,371,315. Of that number, 86.98 per cent., or 4,671,815, were stated to be Canadian born. In 1911, on the other hand, the total population was given as 7,206,643, and of that number only 77.98 per cent., or 5,619,682 were Canadian born. Hence in one decade the tide of immigration had reduced the percentage of Canadian-born from 86.98 per cent., to 77.98 per cent. Further, in 1901 the foreign-born population of 278,788 constituted but 5.19 per cent., but in 1911 the 773,247 foreign-born constituted 10.45 per cent. of the total. During the decade, then, the foreign-born population had increased from 278,788 to 773,247 or 177.4 per cent., while the total population had increased in the same period from 5,371,315 to 7,206,643,—an increase of 34.17 per cent. . . . [The World War affected immigration to such an extent that, from 400,000 in 1913, the numbers were reduced to 80,000 in 1918.] Taking the years 1871 and 1911 for purposes of comparison, the number of Canadian-born population about doubled; those from British Islands actually show a decrease up to 1901, and in 1911 only show an increase of about a half more than the number in 1871; those from British possessions increased three times, so that the total British born

increased from 3,388,835 to 6,433,396—that is, barely doubled. But those from Europe increased a little over fourteen times and those from the United States increased about four and one-half times. It becomes quite evident that during the last four decades the rapid increase in the population is due more to the influx from Europe and the United States than from any other source. And the total change from the population of 1871 to that of 1911 is influenced largely by people coming from the ends of the earth, composed of many races, speaking varieties of languages and dialects, and practising different customs. . . .

"While the Canadianization of the foreign-born is difficult enough in the cities of the East, it is much more acute both in urban and rural sections of the West. . . . While it is difficult to devise ways and means by which this may be avoided, or its results mitigated, the fact that there are colonies of Hutterites, Mennonites, Doukobors, Ruthenians, Scandinavians, Germans, Mormons, and others, scattered throughout the Western Provinces renders the work of bringing these people into the activities of public-spirited citizens well-nigh impossible. . . . And these colonies are not few nor small. Three of them have populations exceeding 60,000 persons, large numbers of whom cannot speak English at all and few speak it with any fluency. . . . One of the first difficulties in considering the extent and influence of immigration into Canada from Asia is the lack of adequate statistics. The census of 1901 reported in the Dominion 4,674 persons who were born in Japan, and 4,515 of these were in the province of British Columbia. Of Chinese there were 16,792 and the most of them were also in British Columbia. Since the total population of that province at that time was 178,657, the approximately twelve per cent. proportion of Asiatics was significant and also so unsatisfactory that in 1900 British Columbia passed an Immigration Act which practically excluded all Asiatics. In the following year, 1901, the Act was disallowed by Earl Minto, then Governor-General of Canada. . . . The province passed a similar Act in 1902, 1903, 1904 and finally in 1905, but all were disallowed. The Acts in succession rejected all illiterates, for the provisions of 1902 and 1903 required that an immigrant entering Canada should be able to read, and those of 1904 and 1905 required that the immigrant should also be able to write at dictation 'in the characters of some language of Europe a passage of fifty words in length in an European language.' . . . The rapidly-developing Hindu immigration received such a sudden check in 1909 as to practically eliminate that source, while Japanese were reduced to about one-fourth of the number of the preceding year. . . . Since [1910] . . . the stream has been only slowly regathering headway, while the Chinese . . . showed steady increase until the period of the Great War [33,036 arrived after 1900]. The wave from India increased in three years from forty-five to 2,623, while the whole population of the province [of British Columbia] had not yet reached 350,000. [See also INDIA: 1905-1922; RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1913; 1913-1921.] Since 1900 about 18,000 Japanese have entered Canada, but the census of 1911 showed that only 9,021 gave their nationality as Japanese though during 1900-11 alone about 7,588 had landed. Yet 9,021 in 1911 is a considerable increase over 4,738 in 1901. But in 1911 out of those 9,021 there were 6,660 males of twenty-one years and over, of whom only 1,491 were naturalized and 5,208 alien. . . . Despite the fact that legislation on this con-

tinant has been adverse to the Chinese, . . . according to the census of 1911 there were in Canada 27,774."—W. G. Smith, *Study in Canadian immigration*, pp. 115, 117-120, 138, 140, 145-147, 156, 157, 159, 163, 165-166.—"The experience of the last decade showed the need for many improvements; so a new law was passed in 1919. This law in many ways reads like the United States law and includes many of its provisions, such as the literacy clause and the exclusion of certain classes of immigrants."—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, p. 266.—See also CANADA: 1908-1919; 1913-1919.

1920.—Restriction of immigration.—"During the winter of 1920-1921, when the industrial depression which had been sweeping over the world struck Canada . . . [in order to restrict immigration] the amount of money needed in the case of a man over eighteen years of age was raised to the sum of \$250. In case he had a family, he himself had to have \$250, the other members of his family over eighteen, \$125 each and \$50 was required for each child five to eighteen years of age. Under certain conditions exemptions were granted to these requirements."—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, p. 270.—An agreement with Japan, of 1908, puts a check on Japanese immigration, by limiting the number to 400 yearly. Hindus are excluded by means of a provision in the Canadian immigration law which requires that immigrants must come to the Dominion by a continuous journey from the country of which they are natives and upon through tickets purchased in that country. There are no steamship lines operating between India and Canada.

EAST AFRICA

Immigration of Hindus. See KENYA COLONY.

ENGLAND

1881-1901.—European immigration.—No question of the restriction of immigration arose in Great Britain until the end of the nineteenth century. Large numbers of immigrants had been received into the country at various times, as for instance the Flemings who introduced woolen manufacture in the fourteenth century. Large numbers of French Huguenots arrived as early as Elizabeth's reign, and again after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. A certain number of Germans from the Palatinate settled in England in the eighteenth century. But these people were easily absorbed into the population, and after the first strangeness of their appearance wore off were scarcely noticed. It was otherwise with the newcomers of the late nineteenth century, who, unlike their earlier predecessors were for the most part extremely poor, and were prone to settle in colonies in the very poor sections of the large cities. "For the sake of convenience the statistics of the alien inhabitants of the United Kingdom may now be set out. The following figures indicate their growth since 1881:—

	Total population	Aliens	Increase
1881.....	34,884,848	135,640	.....
1891.....	37,732,922	219,523	83,883
1901.....	41,458,721	286,925	67,402

The distribution is unequal, England and Wales having 247,758 of the total in 1901; this represented 7.6 per 1,000 of the population, compared with 6.8 in 1891 and 4.5 in 1881. The vast majority are of European nationality, some 20,000

only, of whom 18,311 were Americans, being non-European in England and Wales in 1901. . . . The main increase was in the Russians and Poles, who in England and Wales numbered 14,468 in 1881, increasing to . . . 82,844 in 1901. There is no religious census in the United Kingdom, but it is certain that the majority of the Russians and Poles are Jews. The total alien population was composed of 174,786 males and 112,139 females in 1901. . . . Children born in England of foreign parents domiciled here are British. . . . The uneven distribution of the aliens in England, [is] the cause of the whole problem. . . . Nearly half of the alien population in 1901 was to be found in six Metropolitan boroughs, and Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds. In London the aliens represented 30 per 1,000 of the population, in Manchester 22 per 1,000, and only in eleven other towns and cities did they exceed 10 per 1,000. London had over half the Russians and Poles, 53,537, no fewer than 42,032 being on Stepney; over half the Germans, 27,427; over half the Austrians, 6,189; just about half the French, 11,264; nearly half the Italians, 10,889; but less than a quarter of the Americans, 6,244. In the East End Borough of Stepney, which includes in its boundaries the oft-mentioned districts of Whitechapel, Spitalfields, Mile End, St. George's-in-the-East, Limehouse and Wapping, were to be found 54,310 of the 135,377 foreigners in the Metropolis; this represented 182 per 1,000 of the population, so that, despite the perpetual cry of Stepney being a 'foreign city' over four-fifths were native. In 1881 there were 15,998, or 57 per 1,000 in Stepney, and in 1891, 32,284, or 113 per 1,000."—M. J. Landa, *Alien problem and its remedy*, pp. 58-61..

1905-1909.—Aliens Act.—Restrictions on admission of aliens.—New policy.—Until 1905, England offered practically an open door to the aliens who sought either a permanent home or a temporary residence on her island soil. But some years before that date a growing criticism of such unconditioned hospitality was begun. A select committee of the House of Commons "to inquire into the laws existing in the United States and elsewhere on the subject of the immigration of destitute aliens, and the extent and effect of such immigration into the United Kingdom" reported in 1889 that "the alien population was not numerous enough to create alarm," and that it was "not prepared to recommend restrictive legislation at present," but saw "the possibility of such legislation becoming necessary in the future." In 1902, a royal commission was appointed, "to inquire into—(1) the character and extent of the evils which are attributed to the unrestricted immigration of aliens, especially in the Metropolis; (2) the measures which have been adopted for the restriction and control of alien immigration in foreign countries and in British colonies." The commission produced an elaborate report in 1903. Reviewing the hospitality of the past, it found that the migrant aliens of former generations had made the English people "their debtors"; but they were of a different stamp from the immigrants of the present movement, which "may be said to have begun about 1880, and is drawn mainly from the Jewish inhabitants of Eastern Europe." The causes of this exodus have been partly economic and partly due to oppressive measures; and the result of the commission's investigation of it was the expressed opinion that "in respect of certain classes of immigrants, especially those arriving from Eastern Europe, it is necessary in the interests of the state generally, and

of certain localities in particular, that the entrance of such immigrants into this country and their right of residence here should be placed under conditions and regulations coming within that right of interference which every country possesses to control the entrance of foreigners into it. Such regulations should, in our opinion, "be made in order to prevent so far as possible this country being burdened with the presence of 'undesirable aliens' and to provide for their repatriation in certain cases. But we think that the greatest evils produced by the presence of the alien immigrants here are the overcrowding caused by them in certain districts of London, and the consequent displacement of the native population. We therefore think that special regulations should be made for the purpose of preventing aliens at their own will choosing their residence within districts already so overcrowded that any addition to dwellers within it must produce most injurious results. On this point the commission recommended specifically that if it be found that the immigration of aliens into any area has substantially contributed to any overcrowding, and that it is expedient that no further newly-arrived aliens should become residents in such area, the same may be declared prohibited area.

"We are also of opinion that efforts should be made to rid this country of the presence of alien criminals (and other objectionable characters)." An act embodying substantially the recommendations of the commission passed Parliament in 1905. Both the act and the administration of it have been criticised since, as lacking stringency. "To begin with, the regulation of alien immigration is confined, practically, to the traffic between the United Kingdom and ports in Europe or within the Mediterranean Sea. . . . A foreigner may enter this country unchallenged—if he comes from an 'extra-European' port (with some exceptions); if he is a cabin passenger; if he is an exempted second-class passenger; if he is a transmigrant; if he is a passenger in a ship containing fewer than 21 'alien steerage passengers.' Then also, though nominally a subject for inspection, he is not called upon to satisfy the full requirements of the Act, if he is proceeding to a destination outside the United Kingdom; if he holds a return ticket; if he is a seaman; if he is fleeing from religious or political persecution."—*Times* (London), Feb. 9, 1909.—See also **Jews**: England: 1885-1905.

1914-1919.—**Alien Restriction Bill**.—Alien law.—Restriction of immigration was provided for by the Aliens Restriction Bill, 1914, and otherwise practically effected during the World War. In December, 1919, a new alien law received the royal assent which largely continued all the war restrictions and added others, such as limiting the proportion of aliens that might be employed to 10 per cent of the total employees of any person, firm or company in business. But no alien who was member of a trade union was to suffer in any way for taking part in a strike.

ALSO IN: *Annual Register*, 1919, pp. 55-142

## FRANCE

1870-1919.—Effect of immigration.—"With her stationary population and her finely organized industries, France, in the years before the war, had become an outstanding country of immigration. Belgians have long poured over the northern border and for decades led all migrants into France. Luxemburgers, Germans, Swiss, Spaniards in large numbers have penetrated for varying distances into the interior. Yet in nearly every field of labor, the

Italians, in recent years, have held a place second to no other foreign nationality. In agriculture and forestry, occupying many immigrants, they have been about 40 per cent; Belgians and Spaniards together, the next largest groups, not much exceeding them. In manufacturing, their chief sphere, they have again been 40 per cent. In transportation they have been nearly two-thirds of all foreigners; in trade more than one-third; in domestic service, a little less than one-third, Germans and Belgians following closely. . . . For fifty years [prior to 1919] a diminution of all kinds of agricultural workers has taken place in France. The rural exodus, whatever its compensations, has caused deep concern to the nation; and a rural immigration from neighboring countries has brought only partial alleviation. Among the arriving helpers, the Italians have been second to no other, and probably have been, in number, three-quarters of all. . . . To the Alpes-Maritimes some 15,000 a year have come, from Liguria and Piedmont, Umbria and Tuscany. Five or six thousand, mainly women and children, have sufficed for the winter's work entailed by a production of 100,000 hectoliters of olives. Some have later been used for gathering, successively, violets, roses, jasmines, and other flowers, destined to adorn the toilettes of the women of Paris and Berlin. Working in gangs in the autumn and winter, others have prepared the soil for the flowers, and have returned home in the spring. . . . In Var, especially in the harvest season, the Italians have become more and more numerous, the men being employed in digging and the vintage, the women in flower-gardening and in gathering vegetables. After some years of effort they have often bought or rented bits of land, cultivating upon their own account while at the same time hiring out to others. . . . In that other littoral department of the old Province, Bouches-du-Rhône, the Italians have been the successors of the mountain folk who once came for the harvest from Aude and Hérault. Many have become permanent residents. Digging, and draining marshes—standing in the water and toiling at all hours—helping in the harvests, they have made themselves almost essential for much of this work. For the vintage they have come by trainloads. 'To them,' says a French witness, 'we owe the transformation of the Camargue into a wine country—a veritable agricultural *tour de force*.' In the hilly parts, they have gathered olives, and in the oil factories they have been welcomed as a convenient substitute for French labor. To Aude and Hérault, also to Gard, many thousands have come. Though the Spaniards have been the chief vintagers, the Italians, by their arduous labor in grading, drainage, and irrigation, have rendered great services to the viticulture of Languedoc. They have partly taken the place of workers who disappeared during the phylloxera crisis a quarter century ago. . . . While dealing with the South of France, it cannot be amiss to consider the strange situation of Corsica. To this department, subject to an unremitting emigration of its own sons, many thousands of Italians have come annually for a six months' stay, spreading in gangs over the island. Perhaps as many as 25,000 have taken up permanent residence. Since the native population has no love for toiling in the fields the sad truth emerges that the cultivation of Corsica is almost entirely the work of foreigners. . . . In the Basses-Alpes and Vaucluse numerous Italians have found employment. The Piedmontese long migrated into the East of France, even as far as the Nièvre, to carry on the exacting forestry operations of the Côte-d'Or,



as well as the general work of agriculture; but they have now ceased to come, preferring the South. In the Savoies, the heavy Italian immigration of former years has been declining. . . . [In Marseilles the Italian colony before the World War numbered 125,000. In Paris there were 34,000. There were large colonies in Toulon, Lyons and other cities. It is however in the Briey district that their presence is most strongly felt.] The Briey district—to describe it as it was before the German invasion of 1914—has been nearly everything that Marseilles has not been. Composed of men workers, never women, of men regarding themselves as only temporarily in France, it is a community that has grown with astonishing rapidity, and wholly in recent years. . . . What has been rare in France, the great expansion of the population of a department, happened in Meurthe-et-Moselle. Cities sprang up as if by magic. Tranquil villages burst their bounds and became bustling centers of life. . . . But they were not French cities: they resembled rather the mining towns of our own American West. For the French countryfolk held aloof from them, and the miners who came from the coal fields were few. Natives of France were presently (it was claimed) only a fifth of the workers; 15 per cent more were of various nationalities, and all the rest—nearly two-thirds of all—were Italians. In the entire department of Meurthe-et-Moselle, there had been in 1901 only 6000 of these immigrants. Early in 1910, an estimate put them at 30,000. By the middle of 1913, they were 46,755 in a foreign population of 74,073, representing some eighteen nationalities. To these might be added some 1500 living in the department of the Meuse, because it belongs to the same industrial area.”—R. F. Foerster, *Italian emigration of our times*, pp. 130-133, 138-139.

### GERMANY

1850-1919.—Immigration of workers.—Before the World War Germany was a country of immigration rather than of emigration, owing to the rapid development of her industry. Sometimes this immigration was to the manufacturing centers; sometimes it replaced the agricultural workers who had been drawn into the towns. In 1871 there were only 206,755 foreigners within the German Empire; in 1890 the number had risen to 433,254, in 1900 to 778,773, and in 1910 to 1,259,880. Meanwhile emigration was declining. The number of emigrants in 1880 was 221,000, the highest point ever reached; in 1913 it was only 25,843.”—United States Department of Labor, *Monthly Labor Review*, Dec., 1919, pp. 375-376.—“Although the Italians, bent on settlement or trade, have migrated into Germany for twenty centuries, the modern immigrants are successors of the old only in point of time. Their coming has a new origin, a new character. . . . As early as 1860 some hundreds of Italians worked in the mines of Westphalia. In South Germany there were a larger number. . . . In the West, the industrial heart of the country, they increased rapidly. . . . After 1805, and again after the depression of 1901-1902, a great and sudden addition to their numbers took place, and finally in 1906-07, a high point was reached which has not since been exceeded. . . . [In 1880, 7,841 were counted; in 1910, 104,204.] But the figures all refer to December, when many, if not most, of the Italians were again at home with their families. Of those present in Germany in the summer . . . an estimate of 175,000 for recent pre-war years would

not err far from the truth. . . . The industrial census of 1907 found no less than 121,000 Italians, mainly unskilled workers, engaged in manufacturing, mining, and building. In mining and smelting there were 23,000, constituting 3.7 per cent of their kind in Germany. In stone and earthwork there were over 30,300, who formed 5.7 per cent of all those of their occupation. In the building trades were 57,400. . . . In two respects, the immigration of Italians into Germany has been strikingly unlike that into France. It has not colonized in the great cities. Berlin and Cologne have not been centers, like Marseilles and Paris, where Italians have settled to reside and work, spending winters as well as summers. . . . In Germany, as in France, the women and children of the Italians have halted mainly in the South, in parts nearest to their own country. . . . In Upper and Lower Bavaria and in Swabia, there have been perhaps a thousand furnaces, where from the end of March to the second half of September, 12,000 to 15,000 Italians have in recent years found employment, constituting half or two-thirds of the whole labor force. . . . It is into the west of Germany, above all other sections, that the Italians have gone . . . [to work in the coal and iron mines, the textile and other factories]. All these together, and a network of railways and navigable streams, have constituted the magnet which before the war drew more than a hundred thousand Italians a year to Westphalia, Rhenish Prussia, and Lorraine. . . . Before 1850, the local population was sufficient to work the coal mines of the Ruhr. With an enlarged scale of exploitation and the establishment of iron mills, workers were drawn from the farms, from remoter sections of Germany, and from foreign lands. . . . It is not, however, the few thousands of coal miners who have made of the Ruhr and the lower Rhine the region—after Lorraine—where the Italians have most congregated. The 50,000-100,000 unskilled or low-skilled laborers, largely Venetians and Lombards, who in each of the last fifteen summers before the war came to these states, did their work of excavation, loading, unloading, and the like in manifold connections.”—R. F. Foerster, *Italian emigration of our times*, pp. 151-158.—“During the last three decades large numbers of Poles have migrated to the industrial districts of Western Prussia. At the census of 1890, 28,391 Polish-speaking people were counted in the Rhenish province and Westphalia. By 1900 they had increased to 113,869 and by 1910 to 247,028.”—J. E. Barker, *Thoughts on the future of Poland* (*Polish Review*, Jan., 1918).

### LATIN AMERICA

1890-1914.—European immigration.—Its influence. See LATIN AMERICA: 1890-1914; 1910; 1910-1914.

### NEW ZEALAND

1870-1890.—Effects of the discovery of gold on immigration. See NEW ZEALAND: 1870-1890.

1901-1920.—Emigration from Great Britain and Australia.—Cessation of immigration assistance.—“Immigration to New Zealand in recent years has been largely a movement of population from Australia, although a considerable number from the United Kingdom have been admitted annually. . . . Three-fourths of the immigration to New Zealand from 1901 to 1908, inclusive, was from Australia, 17.2 per cent was from the United Kingdom, and only 6.6 per cent

from all other countries. . . . During the period of 1901-1908 the immigration movement to New Zealand was composed of 180,470 males and 91,420 females, indicating that the movement was largely one of individuals rather than families. . . . In common with Australia, New Zealand has experienced an oriental immigration problem, and in 1907 the Dominion Parliament passed an act which required 'that any Chinese proposing to land in the Dominion shall be able to read a printed passage of not less than 100 words in the English language.' This provision was incorporated in the immigration restriction act of 1908 [and applies to all Asiatics]. . . . The policy of assisted immigration was discontinued by the Government of New Zealand in 1890, and since that time there has been no free immigration. However, the Government still continued to arrange with the shipping companies for reduced fares for desirable settlers."—*Immigration situation in other countries (Reports of the Immigration Commission, 61st Congress, 3rd Session, 1910-1911, Senate Document, v. 22, no. 761, pp. 188-189)*.—An immigration law passed in 1920 is intended to exclude Asiatics, Bolsheviki and other persons regarded as undesirable. The framers of the law had to face certain difficulties arising from the relation of the Dominion to the British Empire as a whole chiefly because of the fact that the Hindus are British subjects, a complication which also applies to some Chinese. The problem of the Japanese has never been pressing in New Zealand; but the New Zealanders, who have in effect adopted the Australian "white" policy desire to keep out all Asiatics, not only because by reason of racial and religious differences they are not easily absorbed; but because their standard of living is low, and on the whole their presence tends to create social problems. The poll tax on Chinese and the literary test referred to above had proved comparatively efficacious until early in 1920 when the entrance of upwards of 475 Chinese and about 175 Hindus provoked a law which practically provides for complete exclusion.—See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1913.

### SOUTH AFRICA

1860-1918.—European immigration.—Asiatic immigration problem.—"South Africa has never attracted a large immigration. Most of those who have gone as immigrants have been from the British Isles. Only in one year since 1903 has immigration gone over the 50,000 mark. In 1913, 14,251 immigrants entered the Dominion; in 1914, 9,047; in 1915, 5,158; in 1916, 3,846; in 1917, 2,079; in 1918, 4,565 new arrivals. During the ten years [prior to 1918] there has been a tendency for Russians, Belgians, Germans and Scandinavians to go to South Africa. In common with Canada and Australia, South Africa has given State-aided passage. This is limited almost entirely to family domestics and the wives and the families of Europeans settled in the country. South Africa's immigration law places no serious obstacles in the way of white immigrants. They must, however, be people of good health and character and have visible means of support. Each individual must have £20 in his possession. . . . The Minister of the Interior, under the Act of 1913, is empowered to certify as prohibited immigrants, persons or classes of persons whose presence from economic or other reasons is considered undesirable. This in many ways is an elastic clause, very similar to the Canadian law, which gives the executive part of the government a free hand

to meet emergencies arising through the immigration of undesirable groups or races. Very full powers are given to the immigration authorities, not only at the port entry, but also at places within the dominion and on the border. The numbers of people excluded from year to year has not been very large and has consisted mostly of East Indians. . . . South Africa and the various provinces which make up the Dominion have had very serious difficulties with the Asiatics. The most serious difficulties have centered in Natal and the Transvaal. In 1911, there were 152,309 Asiatics in the Dominion, of whom 149,791 were East Indians, 133,439 of whom resided in Natal. Indentured Indians were brought into Natal in 1860 in order to meet the needs of labor in that province. This policy was followed with some interruptions until 1911, when it was stopped. . . . In 1895 an annual tax of £3 was put upon each Asiatic. Later restrictions culminated in riots. Still later this tax was abandoned. . . . Transvaal has also had serious difficulties. The first law passed against Asiatics was in 1885, which required them to register and pay a tax of £25 within eight days of their arrival in the republic. This was later reduced to £3. . . . As a result of these difficulties, the Transvaal placed all Asiatics under certain political disabilities in respect to the franchise and also debarred them from holding land. The Orange Free State . . . has succeeded in practical exclusion. This State also requires registration. The Cape of Good Hope also restricts the Asiatic. In 1904, the Cape passed a Chinese Exclusion Act, later a law requiring the registration of all Asiatic male adult residents. In 1913, a dominion law was passed prohibiting the admission from overseas of any more Asiatics, except wives and young children of those already domiciled there. South Africa also restricts Asiatics now resident there to the provinces of which they are resident."—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, pp. 287-290.—See also RACE PROBLEMS: 1903-1908; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896-1897 (May-April).

ALSO IN: F. S. Stone, *Asiatic invasion of South Africa (Nineteenth Century, July, 1921)*.

### SWITZERLAND

1872-1919.—Rôle of immigration in economic development.—"When the St. Gothard tunnel was started, in 1872, Italian laborers undertook the work of construction and, nine years later, saw it completed. In 1880, there was a winter population of 41,500 [immigrant Italians]. . . . In the years 1890-1900, amid revival of construction work, they resumed their coming, and in the last winter of the century 95,000 were present. . . . Growing industrialization and an ever-swelling tourist business, demanding the construction of factories, power works, railway lines, and hotels, had made of Switzerland one of the great labor markets of Europe. The half million and more foreigners discovered by the census of 1910 were nearly 15 per cent of the population; in some cantons they were 30 or 40 per cent. So, for this mountainous Old-World land, immigration has had the same proportional importance as for the United States. In the previous decade, in fact, foreign settlers and births in the foreign stock had increased the population more than half as much as it was increased by Swiss stock. The Germans and the Italians together comprised in 1910 four-fifths of the foreigners and were about equally represented, numbering more than 200,000 each. Italian citizens

alone were about 6 per cent of the entire population. . . . In Geneva they were over 21,000, exceeded only by the French. . . . In no other country of Europe is Italian immigrant stock so large a factor. . . . It is an extraordinary situation. In the economic development of modern Switzerland, more and more during the last thirty or forty years, these immigrants have played a remarkable rôle. In construction work alone, their prime field, they had, when the industrial census was taken, a contingent of 65,000 in a total of 85,000 foreigners, and were actually one-third of all the workers employed, of whatever nationality, including the Swiss. In manufacturing, there were 20,000 more. In the two industries together, Italian wage earners numbered 77,500. The 44,000 of these employed in railway work, on roads and bridges and on elevated and underground structures, were certainly a great majority of all engaged in such work in the country."—R. F. Foerster, *Italian emigration of our times*, pp. 171-172, 174.

### UNITED STATES

1790-1869.—Estimated immigration from 1790 to 1820.—Nationality of early immigrants.—Commencement of official returns.—Causes of migratory movement.—"A distinction has been made, and with reason, between those who took part in building the political framework of the thirteen colonies and of the Federal Union, and those who have arrived to find the United States Government and its social and political institutions in working operation. The former class have been called colonists, the latter are immigrants proper. In discussing the immigration question, this distinction is important; for it does not follow that . . . those who have built up a complicated framework of nationality have no rights as against others who seek to enjoy the benefits of national life without having contributed to its creation. The number of persons in the country at the date of the Revolutionary War is not accurately known. . . . The first census of the United States, in 1790, gave the total population as 3,929,214; but, as has been pointed out by Professor F. B. Dexter, this number does not include Vermont or the territory northwest of the Ohio River, which, he says, would make the total over 4,000,000. The first records of immigration begin with the year 1820, and, although the number of immigrants who arrived in the United States from the close of the Revolutionary War to 1820 is not certain, it is estimated by good authorities at 250,000. It is difficult to ascertain the number of immigrants from the various countries in the early part of the nineteenth century. The number from Great Britain increased from 2081 in 1815, to 34,787 in 1819, after which it diminished to 14,805 in 1824. In the year 1820, out of a total immigration of 8385, the United Kingdom furnished 6024. Germany was second with 968; France third with 371; and Spain fourth with 139. The total immigration from the other parts of North and South America was 387. . . . After the birth of the United States as a separate nation, colonization in the earlier sense ceased entirely. European nations could no longer send out their own citizens and form communities directly dependent upon themselves and subject to their own jurisdiction. The immigration of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, therefore, differs widely in character from the colonization of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. With the year 1820 the official history of immigration to the United States begins; for it was then that collectors of customs at our ports

were first obliged to record the arrival of passengers by sea from foreign countries. The record included numbers, ages, sexes, and occupations. Before 1850 no distinction at all was made between travellers intending to return and immigrants intending to remain. Although still comparatively small, immigration increased from 8385 in 1820 to 22,633 in 1831. The first marked rise took place in 1827 and 1828, following the commercial depression in England in those and in the previous year. From 1831, with the exception of the period 1843-1844, numbers continued steadily to advance until they reached totals of 104,565 in 1842, and 310,004 in 1850. The most striking annual increases were from 114,371 in 1845 to 154,416 in 1846, and 234,968 in 1847. These sudden movements of population were chiefly due to hard times in Europe, and especially in Ireland, a cause which, with the Revolution of 1848 in Germany, continued to operate until 1854, when a total of 427,853 was reached—a figure not again attained until nearly twenty years later. With the year 1854 the tide began to beat less fiercely; immigration decreased steadily until, during the first two years of the Civil War, it was below 100,000. But in 1863, a gradual increase once more set in and in 1869, 352,768 persons landed. During the whole of this period the only immigration of importance came from Europe and from other parts of America. Immigration from Asia, which began in 1853, consisted in the largest year, 1854, of 13,100 persons. In 1869 the ethnic composition of immigration commenced in a marked way to change, and considerations which apply to the earlier years do not necessarily hold for those from 1870 to the present time. For this reason the period is made to end with 1869."—P. F. Hall, *Immigration and its effect upon the United States*, pp. 3-7.—"The decade of the twenties was one of great industrial activity on the part of the American people. Manufactures increased. The Erie Canal was completed, others were commenced, and there was a fever of excitement about them. The first railroads were projected, and vied with the canals in arousing public enthusiasm. There was a vast movement of population westward, and the Ohio River was a busy thoroughfare. All of these enterprises aroused a demand for labor, which . . . the native population would not readily supply. By the middle of the decade the stream of immigration had begun to respond, so that in 1825 the number of arrivals for the year reached the ten thousand mark for the first time since statistics had been collected. By the end of the decade the number had more than doubled . . . and in the year 1842, 104,565 [arrived and for] the first time the hundred thousand mark had been reached. Such an enormous increase in immigration as this could not fail to have its effect upon the social life of the nation, and to attract widespread attention. Coupled with the changing nature of industry, it brought many new problems before the American people—congestion, tenement house problems, unemployment, etc. . . . Yet during the twenties it seems that the immigrants were, on the whole, in good favor. . . . The hard manual labor on the construction enterprises of the period was mainly performed by Irish laborers, who flocked over in great numbers, constituting the largest single element in the immigration stream, amounting to probably nearly half of the entire number. It was believed by many Americans, as well as by foreign travelers and observers, that the canals and railroads could never have been built without these sturdy Irishmen."—H. P. Fairchild, *Immigration*, pp. 62-63.—See also JEW:

United States: 17th-18th centuries; IRELAND: 1847-1860; U.S.A.: 1865-1872.

1835-1915. — Immigration legislation. — "In earlier days neither the Federal Government nor State governments had passed any laws to protect the United States against the immigration of undesirable persons of whatever kind. Even the energetic action of those promoting the so-called 'Native American' or 'Know Nothing' movements, from 1835 to 1860, resulted in no protective legislation. Indeed, these movements were largely based on opposition to the immigration of Catholics rather than to that of persons undesirable for other reasons. In 1836 the Secretary of State was requested to collect information respecting the immigration of foreign paupers and criminals. In 1838 the Committee on the Judiciary of the House of Representatives was instructed to consider the expediency of providing by law against the introduction into the United States of vagabonds and paupers deported from foreign countries. Moreover, a bill, presented on the recommendation of the Committee, proposed a fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for from one to three years, for any master who took on board his vessel, with the intention of transporting to the United States, any alien passenger, who was an idiot, lunatic, one afflicted with any incurable disease, or one convicted of an infamous crime. The bill, however, was not considered. The early 'Native American' movement had been local, confined to New York City at first, afterwards spreading to Philadelphia, but in 1852 the secret oath-bound organization that took the name of the American Party, the members of which were popularly called the Know Nothings, came into national politics, and for a few years exerted not a little power, carrying nine State elections in 1855. Later, in something of a reaction against this 'Know Nothing' movement, which finally proposed only the exclusion of foreign paupers and criminals, there was a definite effort made to encourage immigration. In 1864, on the recommendation of President Lincoln, a bill encouraging immigration was passed. In 1866 a joint resolution condemned the action of Switzerland and other nations in pardoning persons convicted of murder and other infamous crimes on condition that they would emigrate to the United States, and in 1868 the encouraging act was repealed. Some of the States had provided for the collection of money to support immigrants who had become public charges; but these laws were finally declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court, and in 1882 the first Federal Immigration Law was approved. This forbade convicts, except political offenders, lunatics, idiots, and persons likely to become public charges, to land."—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, pp. 42-44.—In 1885 "a law forbidding the importation of contract labor was passed. It made no provision, however, for inspection or the deportation of contract laborers. The defect . . . was remedied [in 1887] by an amendment giving the Secretary of the Treasury the right to enforce its provisions, [and in 1888] another amendment provided for the deportation within a year of any immigrant landed contrary to the law of 1885."—*Selected articles on immigration, in Debaters' Handbook* (M. K. Reely, comp.), p. 63.—"During the following years there was considerable agitation for further restriction or regulation, which culminated in 1888 in the selection of the 'Ford Committee' by the House of Representatives. In the testimony before the committee it was shown that sometimes immigrants coming

by steamer to Quebec, within forty-eight hours of their arrival, applied for shelter in the alms houses of the State of New York, and like cases of gross abuse existed by the thousands. No further legislation, however, was enacted until 1891, when a bill was passed which added to the excluded classes persons suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, and polygamists, but from that time on there has been an earnest effort to protect the United States against such undesirable immigrants. . . . Under the law of 1891 the office of Superintendent of Immigration was authorized, and for the first time Federal control of immigration was completely and definitely established. . . . Notwithstanding the new law, however, the question of immigration continued to receive attention in Congress, and was extensively agitated throughout the country; a strong movement for restriction being developed, owing to the industrial depression, 1890-1896, and the general curtailment of employment. [See also U.S.A.: 1896-1897.] Extensive investigations were also conducted by joint committees of Congress and by the Industrial Commission, but with the exception of an amendment to an appropriation act in 1894, raising the head tax on immigrants from 50 cents to \$1.00, no immigration legislation was enacted until 1903. . . . The final report of the Industrial Commission, containing recommendations relative to immigration legislation, was submitted to Congress on February 20, 1902, and shortly afterwards a bill was introduced in the House which was substantially in accord with the recommendations made.\* The principal object of the bill was to codify in concise form all immigration legislation previously enacted, from the act of March 3, 1875, to the act of 1894, and to arrange the legislation in regular order and sequence according to the specific subjects dealt with in the bill. When the Industrial Commission bill was before the House, an amendment was added providing for the exclusion of all persons over 15 who were unable to read the English language or some other language, excepting the wives, children under 18 years of age, and parents and grandparents of admissible immigrants. . . . Besides eliminating the educational test, and raising the head tax from \$1 to \$2, the Senate also added provisions making it unlawful for any person to assist in the unlawful entry or naturalization of alien anarchists, all of which amendments were accepted by the House. . . . From the act just mentioned until the act of February 20, 1907, Congress did not enact any laws of general importance affecting immigration. On February 14, 1903, the Department of Commerce and Labor was established, and the Commissioner-General of Immigration was placed under the jurisdiction and supervision of that department. . . . A bill introduced by Senator Dillingham of Vermont, which provided for some important administrative changes in the immigration act of 1903, was reported from the Senate committee, March 29, 1906. . . . The head tax on immigrants was now to be \$5 instead of \$2, as formerly; imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, unaccompanied children under 17 years of age, and persons 'who are found to be and are certified by the examining surgeon as being mentally or physically defective, such mental or physical defect being of such a nature as may affect the ability of such aliens to earn a living,' were added to the excluded classes; the provision of the existing law excluding prostitutes was amended to include 'women or girls coming into the United States for the purpose of prostitution, or for any other

immoral purpose'; steamship companies were required to furnish lists of outgoing passengers; and the creation of a division of distribution in the Bureau of Immigration was authorized. In the Senate the bill was amended by the insertion of a literacy test which provided for the exclusion from the United States of 'all persons over 16 years of age and physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language or some other language; but an admissible immigrant or a person now in or hereinafter admitted to this country may bring in or send for his wife, his children under 18 years of age, and his parents or grandparents over 50 years of age, if they are otherwise admissible, whether they are able to read or not.' . . . [In the amended bill the head tax was reduced from \$5 to \$4.]—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, pp. 331-335.—In 1913 a bill providing a literacy test, passed by both houses, was vetoed by President Taft, whose example was followed by President Wilson, when a bill to the same effect was introduced and passed in 1915.

1862-1913.—**Regulation of Asiatic immigration.**—"The Chinese began to come to California in the early 50's. At first they were welcomed, but when their competition began to be felt, restrictive legislation was demanded. Various [California] state laws were passed; . . . in 1855 a tax of \$55 was imposed on every Chinese immigrant. A state law prohibited all Chinese or Mongolians from entering the state. [This law which was passed in 1858], continued until 1876 when a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States rendered all state legislation unconstitutional and made the regulation of immigration a national function. [A treaty made in 1868 (Burlingame Treaty) denied rights of naturalization to Chinese but declared that] 'Chinese subjects visiting or residing in the United States shall enjoy the same privileges, immunities, and exemptions in respect to travel or residence as may there be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nations.' Following on agitation and the veto by President Hayes of a bill to limit the carriage of Chinese, by steamship lines, a new treaty was made with China in 1880. [See RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.] . . . [In] 1882 a Chinese exclusion . . . [bill] providing that immigration of Chinese laborers should be suspended for . . . ten years, . . . was approved and became a law. [See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1864-1920.] . . . [Before the ten years Exclusion Act expired, on failure to ratify a treaty proposed by China, Congress passed a bill providing for exclusion of Chinese laborers, and in 1892] a law was passed continuing the law of 1882 for another ten years. [This Act provided for registration of all in the United States, and for deportation in case of non-registration within a year. (See U.S.A.: 1892: Chinese Exclusion Act.)] . . . [In] 1894 a new treaty was agreed to at the request of China. It provided for exclusion of all Chinese laborers for a term of ten years. Those going back were allowed to return here provided they had a wife, child, or parent, or property worth \$1000 in the United States. Registration was still required. This treaty covered practically the same ground as existing legislation . . . [all of which was reenacted by an Act of 1902 and again in] 1904 upon the refusal of China to continue the treaty of 1894. . . . [The Act of 1904 also extended] all legislation to insular possessions. . . . In 1906 the question of similar legislation against the immigration of Japanese came up. Bills introduced into Congress providing for an extension of Chinese Exclusion Act to embrace

the Japanese failed to pass, [and] the matter was finally settled by the passport provision in the general immigration law of 1907. [In] 1911, a treaty of commerce and navigation was entered into with Japan, of which the first article reads as follows:

"The subjects or citizens of each of the high contracting parties shall have liberty to enter, travel, and reside in the territories of the other, to carry on trade, wholesale and retail, to own or lease and occupy houses, manufactories, warehouses, and shops, to employ agents of their choice, to lease land for residential and commercial purposes, and generally to do anything incident to or necessary for trade, upon the same terms as native subjects or citizens, submitting themselves to the laws and regulations there established. They shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatever, to pay any charges or taxes other or higher than those that are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens. The subjects or citizens of each of the high contracting parties shall receive, in the territories of the other, the most constant protection and security for their persons and property and shall enjoy in this respect the same rights and privileges as are or may be granted to native subjects or citizens, on their submitting themselves to the conditions imposed upon the native subjects and citizens."—*Selected articles on immigration*, in *Debaters' Handbook* (M. K. Reely, comp.), pp. 267-270.—See also CALIFORNIA: 1900-1920; JAPAN: 1905-1914; RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1909; 1913-1921.

ALSO IN: R. L. Buell, *Development of the anti-Japanese agitation in the United States (Political Science Quarterly, Dec., 1922)*.

1870-1910.—**Increase of immigration.—Effect of economic conditions.—Changed character and nationality of immigrants.**—"In the period from 1870 to 1905, immigration increased more than two fold. In 1870 the total immigration was 387,203 [see U.S.A.: 1870]; in 1903 it had reached the enormous number of 857,046, and, in 1905, the still more significant figure of 1,026,499. Directly after 1870 a time of industrial and commercial depression began, culminating in the panic of 1873. The barometer of immigration, always sensitive to such changes in the industrial atmosphere, began to fall, though there was no rapid movement until the panic was well under way. In fact, immigration increased to 459,803 in 1873; but it fell in the following year to 313,339 and then steadily diminished to 138,469 in 1878. [See also U.S.A.: 1880; Tenth census.] After this it very suddenly increased again, and in 1882 it reached 788,902—the largest immigration of any year except 1903, 1904, and 1905. A part of this sudden increase in 1882 and the two subsequent years, must be ascribed to the promulgation of the 'May Laws' by Russia, which caused large numbers of Hebrews to emigrate. Thus, immigration from Russia, exclusive of Poland and Finland, was nearly four times as great in 1882 as in 1881, and by 1890 was more than seven times as great. But, in addition to these special causes, there seems to have been a general advance all along the line of nations. One reason for this may have been the enactment by Congress of the first general immigration act of August 3, 1882, and the fear that this might be the forerunner of further restrictive legislation, a fear which has undoubtedly operated during the last two or three years. After 1882 numbers again diminished, making another low point of 334,203 in 1886. [See also U.S.A.: 1890.] Then an increase took place until the total reached 570,663 in 1892. In 1893 came the epidemic of cholera

in the East and quarantine regulations at various ports, followed by a period of commercial depression lasting from 1804 to 1808. As a result of these causes, immigration fell off largely, touching a minimum of 229,299 in 1808. [See also U.S.A.: 1900 (June).] From that year it rose by rapid strides to 648,743 in 1902; to 857,046 in 1903; to 812,870 in 1904; and to 1,026,499 in 1905. The total for 1905 was an increase of 26 per cent. over that of 1904; 58 per cent. over that of 1902; and 349 per cent. over that of 1808. The record for a single day seems to have been reached on May 7, 1905, when 12,000 immigrants entered New York inside of twelve hours. . . . It appears that the total immigration to the United States from the close of the Revolutionary War to 1905 was not far from twenty-three millions, a movement of population unprecedented in history. This was divided by decades as follows:

1821 to 1830 .....	143,439
1831 to 1840 .....	599,125
1841 to 1850 .....	1,713,251
1851 to 1860 .....	2,598,214
1861 to 1870 .....	2,314,824
1871 to 1880 .....	2,812,191
1881 to 1890 .....	5,246,613
1891 to 1900 .....	3,687,564
1901 to 1905 (five years) ....	3,833,076

Total, 1821-1905 ..... 22,948,297."

—P. F. Hall, *Immigration and its effects upon the United States*, pp. 7-9.—"The year 1905 broke all previous records in the history of immigration to the United States, the number of immigrants recorded for the twelve months ending June 30 being 1,026,499. But the numerical strength of the movement was not its most serious aspect: the character of immigration . . . [had] undergone radical changes in the past few years. . . . In 1905 the Slavic and Iberian countries of eastern and southern Europe furnished nearly three-fourths of the total. . . . The very high rate of illiteracy among immigrants from southeastern Europe, together with racial, social, religious, and political distinctions of a fundamental character, render them less assimilable, and therefore less desirable, than immigrants from northern Europe. . . . The general prosperity of America is undoubtedly the most important cause of immigration, for most of the immigrants come at the inducement of friends and relatives who have preceded them. Steamship agents testified in 1901 that from 40 to 55 per cent. of those who come to our shores have their passage prepaid by friends in this country; if to this be added those to whom money is sent from this side for the purchase of tickets abroad, the proportion taking passage at the expense of their friends would amount to about two-thirds of the whole. The facility of transportation and the activity of steamship agents are powerful aids to emigration, but they do not, in the long-run, determine its direction. Religious persecution, or rather anti-Semitism, which is a compound of religious persecution and race antagonism, is still [1905] an active cause of emigration from Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Roumania. These persecutions began in Russia about 1880 and continued for two or three years, when they ceased to some extent, but were renewed in 1891 and . . . continued off and on until 1907. In three months of 1900 more than 20,000 Jews left Roumania, in a most helpless and pitiable condition; and many of them had to be assisted to emigrate by the agents of the Baron Hirsch

Fund. . . . The most serious social problem presented by the immigration of recent years is the tendency of the foreign-born to congregate in the slums of the larger cities: in 1900, while making up only a little over one-eighth of the total population of the United States, they formed one-fourth of the total population of the cities and a much larger proportion in many places; thus the foreign-born formed 47 per cent. of the population of Fall River, 39 per cent. of Duluth, 37 per cent. of New York, 35 per cent. of Boston, 34 per cent. of San Francisco and Chicago. The tendency to congregate in the large cities is particularly marked among the Russians, Poles, Italians, and Irish. This accumulation of colonies in the great cities is the principal obstacle to the assimilation of immigrants which is the great desideratum. If they could be distributed more evenly throughout the country, the process of Americanization would go on much faster."—J. H. Latane, *America as a world power (American Nation Series, v. 25, pp. 285-291)*.

"Immigration from southern Italy commenced in 1871, but until 1877 less than a thousand a year arrived [in the United States]. . . . By 1880, the tales of returned immigrants had fired the imagination of those at home, and 5,000 a year sailed for America, while the decade 1906-1916 shows an enormous total of 2,109,974 Italians who have come here during these years, the largest numbers in 1907 and 1914, and the smallest number in 1916, because of the war. Of these two million Italians who have entered the country, 333,231 are Northern Italians and all the rest are from southern Italy and Sicily. Italians may now be found in every state of [the] Union and even in Alaska, Hawaii, and the Philippine Islands. The greatest concentration of Italian population is in the states of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Illinois, California, Connecticut, Ohio, Rhode Island and Louisiana. New York City, with all its other race elements, contains approximately 600,000 Italians, making it, after Naples, the largest Italian city in the world."—A. Mangano, *Sons of Italy*, pp. 37-38.—"Migrating as families the Hebrews from eastern Europe are pretty evenly divided between the sexes. Their illiteracy is 26 per cent., about the average. Artisans and professional men are rather numerous among them. They come from cities and settle in cities—half of them in New York. . . . The first stream of Russo-Hebrew immigrants started flowing in 1882 in consequence of the reactionary policy of Alexander III. It contained many students and members of scholarly families, who stimulated intellectual activity among their fellows here and were leaders in radical thought. . . . Besides the Russian Jews we are receiving large numbers from Galicia, Hungary, and Roumania. The last are said to be of a high type, whereas the Galician Jews are the lowest. . . . In the '80's numerous rural colonies of Hebrews were planted, but, despite much help from outside, all except the colonies near Vineland, New Jersey, utterly failed. In New York and New England there are more than a thousand Hebrew farmers, but most of them speculate in real estate, keep summer boarders, or depend on some side enterprise—peddling, cattle trading or junk buying—for a material part of their income. The Hebrew farmers are said to number in all 6000."—E. A. Ross, *Old world in the new*, pp. 145-147.—See also JEWS: Rumania: 1856-1902; United States: 10th century.—"With the coming of the eighties the original contingent of Bohemians and Poles began to be overlaid by a much larger

volume of newcomers differing in various important respects from the old. In the first place, the later Slavic immigrants were largely of nationalities previously little represented in America. Since up to 1899 the American immigration data are classified only by 'country of last permanent residence' and not by nationality, it is not possible to get any precise measure of this change in the make-up of the Slavic stream. Neither can the beginning of the movement to America among the newer immigrant nationalities—Slovaks and Ruthenians, Slovenians and Croatsians, Bulgarians, Serbians and Russians—be dated in any hard and fast way. Apparently, as already said, the impulse spread from the Poles in Germany eastward to their brothers in Galicia in the latter part of the seventies, and to the Poles in Russia somewhat later. The Slovaks began to come in considerable numbers in the early eighties, and the Ruthenians at about the same time. . . . The South Slavs began to come to America somewhat later. . . . It was not till about 1892 that the movement became noticeably important among them. . . . It was not till toward the middle of the nineties that Croatsians, and especially Croatsians from the country back of the coast, began coming in numbers. Serbians and Bulgarians are still more recent comers, numerous only since 1902 or so, but growing rapidly. As to Russians, of 66,000 in the . . . years (1899 to 1909 inclusive), over nine-tenths came after 1902 and over two-thirds in the . . . year [1906-1909]. . . . The Teutonic element of the older immigration, to which the Bohemian was very similar, was not looking primarily for wage jobs, but for independence, especially the independence of the farm owner. The same was largely true of the British immigrants, English, Welsh, and Scotch. Besides, neither belonged, in any sense, to the class of cheap labor. The Irish alone were not enough to supply the demand for 'hands,' and French-Canadians, while an important element in New England, have not been numerous elsewhere. Italians and Slavs, proving most available, were consequently called in to meet the want. . . . Historically, the American origin of the more recent immigration, so far as such a movement can have a specific origin, seems to have been the desire of certain Pennsylvania anthracite mine owners to replace the employes that they found hard to deal with, and especially the Irish, with cheaper and more docile material. . . . In a number of places these raw recruits of industry seem to have been called in as the result of a strike, and there probably were plenty of instances of sending agents abroad to hire men or of otherwise inducing labor to immigrate either under contract or with an equivalent understanding. These proceedings were, of course, perfectly legal up to 1885, when the law forbidding the importation of labor under contract was passed. [See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1862-1920.] . . . An interesting account of the coming of the first Poles to the Connecticut valley farms of Massachusetts tells how here, as in Pennsylvania, the influx was in direct response to a demand on the part of employers: It was about twenty years ago [written in 1920] that the Poles were first brought to the Connecticut Valley. In the particular section under consideration, the farmers could not hire men and boys to work on their farms, or girls and women to assist in the household work. The demand was pressing. Charles Parsons of Northampton, who has since died, then a pushing, aggressive farmer, conceived the idea of going to New York and Castle Garden and there securing enough of the strong and

sturdy immigrants to meet the demand for farm and domestic labor. . . . The character of the later Slavic influx naturally produced a territorial distribution quite different from that of the older movement. The new immigrants, guided in the main by the chances of good wages rather than of cheap land, rapidly found their way to the points where there was a demand for their undaunted though unskilled labor. Once within the country, no contract labor law impeded the employers' agents, and men were drafted off to different places according as hands were needed in mine, coke oven, rolling mill, lumber camp, or, less typically, factory. Consequently, while the immigrants of the preceding period had mainly gone to the farming country lying north and west of Chicago, these later comers, answering primarily the call for labor in mines and related industries, found their center of gravity in Pennsylvania, and spread thence through the industrial districts, especially the industrial districts of the middle West, and above all to the various mining and metal-working centers throughout the country."—P. Davis, *Immigration and Americanization*, pp. 115, 156-157, 159, 161-162.—"While the Bohemians and the Moravians, thanks to a great intellectual awakening, have come nearly abreast of the Germans, the bulk of the Slavs remain on a much lower plane of culture. In ignorance and illiteracy, in the prevalence of superstition . . . in the subservience of the common people to the upper classes, in the low position of woman, in the subjection of the child to the parent, in coarseness of manner and speech, and in low standards of cleanliness and comfort, a large part of the Slavic world remains at the level of our English forefathers in the days of Henry the Eighth. According to mother-tongue, there were in this country in 1910, 941,000 Poles, 228,000 Bohemians and Moravians, 165,000 Slovaks from the southern slopes of the Carpathians, 123,000 Slovenes from the head of the Adriatic, 78,000 Croatsians and Dalmatians, 56,000 Russians, 40,000 Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins, 30,000 Slavonians, 25,000 Ruthenians, to say nothing of 140,000 Lithuanians and Letts, who insist that they are a race apart. All told, there are 2,000,000 Slavs among us, and, if we heed the estimates of the leaders of the Slav groups, we should reckon at least 3,000,000. No doubt, between five and six per cent. of the whites in this country are of Slavic blood. Of the Slav arrivals since 1899 nearly three-fourth are males. Among the immigrants from the Balkans, the men are from ten to twenty times as numerous as the women. Thirty-two per cent. have been illiterates, the proportion ranging from 1.7 per cent. among the Bohemians to 53.4 per cent. among the Ruthenians. Excepting the Bohemians, few of them have had any industrial experience or bring any valuable skill. It is as if great numbers of the English of the sixteenth century had suddenly appeared among us. . . . When, about fifteen years ago, [written in 1914] the great Slav invasion began, the American frontier was remote, shrunken, and forbidding. The newcomers were not in quest of cheap land, with independence, so much as of paying jobs from which they might hoard 'big money' and return well off to their homes. They gravitated, therefore, to the mining, metal-working, and packing centers, where there is a demand for unlimited quantities of raw labor, provided always it be cheap. . . . What irony that these peasants, straight from ox-goad and furrow, should come to constitute, so far as we can judge from official figures, three-fifths of the force in sugar

refining, two-fifths of the force in meat-packing, three-eighths of the labor in tanneries and in oil refineries, one-third of the coal-miners and of the iron- and steel-workers, one-fourth of the workers in carpet-mills, and one-fifth of the hands in the clothing trade! On the other hand, they are but one-seventh of the labor force in the glass-factories and in the cotton-mills, one-ninth of the employees in copper-mining and smelting (who are largely Finns), one-twelfth of our railway labor, and only a handful in the silk and woolen industries."—E. A. Ross, *Old World in the new*, pp. 123-125.—See also WISCONSIN: 1832-1920.

1886-1914.—Aid to immigrants. See LEGAL AID: Origins; United States: Historical retrospect.

1897.—Immigration Bill vetoed by President Cleveland. See U. S. A.: 1896-1897.

1906.—Naturalization Act.—Amended in 1909, 1910, 1913 and 1918. See NATURALIZATION: United States.

ing this number with the very much greater number of those who are influenced by the economic motive, it is scarcely too much to say that at the present time the influence which is bringing so large a number of immigrants is the economic motive rather than any other. This economic motive, too, has to do primarily with the improvement of the living conditions of the immigrant, and not with an escape from a condition of threatened starvation. In the 40's, at the time of the potato famine in Ireland, many of the thousands who came to . . . [the United States] were in serious danger of absolute starvation if they remained at home. [See also IRELAND: 1840-1860.] . . . The effect of emigration upon the European countries has both an evil and a beneficial aspect. . . . The removal from the labor force of the nation at the period of greatest ambition and energy, if not of skill, of hundreds of thousands of their workers, can not but be detrimental, pro-



ELLIS ISLAND

United States Immigration Station at New York

1907-1917.—Economic causes governing immigration.—Factors inducing immigration.—Immigration from southern and eastern Europe.—Transient immigration.—“So much sympathy was later aroused, especially during the revolutionary days of 1848 in Europe, for those who, struggling for a constitutional government in their home countries, failed and were obliged to emigrate, in order to escape political punishment, that this motive for immigration seems to most of us a force with greater influence than it, in fact, has exerted. It is probably the fact that, with the exception of the Pilgrim Fathers, possibly the Palatines, some of the Scotch-Irish in the early part of the eighteenth century [see U.S.A.: 1607-1752], and here and there a relatively few political refugees, the great mass of immigrants throughout the entire course of our history have come to this country influenced primarily by the economic motive, a desire to better their living conditions. Even with the Palatines and the Scotch-Irish, the economic motive was often prominent. . . . Taking them, . . . in the mass, and compar-

vided those workers leave to become citizens of the new country. In a very large percentage of instances, however, especially in later days, the emigrant, after a period of a few years abroad, returns to his home country with added financial means, and what is perhaps of still greater importance, a far wider outlook upon life and business methods. Frequently, too, he is inspired with new ambition and hope, which makes him much more efficient than he could have been had he remained at home. . . . In the large majority of cases, doubtless, the immediate inducement to the emigrants to leave home and sail for America comes in the form of personal letters from friends or members of their own families already in the United States. It is thus that they learn of the much higher wages which seem to them more than satisfactory. Such letters are, of course, of great interest in a country village. Often they are by no means kept in the family, but pass from hand to hand till a large proportion of the villagers have seen them, and in consequence have felt the lure of the new and prosperous land.



On the other hand, the influence of industrial depression in the United States is in the same manner felt almost as quickly, and the tide of emigration recedes. . . . In large sections of Italy, Sicily, and Austria-Hungary, in almost every village, will be found some of the returned emigrants who, after a few years of prosperous work in the United States, have returned with means which seem to the uncultured peasant ample, and with a social status much improved. The living example of such a man is perhaps a stronger influence toward leading his neighbors to emigrate to the United States than any letter, tho it is perhaps not so frequently a moving cause. . . . [Prior to the World War many considered] the means taken by the transportation companies a chief cause of emigration. These great companies who . . . [derived] an income from the transportation of emigrants. . . . [advertised] their business throughout the countries from which most emigrants come. Altho under the laws of most countries they . . . [could] not enlarge at length upon the prosperous conditions of the new country, or upon the comforts and delights of travel, but must merely make announcement of their sailings and accommodations and prices, nevertheless the agents of these companies by the hundreds . . . [invaded] the country districts, especially of southern Europe, and by skilful argument, and even perhaps by enthusiastic descriptions of the delights and comforts and satisfactions of a home life in America, . . . [stimulated] many more to come than otherwise would be possible. . . . A good authority stated that two of the leading steamship lines had 5,000 or 6,000 ticket agents in Galicia alone. . . . The steerage business is of great importance to all the lines operating passenger ships between those countries and the United States, and the keen competition stimulates greatly their efforts. . . . In Hungary members of the Immigration Commission were shown letters written by such agents to persons instructing them how to leave the country without the consent of the Government and indicating routes to be followed by which they might avoid the control stations. Records were seen of hundreds of cases of these secret agents who had been convicted, fined or imprisoned for thus soliciting emigration contrary to law, but the work is profitable and continues. . . . In earlier days . . . some European countries assisted their paupers or criminals to emigrate to the United States. . . . Such action is contrary to law, and the people would be promptly debarred, if discovered. Canada and some of the South American countries are ready to receive certain selected immigrants who are assisted to come, and Canada pays a bonus to thousands of ticket agents for directing emigrants to Canada who will go upon farms or into domestic service; but no such movement is permitted by the United States. It may be noted, however, that persons are allowed to engage abroad and bring into the United States domestic servants for their own families. . . . Besides the influence brought directly to bear in Europe, an indirect influence is also exerted by the immigrant banks, ticket agencies and other similar enterprises conducted mainly by immigrants for immigrants in the United States. It is the chief business of these institutions to exchange money, send money abroad, sell steamship tickets, and do other kinds of business that directly concern the immigrant. . . . 'Our earlier immigration records did not take account of the aliens leaving United States ports, but beginning with 1907 such a record has been kept and the figures for the

year 1908 are available. Inasmuch as in the fall of 1907 there was an industrial crisis followed by a period of depression, the return movement during the year 1908 was doubtless greatly stimulated, while on the other hand the immigration during the earlier part of 1907 was also very large. The European emigration, including the Syrians, into the United States in the year 1907 shows 22.7 per cent. of the old immigration and 77.3 per cent. of the new, whereas the difference between the immigrants of these two classes leaving the United States in the year 1908 was still more striking, those of the old immigration numbering only 8.9 per cent., while the new formed 91.1 per cent. These facts would seem to show that the races of peoples composing the older immigration are much more largely permanent residents, whereas a very large proportion of the newer immigrants are merely transient dwellers who come here for a few years to acquire a competence and then return to their home country. From the reports of the United States Commissioner-General of Immigration, which have, on the whole, been confirmed by the separate investigations of the Immigration Commission, it appears that taking a number of years in succession, 1908, 1909, 1910 (the later figures of 1911-1914 indicate the same tendencies), the number departing for every one hundred admitted varies greatly among the different races, and the distinction between the new immigration and the old in this regard is very striking. Not less than 56 per cent. and over of the North Italians and South Italians, Magyars, Turks, Croatsians, Slovenians and Slovaks were returning to Europe in those years, whereas of the Hebrews and the Irish only 8 per cent. and 7 per cent., respectively, returned. If we classify the data regarding the aliens admitted and departed, so as to indicate separately the old and the new immigration, it is found that the number departing for every one hundred admitted of the old immigration is only 16, while of the new immigration it is twice as much, 38."—J. W. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, pp. 10-12, 14-15, 20-23, 37-38.—"Numerically . . . [the Slovak] exceeds the Czech emigration. In 1905 it attained its maximum—52,368 emigrants in a single year. The causes are to be found in the political regime in Hungary. The Slovaks were subjected to political and cultural oppression; they had no rights of citizenship, they were not even allowed their language, and they were kept down to a low level of culture; in consequence they were the victims of economic and social exploitation . . . Czech emigration is distinguished in several respects from Slovak. The emigrants from Bohemia were, and still are, for the most part skilled workers, craftsmen, and the educated middle-class. Many Czech emigrants have taken up farming in America and have earned repute as farmers. They have settled principally in Iowa, Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. A considerable number of Czechs are also employed in tobacco and glass factories, and enjoy the reputation of good technical workers, owing to their considerable technical and general knowledge, brought from their old home, famous for its Czech glass. The Czechs are also known as good tailors and watchmakers, and their wives as good lacemakers and knitters. . . . A further distinction between the Czech and Slovak emigration is found in the almost unvarying intention of the Czech to settle permanently in America, while a certain percentage of the Slovak emigrants desire only to save a little money in America and return home with it. . . . To appreciate the

significance to their homeland of the reimmigration of the Slovaks it is necessary to realise the conditions ruling in the Slovak country. . . . The returning 'American'. . . puts up a neat, clean cottage, and this and his more rational methods of cultivation are observed by the neighbors, who gradually copy his example. So the level of existence of the Slovak rural population is gradually raised by voluntary improvement. . . . Two features stand out in the development of European emigration since 1918. Immediately after the war there was a considerable inflow of American settlers of European birth into Europe, mainly into the newly-formed European States. Seven thousand seven hundred and thirteen emigrants, for instance, returned to Czechoslovakia in 1920, though the movement was reversed already in 1921. In that year, according to the report of the General Immigration Commissioner, the number of Czech settlers in America increased by 25,126 persons."—G. Habrman, *Czecho-Slovak emigration to America* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial*, Nov. 16, 1922).

1910-1920.—Illiteracy among immigrants.—Americanization.—In 1910 there was "some 13,000,000 foreign-born whites in the United States, 3,000,000 of whom were ten years of age and over and were unable to speak, read, or write the English language. Over 2,500,000 of these were twenty-one years of age and over. Of these 2,500,000, over 1,500,000 were illiterate, and only 35,614 of the total 2,500,000 were in school. In other words, but a fraction over 1 per cent were undergoing any systematic training in the rudiments of Americanization. Commissioner of Education Claxton thus sums up the situation: . . . Nearly 50 per cent of the foreign-born population were males of voting age, but only 4 in every 1,000 attended school to learn our language and citizenship. Over 4,000,000 additional aliens were admitted between 1910 and 1915."—H. C. Hill, *Americanization movement* (*American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1919, p. 611).—The Federal Government had already taken steps to meet the problem, and combat the peril of maintaining so large a population in ignorance of the ideals upon which the government was built. "In 1906 Congress created a bureau which has a definite contact with the entire foreign population of the country over eighteen years of age. . . . In nearly twenty-two hundred communities throuthout the entire nation, wherever foreigners are found, the public schools are opening their doors to work in concert with the federal government in providing the way for the Americanization of the entire foreign population of the United States. This relationship is the result of carefully workt-out plans, initiated by the federal government in 1914, thru the Bureau of Naturalization. . . . In April, 1914, this undertaking on a national scale was proposed in recognition of reactions in various parts of the country which were the direct outgrowth of the administration of the naturalization law by the federal government, commencing in 1906, for the first time in its history. In 1908 and 1909 classes were formed in various localities by the public schools to teach citizenship responsibilities as a result of the denials of petitioners for naturalization who were found too ignorant to be admitted to citizenship by highly conscientious members of the state and federal judiciary. Some of these classes were organized at the direct instance of representatives of the Bureau of Naturalization, while others grew out of the interest in the foreigner felt by many patriotic individuals who had devoted much of their lives to the study

of the immigrant problem. . . . The policy of the Bureau of Naturalization since its organization in 1906 has been to facilitate the naturalization of the candidates for citizenship. As we have more and more become acquainted with his aims and ambitions, his hopes and despairs, his difficulties, his trials, his tribulations, we have broadened our viewpoint, and the facilities which the Bureau of Naturalization now offers as compared with those during the first ten years are as different, probably, as America differs from some of the rigidity of former European countries."—R. F. Crist, *Federal plan of Americanization work with the foreign-born* (*National Education Association, Addresses and proceedings of 57th Annual Meeting, June 28-July 5, 1919, pp. 471, 472, 474*).—This was the status of affairs in 1920, when the Dillingham Act provided a momentary check to the flow of European immigration.—See also AMERICANIZATION; EDUCATION; Modern developments; 20th century; Evening schools: United States; NATURALIZATION: United States.

1917.—Burnett Act.—Literacy test.—Effect of act on Asiatic immigration.—The Burnett Act, 1917, "provides that in case of aliens who are debarrd for physical or mental reasons and whose disability might have been detected by the transportation company through a competent medical examination at the time of embarkation, the transportation company shall pay the sum of \$200 and in addition a sum equal to that paid by such alien for his transportation from the initial point of departure indicated in his ticket to the port of arrival and such sum shall be paid to the alien on whose account it is assessed. In consequence of these and the preceding regulations, the transportation of diseased aliens has become so unprofitable that the steamship companies have provided, at the leading foreign ports, a medical inspection similar to that made in the United States. . . . On February 1, 1917, the House of Representatives passed the Burnett immigration bill over the veto of President Wilson, and four days later it became a law through like action on the part of the Senate, thus ending a struggle for the restriction of immigration which had continued with greater or less intensity for more than twenty years. . . . One of several important, or even radical features of the new law, the literacy test, or strictly speaking the reading test, is the best known and undoubtedly the most important and far-reaching provision of the measure. . . . [This test refuses admission to] all aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who can not read the English language, or some other language or dialect, including Hebrew or Yiddish: *Provided*, That an admissible alien, or any alien heretofore or hereafter legally admitted, or any citizen of the United States, may bring in or send for his father or grandfather over fifty-five years of age, his wife, his mother, his grandmother, or his unmarried or widowed daughter, if otherwise admissible, whether such relative can read or not; and such relative shall be permitted to enter. . . . Altho the reading test is the most discust feature of the new law its effect in the long run may be of less moment than the effect of the so-called latitude and longitude clause of the law, which awkwardly, but doubtless effectually, closes the door against pretty much all Asiatic immigration not already barred by the Chinese Exclusion Law and Treaty and the 'gentlemen's agreement' with Japan. What is perhaps of equal importance, it provides for the exclusion of the Japanese in the event that the gentlemen's agreement should become inoperative. . . . Briefly stated the restricted

area described in the provision . . . includes India, Siam, Indo-China, Afghanistan, parts of Russian Turkestan and Arabia on the continent of Asia, and New Guinea, Borneo, Sumatra, and Java as well as many lesser islands. The Philippines and Guam, and a large part of China, are also within the described area, but of course the islands named are 'possessed by the United States' and accordingly are not affected, while the people of China are not under the ban because immigrants from that country are already debarred, in a technical sense by treaty, altho practically this is accomplished under the Chinese Exclusion Law. . . . In addition to illiterates and natives of the restricted area in Asia, the new law makes several more or less important additions to the classes who were denied admission to the United States under previous acts. These new debarred classes include persons of constitutional psychopathic inferiority, persons afflicted with chronic alcoholism, vagrants, persons who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property, or who are affiliated with any organization which so advocates or teaches, and stowaways, except that otherwise admissible stowaways may be admitted by the Secretary of Labor. . . . The new law fixes the 'head tax' at \$8.00 on every alien entering the United States, excepting children under sixteen years of age who accompany their father or their mother. In the previous law the tax was \$4.00 on every alien without reference to age."—J. V. Jenks and W. J. Lauck, *Immigration problem*, pp. 45, 423, 425, 432-433, 435-436, 442.—The administrative fine was increased to \$200.

1920.—Stand taken by American Federation of Labor on question of Asiatic immigration. See AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR: 1920.

1920.—Immigration as shown by census statistics. See U. S. A.: 1921: First results of 1920 census.

1920-1921.—Efforts to check immigration.—During the World War the country generally became alarmed at the large number of the population who were alien at heart if not in fact. Efforts were made in Congress to pass legislation which would check immigration. Of the bills introduced the Johnson Bill was intended to provide for the protection of the citizens of the United States by the temporary suspension of immigration. . . . According to the original bill, the period of immigration suspension, for all but blood relations of United States citizens, was to be two years. But after considerable discussion the House by a vote of 293 to 41 passed the bill with two amendments; one limiting the period of immigrant exclusion to one year instead of two, and the other allowing brothers and sisters of aliens now resident here to enter the country. . . . [The Sterling Bill was introduced] to create an immigration board . . . to consist of 'five members, including the Secretary of Labor, who shall be a member *ex officio*, and four members appointed by the President of the United States by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.' . . . [More important was the] Dillingham Bill . . . to limit the immigration of aliens of any nationality to the United States in any fiscal year to five per cent of the number of persons of such nationality resident in the United States. [The introducer of the Box Bill proposed to suspend immigration to June 30, 1951, and provide for the Americanization of aliens by the creation of] a 'Board of Americanization and Naturalization, which shall consist of a chairman and four associate members, who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, not more

than three of whom shall be members of the same political party.' The duties of the board, looking to the assimilation and ultimate naturalization of our aliens, . . . [were] also defined. [Two other bills were the] King Bill to suspend immigration to the United States for six months [and the] Overman Bill . . . to prohibit immigration for a period of five years."—*Foreign Born, Feb., 1921*, pp. 104-105.—"In December 1920 the House of Representatives passed . . . [the Johnson Bill, which, as amended] provided for suspending practically all immigration for a period of 14 months. . . . The Senate, however, was more conservative, and after extended hearings adopted in a modified form the Dillingham per centum limit plan as a substitute for total suspension, and eventually this prevailed. This per centum limit plan was first proposed by Senator Dillingham in 1913 in a bill which provided that the number of aliens of any nationality who might be admitted to the United States in any fiscal year should be limited to 10 per cent of the number of persons of such nationality who were resident in the United States, according to the census of 1910. At the time it was presented this bill represented a rather extreme attitude of restriction, but how materially sentiment changed during and after the war is reflected in the fact that when the idea was finally incorporated into law the limit was fixed at 3 instead of 10 per cent as originally proposed. The Senate bill prevailed, almost unanimously, but Executive approval was withheld, resulting in a 'pocket veto,' which obviously reflected President Wilson's opposition to immigration restriction. . . . The measure was again introduced in the special session which followed President Harding's inauguration, passed both Houses almost without opposition, and became a law on May 19, 1921. The principal provisions of the per centum limit act are as follows:—1. The number of aliens of any nationality who may be admitted into the United States in any fiscal year shall be limited to 3 per cent of the number of foreign-born persons of such nationality resident in the United States as shown by the census of 1910; and not more than 20 per cent of the annual quota of any nationality may be admitted in any month. 2. Nationality is determined by country of birth. . . . 3. In effect the law is applicable only to immigration from Europe, Persia, Africa, Australia, New Zealand, the territory formerly comprising Asiatic Turkey, and certain islands of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Immigration from countries of the New World and the major part of Asia is, generally speaking, not within the scope of the Act."—W. W. Husband, *Immigration under the new American law* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial*, Nov. 16, 1922).

1920-1921.—Anti-Japanese law in California.—Japanese population in the West.—"Amendment, California Alien Land Law, adopted November 2, 1920.—An Act relating to the rights, powers and disabilities of aliens and of certain companies, associations and corporations with respect to property in this state, providing for escheats in certain cases, prescribing the procedure therein, requiring reports of certain property holdings to facilitate the enforcement of this act, prescribing penalties for violation of the provisions hereof, and repealing all acts or parts of acts inconsistent or in conflict herewith. *The people of the State of California do enact as follows:* Section 1. All aliens eligible to citizenship under the laws of the United States may acquire, possess, enjoy, transmit and inherit real property, or any interest therein, in this state, in the same manner

and to the same extent as citizens of the United States, except as otherwise provided by the laws of this state. Section 2. All aliens other than those mentioned in section one of this act may acquire, possess, enjoy and transfer real property, or any interest therein, in this state, in the manner and to the extent and for the purpose prescribed by any treaty now existing between the government of the United States and the nation or country of which such alien is a citizen or subject, and not otherwise. . . . Section 4. Hereafter no alien mentioned in section two hereof and no company, association or corporation mentioned in section three hereof, may be appointed guardian of that portion of the estate of a minor which consists of property which such alien or such company, association or corporation is inhibited from acquiring, possessing, enjoying or transferring by reason of the provisions of this act. The public administrator of the proper county, or any other competent person or corporation, may be appointed guardian of the estate of a minor citizen whose parents are ineligible to appointment under the provisions of this section. . . . Section 7. Any real property hereafter acquired in fee in violation of the provisions of this act by any alien mentioned in section two of this act, or by any company, association or corporation mentioned in section three of this act, shall escheat to, and become and remain the property of the State of California. The attorney general or district attorney of the proper county shall institute proceedings to have the escheat of such real property adjudged and enforced in the manner provided by section four hundred seventy-four of the Political Code and title eight, part three of the Code of Civil Procedure. Upon the entry of final judgment in such proceedings, the title to such real property shall pass to the State of California."—*Present-day immigration (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Jan., 1921, pp. 13-15)*.—See also CALIFORNIA: 1920.—The census bureau in 1921 announced that Japanese farmers settled almost exclusively in the far western states. California led with 5,152, Washington had 699, Colorado, 321, and Oregon, 224.

1921.—Operation of Dillingham Act.—Criticism.—"The Dillingham Act embodies a plan for 'Rationing' immigration according to nationality. It limits the number of aliens admissible during the next fiscal year [1920-1921] to 3 per cent. of the number of the particular nationality in each case resident in the United States at the time of the 1910 census. There is a further provision that not more than 20 per cent. of any particular quota may be admitted during a single month. Exceptions are made in favour of Government employees with their families and servants, visitors for pleasure or business, other persons merely going through the United States as a convenient route, one-year residents of Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba, Mexico, or Central or South America, and children (if under eighteen years of age) of American citizens. . . . The problem was to check immigration from Eastern and South-Eastern Europe especially. A specific discrimination against nationals of particular countries might have led to troublesome diplomatic complications. As soon as it was discovered that the same purpose could be served by a percentage limitation based on the returns of the 1910 census, a quite innocent and unobjectionable solution was ready to hand. It was estimated that the quota of Eastern and Southern European countries would amount to only about 153,000 persons as against a pre-war annual average of 738,000. Italy would be allowed to send only 40,000, in-

stead of 221,000, as in the last year before the war; Greece, 3,000, as against 26,000; and what was formerly known as Turkey, 2,800, as against 31,000. Though the Dillingham Act was one of the most popular measures of recent years—the records of the Senate, it is said, would have to be searched for a long time to find another Bill passed by seventy-eight Ayes to one No—it did not escape criticism. The percentage limit, it was pointed out, was a purely arbitrary one, not based on any principle of reasonable selection, and not attempting to take into account either the needs of American industry or the conditions prevailing in the countries from which the immigrants came. . . . The steamship companies were naturally loud in their protests. They foresaw that their passenger services would inevitably be dislocated. Vessels employed in carrying Italians, Poles, and Greeks . . . would have to be transferred to other routes, or run without profit, or laid up. In the event of their bringing in immigrants from a country whose monthly quota had been exceeded, they would be faced with the alternative of either carrying the rejected aliens back to the port of embarkation and bearing the entire cost of the double voyage, or of maintaining them on board at the port of arrival until they could be included in the next month's quota. The actual working of the Dillingham Act has amply justified the prediction that its operation would cause endless trouble and confusion. At the beginning there were frequent difficulties through insufficient notice of the new law having been given in the countries of origin. By June 6th an excess of 1,367 immigrants over Italy's monthly quota of 3,224 had already reached New York and Boston, and three times as many more were reported to be on their way. At the end of July a steamer carrying 550 Greeks, as well as 150 Americans who were much 'disgruntled' by the delay, was kept waiting for three days outside New York for the opening of the August list. Weeks before the end of 1921, several countries had already exhausted the whole of their quota for the year ending June next, yet new arrivals were still seeking entrance. Just before Christmas the Secretary of Labour issued an order releasing 1,150 excess immigrants, then being detained at Ellis Island for deportation, that they might spend the festive season with their friends in America, but only under bond to leave at the end of ninety days. Needless to say, there have been many cases of acute individual hardship, especially where aliens had broken up their homes and sold most of their belongings before starting for America, trusting that the visa of the American consul on their passports would ensure their admission."—H. W. Horwill, *America's new immigration policy (Contemporary Review, Apr., 1922, pp. 472-473)*.

1922.—Extension of the Dillingham Per Centum Immigration Act.—"The Act of May 19, 1921, expired by limitation on June 30, 1922, but under a joint resolution approved May 11, 1922, its operation was extended to June 30, 1924. The joint resolution further amended the law by imposing on transportation companies a fine of \$200 for each alien brought to the United States in violation of the Act, and, as an additional penalty, it is required that the offending company shall refund the passage money of each alien unlawfully brought in excess of the quota. The original Act imposed no penalty for its violation, and it is certain that a considerable part of the difficulties which have arisen during the past year would have been avoided had violations of the law resulted in monetary loss to the carriers concerned. Under

the original Act aliens were exempt from the quota provision after one year's residence in a country of the New World, but as amended a five years' residence is now required. This amendment was prompted by the fact that several thousand Europeans, who because of quota limitations and other obstacles could not come to the United States, emigrated to Cuba, Mexico, and South America with the obvious intention of . . . [entering the country] at the expiration of one year. . . . The administration of the quota law during its initial year developed many problems: . . . [but] the per centum limit law has accomplished the purpose for which it was obviously enacted with a degree of success which few anticipated. . . . While the countries of Southern and Eastern Europe, including Asiatic Turkey . . . have in the main exhausted, and in several instances exceeded, the quotas allotted to them, the opposite is true of nearly all of the countries of Northern and Western Europe, which, for the purpose of this discussion, include the British Islands, Scandinavia, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and France. . . . It is interesting to note that the older sources of immigration, in Northern and Western Europe, . . . exhausted less than one-half of their quotas during the fiscal year, [1922] while on the other hand Russia is the only country of Southern and Eastern Europe for which any considerable part of a quota remained on June 30. In other words, the movement of the year [1922] from the older sources . . . [was] apparently a perfectly normal one, although considerably smaller than it was prior to the World War, but it is impossible to say how many aliens would have come from Southern and Eastern Europe and Turkey had it not been for the limitation afforded by the Per Centum Limit Act."—W. W. Husband, *Immigration under the new American law (Manchester Guardian Commercial, Nov. 16, 1922)*.

ALSO IN: M. E. C. Barnes, *New America*.—J. R. Commons, *Races and immigrants in America*.—F. Kellor, *Immigrants in America*.—Idem, *Federal administration and the alien*.—I. A. Hourwich, *Immigration and labor*.—R. E. Park, *Immigrant press and its control*.—A. E. S. Beard, *Our foreign-born citizens*.—M. E. Harrison, *Legal aspects of the alien land legislation on the Pacific coast (American Bar Association, Journal, Aug., 1922)*.—F. C. Howe, *Has the westward tide of peoples come to an end? (Scribner's Magazine, Sept., 1922)*.—R. L. Garis, *Immigration problem (Scribner's Magazine, Sept., 1922)*.

**IMMIGRATION BRANCH OF LEGAL AID.** See LEGAL AID: Important factors in administration of legal aid.

**IMMORTAL SIX THOUSAND**, soldiers sent by Cromwell to attack Spain in 1657. See ENGLAND: 1655-1658.

**IMMORTAL THIRTEEN**, group of Democrats in Senate of Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856.

**IMMORTALS:** French, members of French Academy. See ACADEMY, FRENCH.

**Persian.**—A select corps of cavalry in the army of the Persians, under the Sassanian kings, bore this name. It numbered 10,000. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.

**IMMUNITY THEORY:** In disease. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: Serotherapy.

**IMOLA**, town in the province of Bologna, Italy. It was taken by the Venetians in 1503. See VENICE: 1404-1503.

**IMPEACHMENT:** England.—Revival of right.—In the English Parliament of 1620-1621

(reign of James I), "on the motion of the Ex-Chief Justice, Sir Edward Coke, a committee of inquiry into grievances had been early appointed. The first abuse to which their attention was directed was that of monopolies, and this led to the revival of the ancient right of parliamentary impeachment—the solemn accusation of an individual by the Commons at the bar of the Lords—which had lain dormant since the impeachment of the Duke of Suffolk in 1449. Under the Tudors impeachments had fallen into disuse, partly through the subservience of the Commons, and partly through the preference of those sovereigns for bills of attainder, or of pains and penalties. Moreover, the power wielded by the Crown through the Star Chamber enabled it to inflict punishment for many state offences without resorting to the assistance of Parliament. With the revival of the spirit of liberty in the reign of James I, the practice of impeachment revived also, and was energetically used by the Commons in the interest alike of public justice and of popular power."—T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English constitutional history*, ch. 13.

United States. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: Senate: Impeachment; PRESIDENT: United States: Impeachment proceedings.

**IMPEACHMENTS:** The following are some of the most important impeachments in history:

**Bacon, Francis** (1625). See ENGLAND: 1625: Gains of Parliament.

**Bolingbroke, Henry St. John** (1715). See ENGLAND: 1714-1721.

**Chase, Judge Samuel** (1804). See U. S. A.: 1804-1805.

**Clarendon, Edward Hyde, 1st Earl of** (1667). See ENGLAND: 1671-1673.

**Danby, Thomas Osborne, Earl of.** See below: Leeds, Thomas Osborne.

**Ferguson, James E., Governor of Texas** (1917). See TEXAS: 1917.

**Fitzharris, Edward** (1681).

**Hampden, John** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Hastings, Warren** (1787). See INDIA: 1785-1795.

**Hazlerig, Sir Arthur** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Holles, Denzil, Baron** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Humphreys, Judge W. H.** (1863).

**Johnson, Andrew** (1867). See U. S. A.: 1867 (March-May).

**Kimbolton, Lord** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Latimer, Lord** (1376).

**Leeds, Thomas Osborne, 1st Duke of** (1678). See ENGLAND: 1678-1679.

**Melville, Henry Dundas, Viscount** (1806).

**Mompesson, Sir Giles** (1621).

**Osborn, Sir Thomas.** See above: Leeds, Thomas Osborne.

**Oxford, Robert Harley, Earl of** (1715). See ENGLAND: 1714-1721.

**Pickering, Judge John** (1803).

**Pole, Earl of Suffolk** (1386).

**Pym, John** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Robinson, Charles, Governor of Kansas** (1862). See KANSAS: 1861-1865.

**Simon de Beresford** (1330).

**Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of** (1640). See ENGLAND: 1640-1641.

**Strode, William** (1642). See ENGLAND: 1642 (January).

**Sulzer, William, Governor of New York** (1913). See NEW YORK: 1913.

**IMPERATOR.**—"There can be no doubt that the title *Imperator* properly signifies one invested with *Imperium*, and it may very probably have been assumed in ancient times by every general on whom *Imperium* had been bestowed by a *Lex Curiata*. It is, however, equally certain, that in those periods of the republic with the history and usages of which we are most familiar, the title *Imperator* was not assumed as a matter of course by those who had received *Imperium*, but was, on the contrary, a much valued and eagerly coveted distinction. Properly speaking, it seems to have been in the gift of the soldiers, who hailed their victorious leader by this appellation on the field of battle; but occasionally, especially towards the end of the commonwealth, it was conferred by a vote of the Senate. . . . But the designation *Imperator* was employed under the empire in a manner and with a force altogether distinct from that which we have been considering. On this point we have the distinct testimony of Dion Cassius (xliii. 44, comp. liii. 17), who tells us that, in B.C. 46, the Senate bestowed upon Julius Cæsar the title of *Imperator*, not in the sense in which it had hitherto been applied, as a term of military distinction, but as the peculiar and befitting appellation of supreme power, and in this signification it was transmitted to his successors, without, however, suppressing the original import of the word. . . . *Imperator*, when used to denote supreme power, comprehending in fact the force of the titles *Dictator* and *Rex*, is usually, although not invariably, placed before the name of the individual to whom it is applied."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquities*, ch. 5.—See also **ROME: Republic: B.C. 45-44.**

**Final signification of the Roman title.**—"When the Roman princes had lost sight of the senate and of their ancient capital, they easily forgot the origin and nature of their legal power. The civil offices of consul, of proconsul, of censor, and of tribune, by the union of which it had been formed, betrayed to the people its republican extraction. Those modest titles were laid aside; and if they still distinguished their high station by the appellation of Emperor, or *Imperator*, that word was understood in a new and more dignified sense, and no longer denoted the general of the Roman armies, but the sovereign of the Roman world. The name of Emperor, which was at first of a military nature, was associated with another of a more servile kind. The epithet of *Dominus*, or *Lord*, in its primitive signification, was expressive, not of the authority of a prince over his subjects, or of a commander over his soldiers, but of the despotic power of a master over his domestic slaves. Viewing it in that odious light, it had been rejected with abhorrence by the first Cæsars. Their resistance insensibly became more feeble, and the name less odious; till at length the style of 'our Lord and Emperor' was not only bestowed by flattery, but was regularly admitted into the laws and public monuments."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 13.—See also **ROME: Republic: B.C. 31-A.D. 14.**

**IMPERIAL BRITISH EAST AFRICA COMPANY.** See **BRITISH EAST AFRICA COMPANY.**

**IMPERIAL CHAMBER**, supreme court of the Holy Roman empire from 1495 to 1806. See **GERMANY: 1493-1510.**

**IMPERIAL CITIES OF GERMANY.** See **CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.**

**IMPERIAL CONFERENCES**, British. See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences.**

**IMPERIAL FEDERATION LEAGUE**, Brit-

ish (1884). See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial federation: Imperial federation proposals.**

**IMPERIAL INDICCTIONS**, ancient Roman method of reckoning time. See **INDICCTIONS.**

**IMPERIAL MUSEUM**, Vienna, built in 1872-1881 in Italian High Renaissance style. The Art History museum owes its origin to a valuable collection of art works owned by Ferdinand I. It has since grown to be one of the most famous art galleries in the world. Its principal collections comprise the Egyptian antiquities, industrial art and the art treasures of the Imperial House. The picture gallery is especially famous for its masterpieces by Venetian painters, by Rubens, and Dürer. Notable also is the Natural History museum which was begun with the collection of Francis I in 1748 and has grown extensively since then. It now contains geological, palæontological, prehistoric, ethnographic and zoological objects.

**IMPERIAL PENNY POSTAGE.** See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1898.**

**IMPERIAL PRESS CONFERENCE.** See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June).**

**IMPERIAL WAR CABINET**, England. See **CABINET, ENGLISH: War cabinets.**

**IMPERIAL WAR CONFERENCE.** See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1917: Imperial War Conference.**

**IMPERIALI**, Guglielmo (1858- ), Italian statesman. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.**

**IMPERIALISM: Rome.** See **EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Imperialism.**

**Germany.** See **GERMANY: 1881-1913.**

**Great Britain.** See **BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences; CONSERVATIVE PARTY: England: 1790-1900.**

**United States.** See **U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).**

See also **EUROPE: Modern: Imperialism; Conflicting currents before World War.**

**IMPERIUM.**—"The supreme authority of the magistrates [in the Roman Republic], the 'imperium,' embraced not only the military but also the judicial power over the citizens. By virtue of the imperium a magistrate issued commands to the army, and by virtue of the imperium he sat in judgment over his fellow-citizens."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, v. 4, bk. 6, ch. 5.—See also **CONSUL, ROMAN; IMPERATOR.**

**IMPEY**, Sir Elijah (1732-1809), chief justice of Bengal. See **INDIA: 1773-1785.**

**IMPORTANTANTS**, court party in France. See **FRANCE: 1642-1643.**

**IMPORTS.** See **TARIFF.**

**IMPRESSMENT OF AMERICAN SEAMEN:** By British naval officers. See **U. S. A.: 1803: Report, etc.; 1804-1809; 1812.**

**INARUS**, king of Egypt, 5th century B.C. See **ATHENS: B.C. 460-455.**

**INCANDESCENT LAMP.** See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1841-1921.**

**INCAS**, or *Yncas*, tribe of American aborigines inhabiting Peru. See **PERU: Empire of the Incas; Paternal despotism of the Incas; 1200-1527; 1531-1533; 1533-1548; ANDESIANS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area.**

**INCENDIARY WARFARE.** See **LIQUID FIRE: Incendiary bombs; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Shot guns in World War.**

**INCOME TAX.** See **TAXATION: Growth from earliest times; Prussia, etc.; Outline in the United States; CANADA: 1015-1918; ENGLAND: 1018-1921; FRANCE: 1906-1909: Presidency, etc.; INDIA: Fi-**

nance; RUSSIA: 1915-1916; U. S. A.: 1895 (April-May); 1909 (July); 1913 (April-December); 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures; U. S. A., CONSTITUTION OF; TARIFF: 1894; DELAWARE: 1917; NEW YORK: 1919; WISCONSIN: 1911; STATE GOVERNMENT: 1913-1921.

**INCUNABULA**, term applied to books printed before 1500. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1430-1456.

**INDEBITATUS ASSUMPSIT**, legal action to recover damages for the breaking of an expressed or implied promise to pay money. See COMMON LAW: 1542; 1657.

**INDENTURE**, military taxation. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 15.

**INDENTURED SERVANTS**.—"Unskilled laborers for the exploitation of the resources of North America have always been in keen demand. Negro slavery played little part in the earlier days. . . . [Then], white persons bound to service for a term of years performed the hard work of field, forest, and farm. . . . These were indentured or indented servants, so called from the name of the contract. They were of various classes,—free willers, redemptioners, convicts."—E. Channing, *History of the United States*, v. 2, p. 367, footnote.—"At the beginning of the Revolution servants by indenture were still being advertised for sale. These included free persons, whom necessity forced into temporary bondage, as well as banished convicts. Thus, in 1753, it was announced that the *Greyhound* had arrived at the Severn, Maryland, 'with 90 persons doomed to stay seven years in his Majesty's American plantations.' Two years later the same newspaper informed the public that 'more than 100 seven-year passengers have arrived at Annapolis.' Criminals were transported to the same colony as late at least as 1774."—G. E. Howard, *Preliminaries of the Revolution*, pp. 20-21.—See also REDEMPTIONERS.

**INDEPENDENCE DAY**, anniversary of American Declaration of Independence, adopted July 4, 1776. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Authorship, etc.

**INDEPENDENCE HALL**, popular name of the old State House of Pennsylvania, on Chestnut Street, Philadelphia. Here the second Continental Congress met, May 10, 1775; Washington was chosen commander-in-chief of the Continental Army; and the Declaration of Independence was adopted, July 4, 1776. "The State House, 'Independence Hall,' was planned in 1729 and completed, except as to wings and tower, five years later. . . . The State House has witnessed many important scenes. . . . Here, in 1781, the captured standards of the army of Cornwallis were brought by a cavalry escort and formally carried into the building and laid before Congress. Here Lincoln raised a flag on Washington's Birthday, 1861, and four years later his body was carried here to lie in state. . . . The Constitution was debated, agreed to, and signed, in this building; and Franklin, who had watched and taken part in the proceedings with intense anxiety, breathed a deep sigh of relief and said, gravely, that in the vicissitudes and anxieties of day after day he had looked at the representation of the sun on the back of the chair used by Washington, the presiding officer (the same chair that had been used by Hancock); and he had wondered, day by day, whether it was a rising or a setting sun, but now he knew that it was a rising sun. The State House is a beautiful building, alike in its mass effects and in its smallest details, in the views of it from the exterior or in rooms within. Its façade is exactly centered, and similarly winged and arcaded at right and left. . . . The view through the arches of the room of the

Supreme Court, into and across the Hall of the Signing, defined by those three pilastered arches, is astonishingly effective. At the foot of the wonderful stairs now stands the Liberty Bell, upon which may still be read the Bible verse which long before the Revolution was cast upon it by its makers: 'Proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof.' . . . On the second floor is a great banquet hall, . . . occupying the entire length of the building. . . . The Hall of the Signing—about such a room such details ought to be known—is thirty-nine feet and six inches wide, by forty feet and two inches long, with a height of nineteen feet and eight inches; the intent having apparently been to have it precisely forty by forty by twenty. . . . On July 2 Congress voted formally for independence. On the third and fourth the precise form of statement was debated. And on the 'Fourth' the form written out by Jefferson, with some merely minor alterations, was accepted. Thus did the 'Fourth' begin. But nobody except Congress then knew it! The public could know little as to precisely what was going on, for the meetings were secret. After all, it was at that early period still to be deemed treason, and the delegates could not afford to be heedless of that fact. On the eighth of July the Declaration was read formally to the people, from a platform beside the State House, and the Liberty Bell rang out its peal, and all the bells of the city echoed it."—R. Shackleton, *Book of Philadelphia*, pp. 70, 71-74, 77.

ALSO IN: B. J. Lossing, *Field-book of the Revolution*, v. 2, ch. 3.—J. T. Scharf and T. Westcott, *History of Philadelphia*, v. 1, ch. 15 and 17.

**INDEPENDENCE LEAGUE**, political organization under the leadership of William Randolph Hearst. See NEW YORK CITY: 1905; NEW YORK: 1906-1910.

**INDEPENDENCE PARTY**: Austria-Hungary. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905; HUNGARY: 1897-1910.

Egypt. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.

Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1918 (November).

United States. See U. S. A.: 1908 (April-November).

**INDEPENDENT CHURCHES OF CHRIST**. See CHRISTIAN UNION.

**INDEPENDENT FILIPINO CHURCH**. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1902.

**INDEPENDENT REPUBLICANS**, or Mugwumps. See U. S. A.: 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election.

**INDEPENDENT SOCIALIST PARTY**, Germany. See GERMANY: 1916: Formation of Independent Socialist Party.

**INDEPENDENT TREASURY**, United States, term applied in United States public finance to a system, established in 1846, of directly holding and disbursing public money without employing the agency of banks. Under this procedure the treasury, on receiving the public revenue deposits the money in the vaults of the treasury at Washington, or in the various sub-treasuries distributed over the country. "If we examine carefully the legislative career of the Independent Treasury we will find that it falls naturally into three distinct periods; first, the period of inception brought on by the struggle over the old second United States Bank and the distress following the panic of 1837; second, its final establishment after numerous attempts in 1846 and its functioning from that date to the present [1921]; and lastly the recent attack following the enactment of the Federal Reserve law and the ultimate abolition of the Independent Treasury. . . . Since its establish-

ment in 1846, the history of the Sub-Treasury has fallen into three distinct periods. For the first fifteen years of its history, the 'divorce of the bank and state' was nearly complete. During the Mexican War the Sub-Treasury system worked well and managed government finances far more satisfactorily than finances were managed in the War of 1812. In 1857 came a panic, and, although the banks failed and caused the Government great embarrassment, still the Government had its money in its own hands and was able to pay its debts without trouble or delay. The success of this achievement caused Congress to amend the law in 1857 so as 'to require all disbursing officers to discontinue the use of banks for the deposit of public moneys in their charge and to deposit in some Sub-Treasury.' With the beginning of the Civil War the system entered upon its second period of development. The necessities of the war forced Chase to apply to the banks for a loan of \$50,000,000 in July of 1861. This was the first step leading to the decline of the Sub-Treasury. . . . The Federal Reserve Law was enacted December 23, 1913, and among the provisions was the statement that 'the moneys held in the general fund of the Treasury . . . upon the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury be deposited in the Federal Reserve Banks, which banks, when required by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall act as fiscal agents of the United States.' At the following session of Congress the advisability of discontinuing the Independent Treasury arose for discussion. . . . An amendment to the Legislative Executive and Judicial Appropriation Bill to eliminate the Independent Treasury was rejected after a brief debate by a vote of 13 to 32. In 1916, . . . the committee in charge of the appropriations incorporated in the legislative bill a section authorizing and directing the Secretary of the Treasury 'to report to Congress at the beginning of its next session which of the Sub-Treasuries, if any, should be continued after the end of the fiscal year 1917.' . . . [According to this report] the cost of maintaining the nine Sub-Treasuries was \$535,004.63; their total transactions, \$4,525,063,111.82. Thus, the cost of these institutions, treating the system as a whole, declared the Secretary [McAdoo], was only one-hundredth of 1 per cent. on the total transactions involved, 'an insignificant sum compared with the business done, the important service rendered and the conveniences afforded to the public.' . . . The general or current fund of the Treasury might in the discretion of the Secretary be deposited in the Federal Reserve Banks, the reserve or trust funds of the Government, viz., gold coin and bullion and silver dollars held in trust by the Government against outstanding gold and silver certificates and greenbacks were not included. The gold coin and bullion held against gold certificates now amounted to more than two billion dollars, and a considerable part of this was deposited in the Sub-Treasuries. This, in the opinion of the Secretary should not be committed to the custody of the Federal Reserve Banks, as they were private corporations, but 'should be in the physical control of the Government itself.' 'These trust funds could not be imposed upon the Federal Reserve Banks without legislation. It could only be accomplished by negotiation and agreement, involving, necessarily, compensation for the service rendered.' . . . The effect of this report was felt in both the House and Senate. In the former, Glass of Virginia reiterated the Secretary's advice, and, in the latter, Hitchcock and Reed joined hands to support the administration. The result was that Congress

passed the appropriation in 1917 providing for the maintenance of the Sub-Treasuries. . . . However, on January 26, 1918, the Bureau of Efficiency submitted a report on the work performed by the Sub-Treasuries, which the Bureau had been required to make by the legislative, executive and judicial appropriation act of 1917. . . . The Bureau recommended that all of the nine Sub-Treasuries be abolished within six months after the end of the war. It estimated that the direct annual saving to the Government would be \$450,000, which it presented as a conservative figure. The report covered in detail every function of the Sub-Treasury, including the custody of the Treasury funds, the maintenance of coin exchanges, fiscal transactions and the redemptions of paper currency. As regards the first duty the Bureau advocated the retention of the trust funds by the Treasurer in the mints and assay offices, the coin exchanges by the Federal Reserve Banks, and the redemption of paper currency by the Redemption Department at Washington at a saving of \$125,000 a year to the Government. To the Bureau, each of the duties and functions of the Sub-Treasuries could be handled with the same or greater effectiveness by the Federal Reserve Banks, the Treasury at Washington, the mints or other Government agencies. This report sounded the ultimate death-knell of the Sub-Treasury system. . . . On March 8, 1918, [the House] voted to abolish the Sub-Treasuries. The Senate, however, restored the Sub-Treasuries to the bill, perhaps, due to the pressure exerted by those interested in the patronage angle of the argument. In 1919, the Bureau again advised their extermination, and now, with the close of the war, the prestige acquired by the Federal Reserve system and the rise of reconstruction problems that overshadowed all others the fight was quickly brought to a close. On February 25, 1920, the Committee on Banking and Currency reported such a bill to the House, and on the 17th of May the bill passed the House and on the 19th the Senate. On the 24th the President signed the measure authorizing the Secretary of Treasury 'to transfer any or all of the functions performed ["by the Sub-Treasuries after July 1, 1921"] to the Treasurers of the United States or the mints or assay offices of the United States . . . or to utilize any of the Federal Reserve Banks acting as depositories or fiscal agents of the United States.'"—R. G. McGrane, *Independent treasury (Historical Outlook, May, 1921)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1837: Introduction of sub-treasury system; SUB-TREASURY.

ALSO IN: M. S. Wildman, *Independent treasury and the banks*.—W. E. Dodd, *Expansion and conflict*, pp. 103-151.

**INDEPENDENTS, or Separatists:** Their origin and opinions.—"The Puritans continued members of the church, only pursuing courses of their own in administering the ordinances, and it was not till about the middle of the reign of Elizabeth that the disposition was manifested among them to break away from the church altogether, and to form communities of their own. And then it was but a few of them who took this course: the more sober part remained in the church. The communities of persons who separated themselves were formed chiefly in London: there were very few in the distant counties, and those had no long continuance. It was not till the time of the Civil Wars that such bodies of Separatists, as they were called, or Congregationalists, or Independents, became numerous. At first they were often called Brownist churches, from Robert Brown, a divine of the time, who was for a while a zealous main-



tainer of the duty of separation."—J. Hunter, *Founders of New Plymouth*, pp. 12-13.—"The peculiar tenet of Independency . . . consists in the belief that the only organization recognised in the primitive Church was that of the voluntary association of believers into local congregations, each choosing its own office-bearers and managing its own affairs, independently of neighbouring congregations, though willing occasionally to hold friendly conferences with such neighbouring congregations, and to profit by the collective advice. Gradually, it is asserted, this right or habit of occasional friendly conference between neighbouring congregations had been mismanaged and abused, until the true independency of each voluntary society of Christians was forgotten, and authority came to be vested in Synods or Councils of the office-bearers of the churches of a district or province. This usurpation of power by Synods or Councils, it is said, was as much a corruption of the primitive Church-discipline as was Prelacy itself. . . . So, I believe, though with varieties of expression, English Independents argue now. But, while they thus seek the original warrant for their clews in the New Testament and in the practice of the primitive Church . . . they admit that the theory of Independency had to be worked out afresh by a new process of the English mind in the 16th and 17th centuries, and they are content, I believe, that the crude immediate beginning of that process should be sought in the opinions propagated, between 1580 and 1590, by the erratic Robert Brown, a Rutlandshire man, bred at Cambridge, who had become a preacher at Norwich. . . . Though Brown himself had vanished from public view since 1590, the Brownists, or Separatists, as they were called, had persisted in their course, through execration and persecution, as a sect of outlaws beyond the pale of ordinary Puritanism, and with whom moderate Puritans disowned connexion or sympathy. One hears of considerable numbers of them in the shires of Norfolk and Essex, and throughout Wales; and there was a central association of them in London, holding conventicles in the fields, or shifting from meeting-house to meeting-house in the suburbs, so as to elude Whitgift's ecclesiastical police. At length, in 1592, the police broke in upon one of the meetings of the London Brownists at Islington. . . . There ensued a vengeance far more ruthless than the Government dared against Puritans in general. Six of the leaders were brought to the scaffold. . . . Among the observers of these severities was Francis Bacon, then rising into eminence as a politician and lawyer. His feeling on the subject was thus expressed at the time: 'As for those which we call Brownists, being, when they were at the most, a very small number of very silly and base people here and there in corners dispersed, they are now (thanks be to God), by the good remedies that have been used, suppressed and worn out, so as there is scarce any news of them.' . . . Bacon was mistaken in supposing that Brownism was extinguished. Hospitable Holland received and sheltered what England cast out."—D. Masson, *Life of John Milton*, v. 2, bk. 4, sect. 1-2.—"The name 'Brownist' had never been willingly borne by most of those who had accepted the distinguishing doctrine of the heresiarch to whom it related. Nor was it without reason that a distinction was alleged, and a new name preferred, when, relaxing the offensive severity of Brown's system, some who had adopted his tenet of the absolute independence of churches came to differ from him respecting the duty of avoiding and denouncing dissentients from it as rebellious,

apostate, blasphemous, antichristian and accursed. To this amendment of 'Brownism' the mature reflections and studies of the excellent Robinson of Leyden conducted him; and with reference to it he and his followers were sometimes called 'Semi-separatists.' Such a deference to reason and to charity gave a new position and attractiveness to the sect, and appears to have been considered as entitling Robinson to the character of 'father of the Independents.' Immediately on the meeting of the Long Parliament [1640], 'the Brownists, or Independents, who had assembled in private, and shifted from house to house for twenty or thirty years, resumed their courage, and showed themselves in public.' During this period of the obscurity of a sect which, when arrived at its full vigor, was to give law to the mother country, the history of the progress of its principles is mainly to be sought in New England. . . . Their opponents and their votaries alike referred to Massachusetts as the source of the potent element which had made its appearance in the religious politics of England."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 2, bk. 2, ch. 2.—See also ENGLAND: 1638-1640; PURITANS: In distinction from Independents, etc.

ALSO IN: D. Neal, *History of the Puritans*, v. 2, ch. 1, 2, 7.—L. Bacon, *Genesis of the New England churches*.—B. Hanbury, *Historical memorials of the Independents*, v. 1.—G. Punchard, *History of Congregationalism*, v. 3.—H. M. Dexter, *Congregationalism of the last 300 years*, lect. 1-5.

1604-1617.—Church at Scrooby and its migration to Holland.—"The flimsiness of Brown's moral texture prevented him from becoming the leader in the Puritan exodus to New England. That honour was reserved for William Brewster, son of a country gentleman who had for many years been postmaster at Scrooby." After King James' Hampton Court Conference with the Puritan divines, in 1604, and his threatening words to them, nonconformity began to assume among the churches more decidedly the form of secession. "The key-note of the conflict was struck at Scrooby. Staunch Puritan as he was, Brewster had not hitherto favoured the extreme measures of the Separatists. Now he withdrew from the church, and gathered together a company of men and women who met on Sunday for divine service in his own drawing-room at Scrooby Manor. In organizing this independent Congregationalist society, Brewster was powerfully aided by John Robinson, a native of Lincolnshire. Robinson was then thirty years of age, and had taken his master's degree at Cambridge in 1600. He was a man of great learning and rare sweetness of temper, and was moreover distinguished for a broad and tolerant habit of mind too seldom found among the Puritans of that day. Friendly and unfriendly writers alike bear witness to his spirit of Christian charity and the comparatively slight value which he attached to orthodoxy in points of doctrine; and we can hardly be wrong in supposing that the comparatively tolerant behaviour of the Plymouth colonists, whereby they were contrasted with the settlers of Massachusetts, was in some measure due to the abiding influence of the teachings of this admirable man. Another important member of the Scrooby congregation was William Bradford, of the neighbouring village of Austerfield, then a lad of seventeen years, but already remarkable for maturity of intelligence and weight of character, afterward governor of Plymouth for nearly thirty years, he became the historian of his colony; and to his picturesque chronicle, written in pure and vigorous English, we are indebted for

most that we know of the migration that started from Scrooby and ended in Plymouth. It was in 1606—two years after King James's truculent threat—that this independent church of Scrooby was organized. Another year had not elapsed before its members had suffered so much at the hands of officers of the law, that they began to think of following the example of former heretics and escaping to Holland. After an unsuccessful attempt in the autumn of 1607, they at length succeeded a few months later in accomplishing their flight to Amsterdam, where they hoped to find a home. But here they found the English exiles who had preceded them so fiercely involved in doctrinal controversies, that they decided to go further in search of peace and quiet. This decision, which we may ascribe to Robinson's wise counsels, served to keep the society of Pilgrims from getting divided and scattered. They reached Leyden in 1609, just as the Spanish government had sullenly abandoned the hopeless task of conquering the Dutch, and had granted to Holland the Twelve Years Truce. During eleven of these twelve years the Pilgrims remained in Leyden, supporting themselves by various occupations, while their numbers increased from 300 to more than 1,000. . . . In spite of the relief from persecution, however, the Pilgrims were not fully satisfied with their new home. The expiration of the truce with Spain might prove that this relief was only temporary; and at any rate, complete toleration did not fill the measure of their wants. Had they come to Holland as scattered bands of refugees, they might have been absorbed into the Dutch population, as Huguenot refugees have been absorbed in Germany, England, and America. But they had come as an organized community, and absorption into a foreign nation was something to be dreaded. They wished to preserve their English speech and English traditions, keep up their organization, and find some favoured spot where they might lay the corner-stone of a great Christian state. The spirit of nationality was strong in them; the spirit of self-government was strong in them; and the only thing which could satisfy these feelings was such a migration as had not been seen since ancient times, a migration like that of Phokaians to Massilia or Tyrians to Carthage. It was too late in the world's history to carry out such a scheme upon European soil. Every acre of territory there was appropriated. The only favourable outlook was upon the Atlantic coast of America, where English cruisers had now successfully disputed the pretensions of Spain, and where after forty years of disappointment and disaster a flourishing colony had at length been founded in Virginia."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 2.

Also IN: G. Punchard, *History of Congregationalism*, v. 1, ch. 12-15.—G. Sumner, *Memoirs of the Pilgrims at Leyden (Massachusetts Historical Society College, 3d series, v. 9)*.—A. Steele, *Life and time of Brewster*, ch. 8-14.—D. Campbell, *Puritan in Holland, England, and America*, v. 2, ch. 17.

1617-1620.—Preparations for the exodus to New England.—"Upon their talk of removing, sundry of the Dutch would have them go under them, and made them large offers"; but an inborn love for the English nation and for their mother tongue led them to the generous purpose of recovering the protection of England by enlarging her dominions. They were 'restless' with the desire to remove to 'the most northern parts of Virginia,' hoping, under the general government of that province, 'to live in a distinct body by themselves.' To obtain the consent of the London

Company, John Carver, with Robert Cushman, in 1617, repaired to England. They took with them 'seven articles,' from the members of the church at Leyden, to be submitted to the council in England for Virginia. These articles discussed the relations which, as separatists in religion, they bore to their prince; and they adopted the theory which the admonitions of Luther and a century of persecution had developed as the common rule of plebeian sectaries on the continent of Europe. They expressed their concurrence in the creed of the Anglican church, and a desire of spiritual communion with its members. Toward the king and all civil authority derived from him, including the civil authority of bishops, they promised, as they would have done to Nero and the Roman pontifex, 'obedience in all things, active if the thing commanded be not against God's word, or passive if it be.' They denied all power to ecclesiastical bodies, unless it were given by the temporal magistrate. . . . The London Company listened very willingly to their proposal, so that their agents 'found God going along with them'; and, through the influence of 'Sir Edwin Sandys, a religious gentleman then living,' a patent might at once have been taken, had not the envoys desired first to consult 'the multitude' at Leyden. On the 15th of December, 1617, the pilgrims transmitted their formal request, signed by the hands of the greatest part of the congregation. . . . The messengers of the pilgrims, satisfied with their reception by the Virginia company, petitioned the king for liberty of religion, to be confirmed under the king's broad seal. But here they encountered insurmountable difficulties. . . . Even while the negotiations were pending, a royal declaration constrained the Puritans of Lancashire to conform or leave the kingdom; and nothing more could be obtained for the wilds of America than an informal promise of neglect. On this the community relied, being advised not to entangle themselves with the bishops. 'If there should afterward be a purpose to wrong us,' thus they communed with themselves, 'though we had a seal as broad as the house-floor, there would be means enough found to recall or reverse it. We must rest herein on God's providence.' Better hopes seemed to dawn when, in 1619, the London Company for Virginia elected for their treasurer Sir Edwin Sandys, who from the first had befriended the pilgrims. Under his presidency, so writes one of their number, the members of the company in their open court 'demanded our ends of going; which being related, they said the thing was of God, and granted a large patent.' As it was taken in the name of one who failed to accompany the expedition [Mr. John Wincomb], the patent was never of any service. And, besides, the pilgrims, after investing all their own means, had not sufficient capital to execute their schemes. In this extremity, Robinson looked for aid to the Dutch. He and his people and their friends, to the number of 400 families, professed themselves well inclined to emigrate to the country on the Hudson, and to plant there a new commonwealth under the command of the stadholder and the states general. The West India company was willing to transport them without charge, and to furnish them with cattle; but when its directors petitioned the states general to promise protection to the enterprise against all violence from other potentates, the request was found to be in conflict with the policy of the Dutch republic, and was refused. The members of the church of Leyden, ceasing 'to meddle with the Dutch, or to depend too much on the Virginia company,' now trusted to their own resources and the aid of private

friends. The fisheries had commended American expeditions to English merchants; and the agents from Leyden were able to form a partnership between their employers and men of business in London. The services of each emigrant were rated as a capital of £10, and belonged to the company; all profits were to be reserved till the end of seven years, when the whole amount, and all houses and land, gardens and fields, were to be divided among the share-holders according to their respective interests. The London merchant, who risked £100, would receive for his money tenfold as much as the penniless laborer for his services. This arrangement threatened a seven years' check to the pecuniary prosperity of the community; yet, as it did not interfere with civil rights or religion, it was accepted. And now, in July, 1620, the English at Leyden, trusting in God and in themselves, made ready for their departure."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 1, pt. 1, ch. 12.

1620.—Exodus of the Pilgrims to New England. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620; U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

1646-1649.—In English civil war. See ENGLAND: 1646 (March).

INDEPENDIENTES, political party. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.

INDEX, congregation of one of the eleven Sacred Congregations. See VATICAN: Present day papal administration.

INDEX EXPURGATORIUS, list of books the reading of which is forbidden to Roman Catholics by the church. See PAPACY: 1559-1505; PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1564-1581.

INDEX NUMBERS.—"An index number [as used in economics] is constructed by combining several items, each of which is a ratio between the price of a certain article at a particular date under consideration . . . and the price of the same article at the period taken as base or standard."—R. H. I. Palgrave, *Dictionary of political economy*, v. 2, p. 385.—"Because of the fact that values of

commodities as well as of money itself are constantly changing, it is not always easy to measure with precision the variations in the purchasing power of money. The best expedient is that suggested by Evelyn in 1708, by Lowe in 1822, by Scrope in 1833, and by Porter in 1836, but elaborated by Jevons in 1863, and known as the index number. Here the price of an article at a given time, or its average price during a given period, is taken as a basis and called 100. If at the next selected date the price has risen one-tenth, it would be assigned the figure 110. By choosing a number of different articles and taking the average of the figures as they vary from the base line of 100, we reach the index number. The percentage of change in the value of money is obviously not the same as the percentage of change in the general price level. If general prices double, that is, if the index number increases from 100 to 200, each unit of money will buy only half as much as before, or, in other words, the value of money will fall one-half. A rise of prices of 15 per cent, or a change in the index number from 100 to 115, during one year means that the purchasing power of 100 cents at the end of the year is  $\frac{100}{115}$  or 86.95 per cent

of its purchasing power at the beginning. This is equivalent to a loss of 13.05 per cent. A rise of 15 per cent in the general price level thus equals a fall of 13.05 per cent in the value of money. The change in the index number shows that alteration in the price level; the change in the reciprocal of the index number shows the change in the value of money. The utility of the index number depends partly on the number and choice of commodities, partly on the kind of average employed."—E. R. A. Seligman, *Principles of economics*, pp. 461-462.—See also PRICE CONTROL.

ALSO IN: A. L. Bowley, *Wages in the United Kingdom*.—W. C. Mitchell, *Methods of presenting statistics of wages*.—H. Secrist, *Statistics in business*.—I. Fisher, *Making of index numbers*.

## INDIA

Name.—"To us . . . it seems natural that the whole country which is marked off from Asia by the great barrier of the Himalaya and the Suleiman range should have a single name. But it has not always seemed so. The Greeks had but a very vague idea of this country. To them for a long time the word India was for practical purposes what it was etymologically, the province of the Indus. When they say that Alexander invaded India, they refer to the Punjab. At a later time they obtained some information about the valley of the Ganges, but little or none about the 'Deccan.' Meanwhile in India itself it did not seem so natural as it seems to us to give one name to the whole region. For there is a very marked difference between the northern and southern parts of it. The great Aryan community which spoke Sanscrit and invented Brahminism spread itself chiefly from the Punjab along the great valley of the Ganges; but not at first far southward. Accordingly the name Hindostan properly belongs to this northern region. In the South or peninsula we find other races and non-Aryan languages. . . . It appears then that India is not a political name, but only a geographical expression like Europe or Africa."—J. R. Seeley, *Expansion of England*, pp. 221-222.—"The name 'Hindustan' . . . is not used by the natives as it has been employed by writers of books and map-makers in Europe. . . . The

word really means 'the land of the Hindus'; the northern part of the Peninsula, distinguished from the 'Deccan,' from which it is parted by the river Narbada. . . . The word 'Hindu' is of Zend (ancient Persian) origin, and may be taken to denote 'river-people,' so named, perhaps, from having first appeared on the line of the Indus, q.d., 'the river.'"—H. G. Keene, *Sketch of the history of Hindustan*, p. 1.—"Sinde, India, and Hindustan are various representatives of the same native word. 'Hindu' is the oldest known form, since it occurs in one of the most ancient portions of the Zendavesta. The Greeks and Romans sometimes called the river Sindus, instead of Indus."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Persia*, ch. 1, note.

Geographical description.—Climate.—"India is a great three-cornered country, stretching southward from mid-Asia into the ocean. Its northern base rests upon the Himalaya ranges; the chief part of its western side is washed by the Arabian Sea, and the chief part of its eastern side by the Bay of Bengal. But while thus guarded along the whole length of its boundaries by nature's defences, the mountains and the ocean, it has on its north-eastern and on its north-western frontiers two opposite sets of gateways which connect it with the rest of Asia. On the north-east it is bounded by the wild hill-regions between Burma

and the Chinese Empire of Tibet; on the north-west by the Muhammadan States of Afghanistan and Baluchistan; and two streams of population of widely diverse types have poured into India by the passes at these north-eastern and north-western corners. India extends from the eighth to the thirty-sixth degree of north latitude,—that is, from the hot regions near the equator to far within the temperate zone. . . . The length of India from north to south, and its greatest breadth from east to west, are both about 1900 miles; but it tapers with a pear-shaped curve to a point at Cape Comorin, its southern extremity. To this compact dominion the English have added Burma, or the country on the eastern shores of the Bay of Bengal. The whole territory thus described contains over  $1\frac{1}{2}$  millions of square miles. . . . India is made up of four well-defined tracts. The first includes the Himalayan mountains, which shut India out from the rest of Asia on the north; the second stretches southwards from their foot, and comprises the plains of the great rivers which issue from the Himalayas; the third tract slopes upwards again from the southern edge of the river-plains, and consists of a high three-sided tableland, dotted with peaks, and covering the southern half of India; the fourth is Burma on the east of the Bay of Bengal. . . . [Of these four divisions] the Himalayas not only form a double wall along the north of India, but at both ends send out hilly offshoots southwards, which protect its north-eastern and north-western boundaries. . . . They send down the rainfall from their northern as well as from their southern slopes upon the Indian plains. . . . Of the three great rivers of India,—the two longest—namely, the Indus and the Brahmaputra—take their rise in this trough lying on the north of the double wall of the Himalayas; while the third, the Ganges, receives its waters from their southern slopes. . . . The wide plains watered by the Himalayan rivers form the second of the four regions. . . . [of] India. They extend from the Bay of Bengal on the east to the Indian Ocean on the West, and contain the richest and most densely-crowded provinces of the Indian Empire. . . . Having thus glanced at the leading features of the Himalayas on the north, and of the great river plains at their base, I come now to the third division of India, namely, the three-sided tableland which covers the southern half of the peninsula. This tract, known in ancient times as The Deccan, or 'The South' (*dakshin*), comprises the Central Provinces, Berar, Madras, and Bombay, and the native territories of the Nizam, Mysore, Sindhia, Holkar, and other feudatory princes. It slopes upwards from the southern edge of the Gangetic plains. . . . Burma, which the English have incorporated into the Indian Empire, [represents the fourth division of British India. It] consists mainly of the valley of the Irawadi, and a strip of coast along the east side of the Bay of Bengal. . . . Rice and timber form the staple exports of Burma, and rice is also the universal food of the people."—W. H. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian people*, pp. 17-19, 21-22, 27, 30.—"Peninsular India or the Deccan . . . [the heart of ancient Indian civilization] is geologically distinct from the Indo-Gangetic plain and the Himalaya. . . . Three or four hundred miles below Bernares we reach the eastern limit of Hindustan. Imperceptibly it merges into Bengal. . . . The air is now languorous and vapour-laden, the vegetation luxuriant and tropical. The firm, grey plain of wheat and millets and sugar-cane dotted with clumps of park-like trees gives place to rice swamps and

bamboos, palm and plantain. The Ganges after its junction with the Brahmaputra becomes a sea. The whole country is now a network of creeks and streams. The boat takes the place of the bullock-cart, the waterways are the roads. In this torrid, steamy, prolific region life is easy, wants are few. It is the home of a vast and ever-increasing population. . . . To the south of the Ganges the country loses its flat and alluvial character, and rises in a series of rough tablelands towards peninsular India. In many parts it is a mere mass of valleys and stony hills. In the fertile plains between the Ganges and the Himalaya man and his works are never out of sight. But these rough uplands to the south are thinly inhabited. . . . To the west extend the two large central regions known as central India and Rajputana, which for the most part are parcelled out among native states. In central India the plateau country is at its best. As it trends southwards to the Vindhya hills it broadens out into rolling downs of great fertility. In old days was the famous kingdom of Malwa, long a centre of ancient Hindu civilization. The splendour of its capital Ujjain was the favourite theme of Hindu poets. West of central India the hills and deserts of Rajputana stretch for leagues till they merge in the great Indian desert. Rajputana is the land of the Rajput clans, into which they were driven from the fertile plains of Hindustan by the Muhammadan armies. Here amid the hills and sandy wastes they founded new homes, and were never completely subjugated. . . . The Vindhya hills are the northern boundary of peninsular India or the Deccan. A confused mass of forest-clad hills, they bar the approaches to the central tablelands of the peninsula. . . . The topography of the Deccan is altogether different from that of northern India. The vast plain that stretches from the Indus to Calcutta invited easy conquest and empire-building; its fertile alluvial soil and unfailing rivers make it a hive of industry and the home of a dense population. The Deccan, as a whole, is a broken and rocky country. It lent itself to the establishment of separate states, and gave protection to the weak against the strong. Accordingly its history is extremely confusing. It is a record of many contemporaneous dynasties, engaged in endless wars of aggression or defence. The Deccan, or India south of the Vindhya, may be described as a 'tableland of very irregular and broken surface, with a general slope from west to east. On either side it is buttressed by the hills known respectively as the western and eastern Ghats. . . .

"In so extensive a region there is room for many climates. . . . In Malabar there is the perpetual summer of the tropics with the heat and moisture of a forcing house. In the Punjab there are extremes of cold and heat. For most of the years its plains are brown and arid, scorched in summer with fiery winds like the blast of a furnace; in winter they are clothed in a mantle of green crops, while the climate is that of a Riviera winter. In central India there are well-defined seasons of heat and cold with no great extremes. Heat and moisture predominate in Bengal and make it one of the dampest and greenest countries of the earth. Still greater contrasts could be found if the Himalayan region and the deserts of Sind were included in the account. The Himalayas themselves exhibit every gradation of cold and heat, of luxuriance and sterility, of loveliness and desolation. In Hindustan the rainfall averages thirty to forty inches a year, increasing toward the east. In Bengal a rainfall of fifty to sixty

inches is common, and in eastern Bengal this is exceeded."—T. W. Holderness, *Peoples and problems of India*, pp. 26-29, 14, 15.—See also ASIA: Influence of geography, etc.; KHYBER PASS; PUNJAB.

**Population.**—The Indian census of 1901 showed a total population in British territory of 231,085,000, against 221,266,000 in 1891; in native states 63,181,000, against 66,050,000 in 1891; total for all India, 294,266,000, against 287,317,000 in 1891. The native states had declined in population to the extent of nearly 3,000,000, showing greater severity in those states of the effects of famine and disease. In several provinces, however, of the British territory, a decrease of population appeared: Berar declining from 2,897,000 in 1891 to 1,491,000 in 1901; Bombay (British presidency) from 15,957,000 to 15,330,000; central provinces from 10,784,000 to 9,845,000; Aden from 44,000 to 41,000; Coorg from 173,000 to 170,000. Of the native states the greatest loss of population was suffered in Rajputana, which sank from 12,016,000 to 9,841,000; in Central India, where the numbers fell from 10,318,000 to 8,501,000; and in the Bombay states, which were reduced in population from 8,059,000 to 6,891,000. The provinces in British India which showed the greatest percentage of gain were Upper and Lower Burma, Assam and Sind. These figures may be contrasted with the census of 1921 which "showed a remarkable drop in the rate of increase in comparison with previous decades, due mainly to the influenza scourge of 1918, resulting in over 6,000,000 deaths. The provisional figures are:—Total population, 310,075,132—*viz.*, British Territory, 247,138,396; Indian States, 71,936,736; being an increase of 3,205,218 in British Territory and 713,518 in Indian States, or 1.2 per cent. increase since 1911. Males in British Territory, 126,941,215; females, 120,197,181. Males in Indian States, 37,114,976; females, 34,821,760. There is thus an excess of over 9,000,000 males in all India."—*Annual Register*, 1921, pp. 272-273, 275-277.

**People.**—Ethnic types.—Religious divisions.—**Castes.**—The population of India may be classified according to ethnic type, religious beliefs, and political status; race, religion, and political development enter continually into the problem of governing the people as one nation. Therefore these divisions must be borne in mind in studying their history, and in forming a judgment upon the occurrences of today. In addition to these general categories, which embrace the whole of the population, there is the special question of caste among the Hindus, which adds some thousands of divisions and sub-divisions to the elements of disunion. "Our earliest glimpses of India disclose two races struggling for the soil. The one was a fair-skinned people, which had lately entered by the north-western passes,—a people who called themselves Aryan, literally of 'noble' lineage, speaking a stately language, worshipping friendly and powerful gods. These Aryans became the Brahmans and Rajputs of India. The other race was of a lower type, who had long dwelt in the land, and whom the lordly newcomers drove back into the mountains, or reduced to servitude on the plains. The comparatively pure descendants of these two races are now nearly equal in numbers; the intermediate castes, sprung chiefly from the ruder stock, make up the mass of the present Indian population. . . . The victorious Aryans called the early tribes Dasyus, or 'enemies,' and Dasas, or 'slaves.' The Aryans entered India from the colder north, and prided

themselves on their fair complexion. Their Sanskrit word for 'colour' (varna) came to mean 'race' or 'caste.' The old Aryan poets, who composed the Veda at least 3,000 and perhaps 4,000 years ago, praised their bright gods, who, 'slaying the Dasyus, protected the Aryan colour'; who, 'subjected the black-skin to the Aryan man.' They tell us of their own 'stormy deities, who rush on like furi-

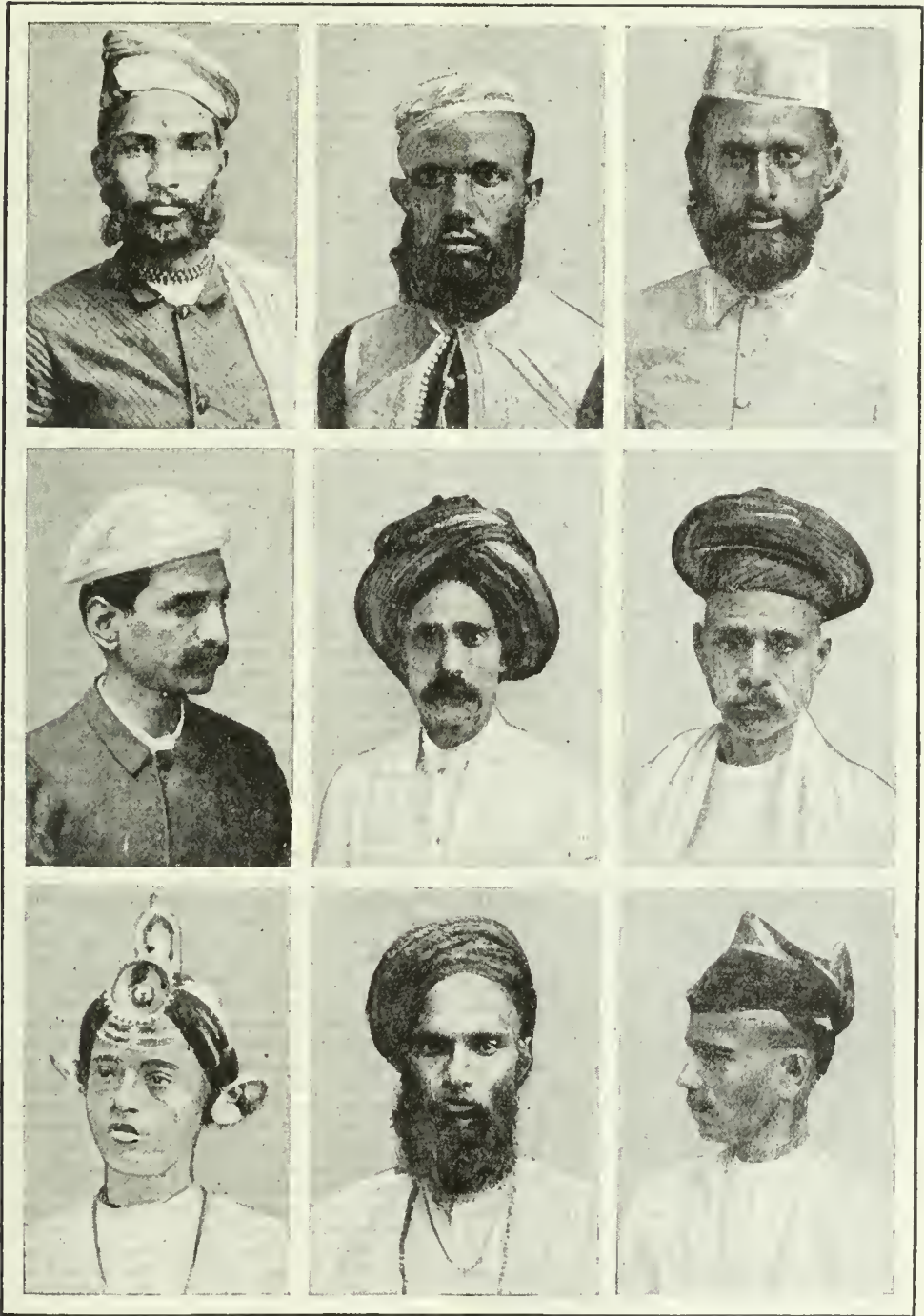


WEALTHY HINDU WOMAN  
Showing mode of wearing jewels

ous bulls and scatter the black-skin.' Moreover, the Aryan, with his finely-formed features, loathed the squat Mongolian faces of the Aborigines. One Vedic poet speaks of the non-Aryans as 'noseless' or flat-nosed, while another praises his own 'beautiful-nosed' gods. . . . Nevertheless all the non-Aryans could not have been savages. We hear of wealthy Dasyus or non-Aryans; and the Vedic hymns speak of their 'seven castles' and 'ninety forts.' The Aryans afterwards made alliance with non-Aryan tribes; and some of the most powerful kingdoms of India were ruled by non-Aryan kings. . . . Let us now examine these primitive peoples as they exist at the present day. Thrust back by the Aryan invaders from the plains, they have lain hidden away in the mountains, like the remains of extinct animals found in hill-caves. India thus forms a great museum of races, in which we can study man from his lowest to his highest stages of culture. . . . Among the rudest fragments of mankind are the isolated Andaman islanders, or non-Aryans of the Bay of Bengal. The Arab and

early European voyagers described them as dog-faced man-eaters. The English officers sent to the islands in 1855 to establish a settlement, found themselves in the midst of naked cannibals; who daubed themselves at festivals with red earth, and mourned for their dead friends by plastering themselves with dark mud. . . . The Anamalai hills, in Southern Madras, form the refuge of many non-Aryan tribes. The long-haired, wild-looking Puluars live on jungle products, mice, or any small animals they can catch; and worship demons. Another clan, the Mundavers, have no fixed dwellings, but wander over the innermost hills with their cattle. They shelter themselves in caves or under little leaf sheds, and seldom remain in one spot more than a year. The thick-lipped, small-bodied Kaders, 'Lords of the Hills,' are a remnant of a higher race. They live by the chase, and wield some influence over the ruder forest-folk. These hills abound in the great stone monuments (kistvaens and dolmens) which the ancient non-Aryans erected over their dead. The Nairs, or hillmen of South-Western India, still keep up the old system of polyandry, according to which one woman is the wife of several husbands, and a man's property descends not to his own sons, but to his sister's children. This system also appears among the non-Aryan tribes of the Himalayas at the opposite end of India. In the Central Provinces, the non-Aryan races form a large part of the population. In certain localities they amount to one-half of the inhabitants. Their most important race, the Gonds, have made advances in civilisation; but the wilder tribes still cling to the forest, and live by the chase. . . . The Maris fly from their grass-built huts on the approach of a stranger. . . . Farther to the north-east, in the Tributary States of Orissa, there is a poor tribe, 10,000 in number, of Juangs or Patuas, literally the 'leaf-wearers.' Until lately their women wore no clothes, but only a few strings of beads around the waist, with a bunch of leaves before and behind. . . . Proceeding to the northern boundary of India, we find the slopes and spurs of the Himalayas peopled by a great variety of rude non-Aryan tribes. Some of the Assam hillmen have no word for expressing distance by miles or by any land-measure, but reckon the length of a journey by the number of plugs of tobacco or pan which they chew upon the way. They hate work; and, as a rule, they are fierce, black, undersized, and ill-fed. . . . Many of the aboriginal tribes, therefore, remain in the same early stage of human progress as that ascribed to them by the Vedic poets more than 3,000 years ago. But others have made great advances, and form communities of a well-developed type. These higher races, like the ruder ones, are scattered over the length and breadth of India, and I must confine myself to a very brief account of two of them,—the Santals and the Kandhs. The Santals have their home among the hills which abut on the valley of the Ganges in Lower Bengal. They dwell in villages of their own, apart from the people of the plains, and number about a million. Although still clinging to many customs of a hunting forest tribe, they have learned the use of the plough, and settled down into skilful husbandmen. Each hamlet is governed by its own headman, who is supposed to be a descendant of the original founder of the village. . . . Until near the end of the last century, the Santals lived by plundering the adjacent plains. But under British rule they settled down into peaceful cultivators. . . . The Kandhs, literally 'The Mountaineers,' a tribe about 100,000 strong, inhabit the steep and forest-covered ranges

which rise from the Orissa coast. Their idea of government is purely patriarchal. The family is strictly ruled by the father. The grown-up sons have no property during his life, but live in his house with their wives and children, and all share the common meal prepared by the grandmother. The head of the tribe is usually the eldest son of the patriarchal family. . . . The Kandh system of tillage represents a stage half way between the migratory cultivation of the ruder non-Aryan tribes and the settled agriculture of the Hindus. . . . Whence came [the] primitive peoples, whom the Aryan invaders found in the land more than 3,000 years ago, and who are still scattered over India, the fragments of a prehistoric world? Written annals they do not possess. Their traditions tell us little. But from their languages we find that they belong to three stocks. First, the Tibeto-Burman tribes, who entered India from the north-east, and still cling to the skirts of the Himalayas. Second, the Kolarians, who also seem to have entered Bengal by the north-eastern passes. They dwell chiefly along the north-eastern ranges of the three-sided tableland which covers the southern half of India. Third, the Dravidians, who appear, on the other hand, to have found their way into the Punjab by the north-western passes. They now inhabit the southern part of the three-sided tableland as far down as Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of India. As a rule, the non-Aryan races, when fairly treated, are truthful, loyal, and kind. Those in the hills make good soldiers; while even the thieving tribes of the plains can be turned into clever police. The non-Aryan castes of Madras supplied the troops which conquered Southern India for the British; and some of them fought at the battle of Plassey, which won for us Bengal. The gallant Gurkhas, a non-Aryan tribe of the Himalayas, now rank among the bravest regiments in our Indian army, and lately covered themselves with honour in Afghanistan."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian people*, ch. 2-3.—"It has sometimes been supposed that the Dravidians were the aborigines of India; but it seems more probable that these are rather to be sought among the numerous primitive tribes, which still inhabit mountainous districts, and other regions difficult of access. Such, for example, are the Gonds, found in many different parts of India, who remain even to the present day in the stone age of culture, using flint implements, hunting with bows and arrows, and holding the most rudimentary forms of religious belief. The view that the Dravidians were invaders, who came into India from the north-west in prehistoric times, receives support from the fact that the Brahui language, spoken in certain districts of Baluchistan, belongs to the same family as the Dravidian languages of Southern India; and it is possible that it may testify to an ancient settlement of the Dravidians before they invaded India. In any case, Dravidian civilization was predominant in India before the coming of the Aryans. Many of the Dravidian peoples now speak Aryan or other languages not originally their own; but they still retain their own languages and their characteristic social customs in the South, and in certain hilly tracts of Central India; and there can be no doubt that they have very greatly influenced Aryan civilization and Aryan religion in the North. Their literatures do not begin until some centuries after the Christian era, but the existence of the great Dravidian kingdoms in the South may be traced in Sanskrit literature and in inscriptions from a much earlier period."—E. J. Rapson, *Ancient India*, pp. 28-29.—"Mr. Thurston holds that the



ETHNIC TYPES OF INDIA

Marwari  
Muitani  
Brahman priest

Ajmir Mohammedan  
Madrasi  
Fakir

Delhi Mohammedan  
Brahman  
Bhatia

jungle tribes of Southern India 'are the microscopic remnants of a pre-Dravidian people.' Robert Sewell writes, 'At some very remote period the aborigines of Southern India were overcome by hordes of Dravidian invaders and driven to the mountains and desert tracts, where their descendants are still to be found.' This dark, short and broad-nosed race is termed Pre-Dravidian by the Anthropologists.—R. Chanda, *Indo-Aryan races*, pt. 1, p. 8.—The leading ethnic types are: the Turko-Iranian, the Indo-Aryan, the Aryo-Dravidian, or Hindustani, the Mongolo-Dravidian or Bengali, the Mongoloid type, the Dravidian type. "The *Turko-Iranian* [is] represented by the Baloch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. . . . [It was] probably formed by a fusion of Turk and Persian elements, in which the former predominate. Stature above mean; complexion fair; eyes mostly dark, but occasionally grey. . . . The *Indo-Aryan* . . . [occupies] the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir, and . . . has as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type . . . approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall; complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful; head long; nose narrow and prominent, but not specially long. . . . The *Scytho-Dravidian*, comprising the Maratha Brahmans, the Kunbis, and the Coorgs of Western India . . . [is] clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. . . . The *Aryo-Dravidian*, or *Hindustani*, [is] found in the United Provinces, in parts of Rajputana, and in Bihar, and [is] represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman, and in its lower by the Chamar. [It is] probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long, with a tendency to medium; the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans; the stature is lower than in the latter group. . . . The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans, while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. . . . The *Mongolo-Dravidian* or *Bengali* type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, . . . [comprises] the Bengal Brahmans and Kayasths, the Muhammadans of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. [It is] probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad; complexion dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium; nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India. . . . Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa; the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal. . . . The *Mongoloid* type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma [is] represented by the Kanets of Lahal and Kulu, the Lopchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim; the Limbus, Murmis, and Gurungs of Nepal, the Bodo of Assam and the Burmese. . . . The *Dravidian* type . . . [extends] from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges, and . . . [pervades] Madras, Hyderabad, the Central Provinces, most of Central India, and Chota Nagpur. [It is] probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture

of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. . . . This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest-clad ranges, terraced plateaux, and undulating plains which stretches, roughly speaking, from the Vindhya to Cape Comorin. On the east and west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is conterminous with the Ghats, while farther north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 1, pp. 292-296.—See also *DRAVIDIAN RACES; ARYANS; TURANIAN RACES AND LANGUAGES; PHILOLOGY: 4.*

ALSO IN: W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples.*

"Racial distinctions are . . . less prominent than differences of religion, by which, in some cases accentuated, they may in other cases be concealed. . . . Within the limits of India proper Hinduism has become the ruling cult, and indeed—comparatively small sects, such as the Parsis, apart—it is commonly assumed to be the faith of all who are not Mohammedans. This impression is incorrect. Hinduism has no pretensions to dogmatic rigidity; it is not so much a faith as a system of society; and, indeed, can only be defined as an acceptance of Brahmin supremacy in all matters spiritual and ceremonial, and of the caste system which, under Brahmin ascendancy, fetters with ritual prejudice every action of man's life. But the hill tribes and the lowest classes of the plains population, so far from being ministered to by Brahmans, are treated by them as too degraded to be approachable. Those that need the services of a priesthood support special 'black Brahmans' of their own. Moreover these people are, in greater or less measure, free from the food scruples that complicate Hindu life. Hinduism in matters of belief is the most tolerant of religions, and has gradually drawn within itself a host of tribal or local creeds. But it is intolerant in respect of ceremonial purity, and has not cast its net over classes who are so degraded as to eat what it pleases them. The border line is not precisely defined; but these classes (which may conveniently be called the 'coolie castes') probably comprise at least fifty millions. They live in social degradation; but the country would do badly without them. It looks to them for its supply of field and casual labour and for the working of its factories, mines and tea-gardens. . . . Moreover, we should exclude from the Hindu community sects which have formally seceded from its regulations, and having proselytized from various castes, have substituted new for ancient caste distinctions. The most important of these sects is that of the Sikhs, which numbers 3,014,446, mostly belonging to the Punjab. . . . Hindus, properly so-called, may be reckoned . . . at about 56 per cent. of the population. But the name merely gives an appearance of unity to a most heterogeneous association of humanity, divided not only by rigid distinctions of caste but by wide differences of race, appearance, dress, language and ceremonial. . . . The Mohammedans [who number about 21 per cent. of the population] are a more closely knit society. Their religion is definite and dogmatic, and in India its solidarity has hardly been disturbed by schism. . . . Beyond doubt a very large proportion of the Mohammedan community is of purely Indian origin and is Mohammedan by conversion only. Conversion is still proceeding, and owing perhaps to a more liberal diet and less artificial marriage law, Mohammedans are increasing more rapidly than Hindus. During the . . . decade [1901-1911] their



numbers rose by nearly 7 per cent., whilst amongst Hindus . . . [of all castes] the rate of increase was 5 per cent. only. . . . The Native Indian Christian population has more than doubled in the course of the last generation, and during the past ten years [written in 1913] its number has increased by 34 per cent. . . . The Parsis . . . number only 100,100, but they contribute to the industrial, commercial and public life of India in an infinitely greater measure than to its population. . . . Hinduism has but little unifying force. Indeed the caste system which it has evolved is a means of isolating from one another groups of mankind. . . . A man is born into a caste and can never leave it [nor marry outside it]. He can eat with no one but a caste-fellow, and the kinds of food he can eat are strictly limited by the distinctive scruples of his caste. His food must be cooked by a caste-fellow unless he employs a Brahmin, and there are hundreds of low castes whose members refuse even Brahmin cookery; nay more, cooked food other than sweetmeats is polluted for him by the touch—even by the shadow—of any one who is not a caste-fellow. He can take water from the hands of men of lower castes, but only of certain specified castes. These food taboos complicate daily life to an almost incredible degree and altogether prevent the growth of . . . good fellowship. . . . There are between two and three thousand castes in India, and there are so many kinds of Hindu humanity. Each caste has a government of its own, its affairs being regulated by a committee (*panchayet*), which can punish the disobedient by fine or excommunication. . . . Very low down the scale lie the un-Hinduised multitudes which we have grouped together as 'coolies': they have castes of their own, but are regarded as outcasts by those above them and live in the most amazing contempt. They inhabit separate quarters of the village; they may not draw water from the village well; their touch is polluting; on the western coast they are even prohibited from approaching a high-caste man within a defined distance. At the head of the scale stand the Brahmins, numbering [according to the census of 1911] fifteen and a half millions. . . . They constitute a hereditary priesthood and hold the monopoly of communicating between man and the gods. With the gods they live in close communion; a Brahmin will set aside some portion of his meal for the god, and summon him to partake by blowing a little shell trumpet. . . . A Brahmin, however poor, is held in reverence, and is commonly addressed as 'Maharaj' (Your Highness). To insult him is a crime; to offer him violence a sacrilege. Under native rule he enjoyed the most liberal 'benefit of clergy'; and at the present time a Hindu jury can hardly be brought to convict him of a crime that is punishable with death. In the earliest Sanskrit writings—the Vedas—the Brahmins are mentioned, but as appointed ministers not as hereditary priests. They appear, however, to have striven from very early days to form themselves into a separate in-breeding class. . . . Brahmin influence and writings accordingly exalted purity of blood as well as ceremonial purity. For several centuries they were opposed by the antagonistic propaganda of Buddhism, in which the equality of mankind was a cardinal doctrine. But while Buddhism was still a popular creed—in the third century of our era—Brahmin views on the organisation of society were published in a remarkable Sanskrit work known as the *Institutes of Manu*. It recognises a long series of castes, headed

by the Brahmins. [See also HINDU LITERATURE; VEDAS.] Immediately below the Brahmins two castes—of military men (*Kshatriyas*) and of business men (*Vaishyas*)—presumably including Aryan or semi-Aryan families of social repute, are permitted to share with the Brahmins the title of 'twice-born' and the privilege of wearing a sacred thread. Of vastly inferior position are castes further down the scale. . . .

"With the triumph of Brahminism the people submitted to be unalterably classified on a system which limited their freedom but flattered their self-respect. Marriages have been limited within the caste for at least twelve centuries, and it has become possible often to tell a man's caste by his features. . . . Communities that were united by tribal relationship, or by a similarity of occupation, became castes. Many of the lowest Indian castes represent aboriginal tribes; a still larger number are linked to particular occupations. There is indeed a separate caste for almost every occupation or profession, although its members do not all follow the craft of their caste. Doctors, barbers, weavers, carpenters and blacksmiths may none of them intermarry. . . . How far are these crystallised conditions yielding to the solvent influence of the West? Food scruples are undoubtedly giving way. For many years, Hindus who, venturing upon a voyage to Europe, have there adopted Western habits of life, have submitted on their return to humiliating ceremonies of purification, and, abandoning china and glass, knives and forks, have reverted to Hindu manners and a vegetarian diet. But they are now much less ready to renounce comfort that has once been experienced, and have become sufficiently numerous to hold their own and to influence others. Educated Indians now commonly eat in European fashion and of European dishes—nay more, will sit at table with Europeans and eat with them. And amongst the lower classes the rules of diet are becoming more elastic, owing in great measure to the infractions that cannot be avoided during railway travel. Few scruples remain against biscuits, soda-water and tea. But the stronghold of caste is not in particularity of diet but in the limitation of cross marriage, and in this respect, if one looks below the surface, the marriage fields appear to be actually narrowing. New castes are even now arising; a subdivision of a caste will decide to enhance its social importance by prohibiting the remarriage of its widows, by marrying its children in infancy, by abstaining from some article of food, or even by renouncing the cultivation of some particular crop. It forms itself into a caste and will no longer inter-marry with its former caste-fellows. This is, however, in the lower levels of society. In the higher ranks there has also been manifest of recent years a reactionary spirit which displays bitter hostility to Western influences, and is willing to appeal to any superstition that may help to exclude them. But the vigilance of this spirit is evidence in itself of an inclination towards reform. Cases of caste inter-marriage, or of inter-marriage between Hindus and Mohammedans, are still of the very rarest occurrence. They are indeed illegal unless the parties formally abjure their religion. Even so one of the most prominent leaders of the Arya Samāj [a society formed primarily with the object of social reform] has recently ventured to marry out of caste, and there are men of influence who admire his temerity. A proposal so to modify the marriage law as to legalize mixed marriages without question of religion has lately [written in 1913] received surprisingly strong support amongst

the elected,—and independent,—members of the Viceroy's Legislative Council, and had the Government decided to accept the reform its decision would clearly not have been distasteful to the leaders of advanced opinion, although it might have been suspected by the masses and have been condemned as a scandal by reactionary orators. There have been revolts in the past against Brahmin restrictiveness. Within the last six centuries the brotherhood of mankind has been the standard of several popular movements. [The Brahma Samaj in Bengal, and the Arya Samaj in the Punjab have been active in late years.] But the sectarians have generally ended by conforming to the system they condemned: they have formed themselves into a caste, or a series of castes. Such has been the fate of the Lingayets of Madras, of the disciples of the reformer Kabir, who, at the time Luther was urging the Protestant revolt in Europe, proclaimed in India that before God all men were equal. But the new movement is supported by something more substantial than feelings of philanthropy. A suspicion is forcing its way that in-and-in-breeding has cost India much vitality, and that if she desires to meet Europe on equal terms, she must widen the area within which marriage is permissible. This ambition touches the self-esteem of the upper classes, and may overpower the resisting force of religion or custom. . . . Such, then, is Indian society, minutely and antagonistically subdivided by differences not only of religion, but of breed. Across these differences lie others, of language and of dress, which, while smoothing in no way the more vital distinctions, give a uniform stamp to the people of a locality." —J. B. Fuller, *Empire of India*, pp. 125-127, 129-135.—"It is well known that many members of the depressed classes improve their socio-economic position by embracing Christianity. . . . The Indian Christian community has been doubled in the last three decennial periods ending with the census of 1911, and now represents about 1¼ per cent of the entire population; and this is due far less to natural increase than to the constant accession to its ranks of members of the depressed classes. Further, since 1911 there has been a developing tendency to mass movements towards Christianity, one of the perplexing problems of the missionary bodies being to make due provision for the reception and education of whole villages desiring enrolment."—A. Khan, *India in transition*, p. 250.—See also BRAHMANISM; CASTE SYSTEM; ASIA: Unity of Asiatic civilization; European influences, etc.: 5; JAINISM; MYTHOLOGY: Indian: Unparalleled length of life: Eastern area; RELIGION: B.C. 1000.

Emigration of Hindus to East Africa. See KENYA COLONY.

Languages and writing.—The linguistic survey of India records 147 distinct languages. Of these seventy-nine are roughly classed as of the Thibeto-Chinese family, and are spoken among the semi-Mongolian people from Thibet to Burma. Fourteen belong to the Dravidian family, and include the four literary languages of southern India. A good many of the other tongues in the list are those spoken by aboriginal tribes or isolated groups of invaders here and there. The characteristic and most widely spread languages of India belong to the Aryan or Indo-European family. "The language of all the earliest records of India, whether literary or inscripational, is Indo-European in character. . . . A standard or literary language appears first in the Hymns of the Rig-veda, . . . [written in] 'Vedic' Sanskrit, . . . the language of

priestly poets who lived in the region now known as Southern Afghanistan, the North-Western Frontier Province, and the Punjab. . . . After the Vedic period, Aryan civilization extended itself in a south-easterly direction over the fertile plains of the Jumna and Ganges, which became subsequently not only the chief political and religious centre of Brahmanism but also the birthplace of its rival religions, Jainism and Buddhism. It was in this region that the priestly treatises, known as 'Brahmanas,' and the great epic poems, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, were composed."—E. J. Rapson, *Ancient India*, pp. 9-10.—"Any account of the races or languages of India would be incomplete without mention of the influence that the spread of the English language is exerting over the population generally. . . . It is safe to say that the English language and what it stands for is the most powerful force acting to-day in India in the direction of social and national unity. It has been said that the languages of southern India are as unintelligible in Lahore as they would be in London, and that a native of Calcutta or Bombay is as much a foreigner in Delhi or Peshawar as an Englishman is a foreigner in Rome or Paris. But . . . the English-speaking Indian . . . is not a foreigner in any part of India where English is spoken. One of the novel features of modern Indian life is the frequent holding of Pan-Indian congresses for the discussion of political, social, industrial, religious and other subjects. These assemblies, which bring together the most prominent men from all parts of India, would be impossible were it not for the common basis provided by the English language. . . . But we must not exaggerate the extent to which a knowledge of English, or indeed any book knowledge at all, is at present possessed by the population. In a population of three hundred million possibly a million and a half persons can read and speak English, and of these many know it very imperfectly. It is the tendency that is important, and the tendency is for English to spread."—T. W. Holderness, *Peoples and problems of India*, pp. 79, 80, 83.

"For many centuries past India has possessed a bewildering variety of forms of writing; but comparison of the older records enables us to trace back almost all this multiplicity of scripts to a single original, the ancient Brahmi characters. Some coins of the fourth century B.C. and the inscriptions containing the Edicts of Asoka (third century B.C.) are the oldest Brahmi writings known to us, but their characters have already a long history behind them. As most of the Brahmi letters agree with the Northern Semitic characters of the early part of the ninth century B.C., it seems likely that Hindu traders, about 800 B.C., borrowed North-Semitic letters to write their own language, and that then Hindu scholars arranged and developed them into alphabetical systems suitable to express the requirements of Sanskrit speech. One of these systems was the *Brahmi*, which in time became the parent of nearly all the later scripts of India and their offspring."—L. D. Barnett, *Antiquities of India*, p. 225.—See also PHILOLOGY: 4; 16; HINDU LITERATURE; SANSKRIT.

Political divisions.—Native states.—"India is divided into two classes of territories; first, Provinces under British rule; second, States under Native Chiefs. The population of the whole amounted in 1901 to over 204 millions, or more than double the number estimated for the Roman Empire in the height of its power. But the English, even more than the Romans have respected the rights of Native Chiefs who are willing to

govern well. Such Chiefs still rule on their own account nearly one-third of the area of India, with over 62 millions of subjects, or more than a quarter of the whole Indian people. The British territories, therefore, comprise about two-thirds of the area of India, and over three-quarters, or more than 231 millions, of its inhabitants. . . . The British possessions are distributed into . . . Provinces. Each has its own Governor or head; but all are controlled by the supreme Government of India. . . . The Viceroy [or governor-general] of India is appointed by the King of England; so also are the Governors of Madras and Bombay. The heads of the other Provinces are chosen for their merit from the Anglo-Indian services, almost always from the Civil Service, and are nominated by the Viceroy, subject in the case of the Lieutenant-Governorships to the approval of the Secretary of State. The King of England is Emperor of India, and is spoken of both officially and commonly in India as 'the King-Emperor.'"

—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian people*, pp. 38-39.—"British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In eight of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In one province—Burma—the Local Government consists, pending further legislation, of a single individual—the Lieutenant-Governor assisted by a secretariat and headquarter staff, but Burma is to be brought into line with the other Provinces. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India."—*Indian Year Book*, 1922, p. 16.—"The easiest way of understanding the organisation of a province is to think of it as composed of districts, which in all provinces, except Madras, are combined, in groups of usually from four to six, into divisions, under a commissioner. The average size of a district is 4,430 square miles. . . . Many are much bigger. Mymensingh district holds more human souls than Switzerland, Vizagapatam district, both in area and population, exceeds Denmark. . . . The district, which is a collector's charge, is the unit of administration, but it is cut up into sub-divisions under assistants or deputy collectors, and these again into revenue collecting areas of smaller size. . . . The district officer has a dual capacity; as collector he is head of the revenue organisation, and as magistrate he exercises general supervision over the inferior courts and, in particular, directs the police work. In areas where there is no permanent revenue settlement, he can at any time be in touch, through his revenue subordinates, with every inch of his territory. This organisation in the first place serves its peculiar purpose of collecting the revenue and of keeping the peace. But, because it is so close-knit, so well-established, and so thoroughly understood by the people, it simultaneously discharges easily and efficiently an immense number of other duties."—*Montagu-Chelmsford Report*, paragraphs 122-3.—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, p. 18, footnote.

"The census report of 1901 estimates the aggregate area of the native states at 679,392 square miles, or 38 per cent. of the 1,776,597 square miles which make up the Indian Empire, the population of which is 62,461,549, out of 294,361,056 in-

habitants of India, in which are not included the inhabitants of the Shan States of Burma, the Khasia and Jaintia Hills, Manipur and Bhutan, while the area and population of Nepal have not been properly ascertained. The native states thus comprise more than a third of the area and support considerably less than a quarter of the population. . . . [In 1921, the area of the native states was estimated at 709,555 square miles, out of a total of 1,802,629, while the population was 71,936,736 out of a total of 319,075,132. According to government usage India means British India], together with any territories of any native chief under the suzerainty of . . . [the Crown] exercised through the Governor-General, or through any officer subordinate to him. This suzerainty, in the case of 175 states, is exercised directly by the Government of India, and in the case of 500 through provincial governments. Sir William Lee Warner explains that the generally accepted view is that suzerainty is divisible between the British Government and the ruling chief, and that, of its attributes, the right to make war or peace and the right of foreign negotiation lies with the Government, while the right to make laws and administer justice resides in the ruling chief. No chief can therefore be properly described as independent. . . . The size of the native states varies from that of Hyderabad, which is rather larger than Great Britain, to petty possessions of twenty square miles. The fact that in some parts of India, as in Bombay, native states are extremely numerous, amounting to 354 in number, whereas in other parts, like Madras, there are only five, is accounted for by the conditions existing at the time the British power was consolidated. In the south the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Nawab of the Carnatic, the Sultan of Mysore, and the Maharaja of Travancore had swept away or bound up into one unit many petty chiefships and small states before the British power was established. In Bombay, on the other hand, the power of the Peshwa had been weakened and territories were changing rulers up to the time when the Marhattas were overthrown by the English, and the latter power recognised the *status quo* and confirmed the holders of the moment in their otherwise precarious possessions. Most of the native states, however, are of modern origin, the most ancient being those included in Rajputana. Central India, on the contrary, is chiefly occupied by Marhatta chieftains, who were not attracted by the deserts of the Rajputs. . . . Mysore may be regarded as a revival by the favour of the British of an ancient Hindoo principality. Travancore and Cochin are old-world Hindoo states, which existed, as they are now, before the struggle between the French and English in the south. The Mogul emperors had not been satisfied with suzerainty over the numerous native states which existed in their day. What they desired was dominion, in the quest of which they were led to destroy the Mohammedan kingdoms of the Deccan, which, had they been preserved, might have warded off the fatal onslaught of the Marhattas. The latter, in turn, simply desired to levy as blackmail the fourth part of the revenue of all weaker powers, and they evolved no real policy in regard to the native states before the ruin of the confederacy on the field of Panipat in 1761. In South India, warfare with the French and local intrigue led to the like relations with the native princes, but with the fall of Tipoo Sultan at Mysore, the Nizam and the British became united in a lasting alliance. Bengal had

become part of British India with the grant of the Dewani or fiscal administration in 1765, and Oudh was for a time the buffer state between it and the Mahrattas. The establishment, by the Treaty of Bassein in 1802, of British influence at Poona led to war with Sindhia and Bhonsla, which was followed by a breach with Holkar, and subsequently with the Peshwa, and by the suppression of the Pindaris, at the conclusion of which, in 1818, Rajputana, Gwalior, Indore, and Nagpur were brought under the British Protectorate. The war of 1814-1816 left Nepal independent as to its internal administration, but under the control of the Government of India in respect of its foreign relations. . . . At first the British policy was to restore conquered territory, merely retaining sufficient for their own purposes and for the payment of expenses, but since the phantom Emperor fell under the control of the Mahrattas they ceased to acknowledge his authority and, in the time of Lord Hastings, adopted the policy of maintaining that the British held the suzerainty of India. Between 1813 and the Mutiny, most of the existing treaties were concluded with native states. . . .

"It is now clearly established that the rights of chiefs as rulers will be respected, but that the British Government alone shall act for them in dealings with foreign powers and with other native states, that the inhabitants of such states are subjects of their own rulers, and that rulers and subjects are alike exempt from the laws of British India. The internal peace of the native states is also secured, and they are forbidden to employ, without permission, subjects of other European nations; while their subjects, when outside their own territory, become practically British subjects. As states which cannot make war on other states in the same position as themselves, or on foreign powers, need no army, in most treaties the military forces which they may maintain are restricted, and a provision is inserted to the effect that no factories may be erected for the production of guns and ammunition. Native states are, on the contrary, bound to render assistance to the Imperial forces. Since the time of Lord Dufferin several of the larger units have maintained Imperial service troops which number nearly 20,000 men in all. These are under the inspection of British officers, and when placed at the disposal of the British Government are available for use in the same manner as British forces, though they belong to the states and are recruited from its subjects. . . . In spite of the internal independence guaranteed to the states the paramount authority claims and exercises the right to interfere to correct serious abuses, or even to administer for the time being, when sufficient reason arises. Thus the late Gaekwar of Baroda was deposed, and other instances of similar action are not wanting. The powers of the Governor-General in native states are exercised through political officers, generally called Residents, who are the sole channel of communication, and the political service is recruited from the Indian Civil Service and from the Indian army."—J. D. Rees, *India, the real India*, pp. 149-154.—"In these [native] states there is a more or less regular system of administration modelled on the system existing in British districts. Usually there is a prime minister, who in Hindu states is called the *diwan*, and in Muhammadan states the *wazir* or some equivalent name. There are other ministers in charge of different departments, a supreme court of justice, and district officers. The ministers and judges are some-

times Indians borrowed from the public service of a British province, and such men bring with them the principles and methods of modern government. Under their guidance the largest states have adopted in a more or less modified and simplified form the penal code of British India, the procedure codes and some of the substantive laws. Experiments in representative institutions have also here and there been made, though they are not allowed to go far. In Mysore and Travancore a representative assembly is convened for a few days every year, is addressed by the diwan, is permitted to talk on public questions, and is then dismissed. In Baroda a beginning has been made with a legislative council. But the dominant note in native states is the absolutism of the ruler. . . . Though he may choose to rule by deputies, at any time he may elect to put them aside and to take up the reins: while some of the ablest princes of India have always kept the detailed administration of their states in their own hands."—T. W. Holderness, *People and problems of India*, pp. 184, 185.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Character of British rule in India and Egypt.

ALSO IN: V. Chirol, *Indian unrest*.—J. Strachy, *India, its administration and progress*.—J. R. Macdonald, *Government of India*.—J. B. Fuller, *Empire of India*.

Local self-government.—"The subject of local self-government in India is of so great importance that it demands treatment at greater length. At the basis of all local government in India lies the village. . . . The village has its own organisation and rules, and its own officials. The villages according to Baden-Powell's division may be divided into two main classes: the *ryotwari* village, the head of which is the *patel* or *reddi* or hereditary headman; and the joint or landlord village of the United Provinces and the North-West generally, the head of which is the village *panchayat* or group of heads of the leading families. The *panchayat* in many villages has been superseded by an individual such as the *lumbardar*, with whom the local government can have direct dealings. . . . The Indian village is an essential part in Indian administration. The officials . . . whatever they may be, have direct dealings with Government, and are as a rule paid small salaries. They are responsible for the local maintenance of law and order, for the collection of revenue, for giving information regarding crops, diseases and other items of local interest. The village never evolved what we now call municipal government. Both in Hindu and Mohammedan India the village chief official was a direct agent of the central government. Local self-government in the sense that we now speak of municipalities as self-governing institutions is not indigenous to India, [but] the village, with its peculiar type of government, is indigenous to India. It is one of the most permanent institutions in India. In the words of Lord Metcalfe: 'The village communities are little republics, having nearly everything they can want within themselves, and almost independent of foreign relations. They seem to last where nothing else lasts. Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down; revolution succeeds revolution; Hindu, Pathan, Mughal, Maratha, Sikh, English, are all masters in turn, but the village communities remain the same. . . . If a country remain for a series of years the scene of continued pillage and massacre, so that the village cannot be inhabited, the scattered villages nevertheless return whenever the power of peaceable possession revives. A generation may pass away, but the succeeding generation will return.' . . . Local self-government of the modern

type, both urban and rural, is vastly different from the indigenous village government. It is the result of British ideas of government and as such exotic to India. The Presidency towns, under Royal Charter, possessed some type of municipal government from the earliest days of the Company. Municipal administration on a larger scale was attempted in 1842 when an Act was passed, applicable to Bengal, to enable the inhabitants of 'any place of public resort or residence to make better provision for purposes connected with public health and sanitation.' In 1850 an Act was passed making the Bengal principle operative over the whole of India. Both Acts were permissive, . . . [and] under the 1850 Act a large number of municipalities were formed with more success. The Commissioners, however, were mostly nominated. The elective principle was not yet tried. The real starting point of municipal government is in the Resolution, passed in 1870, by Lord Mayo's Government which declared that: 'Local interest, supervision and care are necessary to success in the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical charity, and local public works. The operation of this Resolution in its full meaning and integrity will afford opportunities for the development of self-government, for strengthening municipal institutions, and for the association of Natives and Europeans to a greater extent than heretofore in the administration of affairs.' New municipal acts followed, extending the democratic principle. The most extensive policy of local self-government was adopted by Lord Ripon's Government. In the Resolutions of 1881 and 1882 and the Acts of 1883 and 1884 the prevailing principles of local self-government were laid down. The constitution, powers and functions of local bodies were much altered. The principle of election was extended, and freedom from official control was made real by establishing sounder financial bases for the municipalities and allowing the election of unofficial chairmen. A similar evolution marked rural self-government. Although it started later, rural self-government has extended widely. The principles governing it are substantially the same as those governing urban self-government. . . . One of the most important things in the policy of the Government of India from 1882 downwards has been the insistence on local self-government as a training school for a wider responsibility. In Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 this idea, as I have shown, was brought to light, but it is in the 1882 Resolution of Lord Ripon's Government that we have its first clear expression. This Resolution says: 'It is not primarily with a view to improvement in administration that this measure is put forward and supported. It is chiefly desirable as an instrument of political and popular education. . . . [If] the officers of Government only set themselves, as the Governor-General in Council believes they will, to foster sedulously the small beginnings of the independent political life, if they will accept loyally and as their own the policy of the Government, and if they come to realise that the system really opens to them a fairer field for the exercise of administrative tact and directive energy than the more autocratic system which it supersedes, then it may be hoped that the period of failures will be short, and that real and substantial progress will very soon become manifest.' The same ideas have been repeated in subsequent Resolutions, the most recent of them of May 1918, which presents the current policy thus: . . . 'The object of local self-government is to train the people in the management of their own local affairs and that polit-

ical education of this sort must, in the main, take precedence of considerations of departmental efficiency.'—R. N. Gilchrist, *Indian nationality*, pp. 197-200, 202-203.

ALSO IN: C. M. P. Cross, *Development of self-government in India*.

**Agriculture.—Dependence of population.—Backward methods.—Efforts toward improvement.**—"India is pre-eminently an agricultural country. Of its total population 72 per cent. are engaged in pasture and agriculture, viz., 69 per cent. in ordinary cultivation and 3 per cent. in market gardening, the growing of special products, forestry and the raising of farm stock and small animals. The 217 million persons supported by ordinary cultivation comprise nearly 8 million [Indian] landlords, 167 million cultivators of their own or rented land, over 41 million farm servants and field labourers and less than a million estate agents and managers and their employes."—*Indian Year Book*, 1922, p. 457.—"The size of an average holding varies from half an acre in densely populated parts of the country to eight acres in less congested parts. Taking the mean of the two extremes, the average size of the Indian farm—if one may call it by that name—does not exceed four acres. As the holder of this four-acre-farm supplies both capital and labour, the usual custom is for the whole family to find their vocation in, and derive their living from, the management of the holding. . . . The fencing off of the land is a thing almost unknown in India, because under the present system [of sub-divisions] the size and scope of an average farm are so limited that it is hardly worth while going to the trouble and expense of erecting and maintaining fences. . . . The systematic rearing of such economic beasts as cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs is a thing almost unknown in India. . . . The reason for our livestock deficiency is to be found in our conservatism as to material progress, our lack of education, and our religious scruples. . . . The need for agricultural research—chemical, bacteriological, mycological, phytogenetical, etc.—is very urgent indeed in a country like India, where the number of problems awaiting solution must be practically without limit. At the present time [1920] India possesses only one Agricultural Research Institute of any consequence—namely, the one at Pusa—and let us not shrink from recalling the fact that the foundation of this one place was made possible by the munificence of an American millionaire."—N. N. S. Gupta, *Agricultural development of India (Asiatic Review, July, 1920)*.—"In India crops can be cultivated all the year round. During the fiercest heat of the dry months you may see, clustered about the wells, patches of small millet—oases in a desert—which, so long as they are watered, can defy the hot wind. Vegetation luxuriates in the warm moisture of the rainy season that follows. The night frosts of the Northern India cold weather do not injure—or greatly retard—the growth of young wheat. It is possible, then, to take two crops off the ground within the year, if they be crops of rapid growth, requiring no more than five or six months between sowing and harvest; so, by double-cropping his land, a cultivator may practically double the area of his holding. In Northern India wheat often follows a crop of maize or indigo, and in Southern India rice follows rice within the year. When a crop requires more than half a year to come to maturity, a second crop may be gathered by sowing it amidst the growing plants. Pulse, for instance, may be sown in standing rice, and rape in standing cotton. In this way nearly an eighth of the area under tillage

is cropped twice within the year. . . . [Agriculture has been greatly retarded by caste prejudice and custom. Few of the Rajput and Brahma castes will cultivate their own land, much of which is badly farmed by hired labor.] A larger variety of crops is cultivated in India than in any other country of the world. There are fourteen cereals, of which rice and millet are most characteristic of the Indian climate, since, if uncultivated by man, they could survive in a wild condition and indeed are represented in the wild flora of the country. . . . [Maize has been introduced from America. Wheat, barley and oats are grown in the north. Sugar cane, pulse, rape, cotton, flax, jute, hemp, tobacco and the opium poppy, tea, coffee, indigo are important crops. Indigo and opium however have decreased in value,—indigo since the introduction of the blue aniline dye; opium in accordance with the agreement with China.] The cultivators have much to learn and to reform. Certain of them, generally low caste men, work their fields with the industry and skill of the best market-gardeners. But, on the whole, the land produces much less than should be expected of it, subdivided as it is into very small holdings. . . . The Indian cultivator turns the smallness of his holding to no such practical advantage [as the farmer of Japan], and farms three or four acres in the methods that he would follow with a holding of tenfold this area. His implements are of the lightest; but he works them with cattle power. Good cultivators recognise the advantage of selecting their seed, and reserve for this purpose the finest heads of maize, and the first pickings of cotton. But the generality sow the seed that first comes to hand, often obtaining it on loan. . . . Manure is not preserved, and sewage will not be handled. That some Indian cultivators will move outside the ring of their traditions, if tempted by a clear advantage, is proved by the widespread adoption of such exotics as tobacco and potatoes. . . . But there are only a few castes that will adopt improvements that cost labour; and the most disheartening fact to those who look for progress is the failure of the many to learn from the skill and industry that are daily displayed by a few of their neighbours. For a generation and more the State . . . has maintained experimental farms and published their results. But it is only within . . . [this century] that these departments have been equipped with an effective staff of European technical advisers, have been provided with funds that are in any way adequate, and have been able to look to agricultural colleges for the training of the subordinate staff they require. So far no extensive practical results have been obtained.—indeed, alongside of the government farms, you may see cultivators pursuing their ancient methods, changed in no respect by the example. But it must be admitted that the results of experiments have not always been trustworthy: research must precede efforts at conversion, and Indian conditions offer much that is strange to the agricultural science and practice of the West. Iron ploughs of European patterns have in some localities been purchased in hundreds: so also have simple water-lifts: in the Madras presidency there are . . . [a large number of] irrigating pumps worked by oil engines. The wooden roller and pestle mills used from time immemorial for the crushing of sugar-cane are being driven out of use by a light iron mill. But these improvements only touch the surface of what is possible, and widespread reform cannot be expected until an idea gains currency that to raise better crops is meritorious, and may even be considered fashionable.

Such an opinion appears to be arising in Western India—the Bombay presidency and the Central Provinces—and perhaps also in the Punjab. The experiments of the Agricultural Departments are watched with interest: visits by their European experts are welcomed: pure seed is in rapidly increasing demand, and seed farms and nurseries are being established by private enterprise. At the Poona Agricultural College in the Bombay presidency there are students who have come to learn farming for use on land of their own.”—J. B. Fuller, *Empire of India*, pp. 44, 52, 325-327.—See also COÖPERATION: India; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: India; FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1915.

ALSO IN: J. Kenny, *Intensive farming in India*.—W. H. Moreland, *Future of Indian agriculture* (*Quarterly Review*, Oct., 1916).—H. M. Leake, *Book of agricultural practice and economics in united provinces of India*.

Finance.—Land revenue.—“The British Parliament has no control over the Indian revenues, except that no money can be spent on military operations beyond the frontier without the consent of both Houses of Parliament. A financial statement is placed before the House of Commons every year, but a proposition only that such accounts are in order is put to the vote. The salary of the Secretary of State and the expenses of his establishment are now paid from the revenues of the United Kingdom. . . . When the management of Indian affairs was transferred from the Company to the Crown, the Government of India took over the debts of the Company, amounting to 107 crores [which included the cost of suppressing the mutiny]; and this sum has been increased for several reasons so that in 1914 the debt of India stood at 411 crores . . . [of which] 19 crores represented ordinary or unproductive debt. The annual interest on the latter was only a crore, and on the productive debt about 13 crores, so that India's total interest charges then amounted to about 14 crores. On the other hand, railways and irrigation works which had been financed from the public debt yielded in that year a return of nearly 23 crores, which left a margin of nine crores of clear profit to the country, after meeting the interest charges of the entire debt.’ . . . [The revenues of India are chiefly derived from customs and excise; forests, on which there is a small profit; income tax; land revenue, opium, railways and irrigation, spoken of above, posts and telegraphs, on which there is also a small profit, which can be used for improvements, and the salt tax. Customs duties are of increasing importance.] In 1860, imports were taxed at the rate of ten per cent, and in some cases an even higher duty was levied. In subsequent years the duty was reduced, and in 1875 it stood at five per cent. Proposals originating from the Home Government were then made to abolish the tax almost entirely, and were met by strenuous opposition from India. The Viceroy, Lord Northbrook, resigned rather than abolish the duties, and Lord Lytton succeeded him. The new Viceroy, by the help of his Finance Member, Sir John Strachey, was able to make a start in the new policy by reducing the cotton duties, although he had to overrule the majority on his Council. The total abolition of the import duties followed, except those on salt and liquor which were retained to counter-balance the excise duties levied within the country on these articles. . . . [The salt tax, which has been in existence from remote times, is the only tax which is imposed upon all the classes of the people. In 1907 it was reduced to one rupee per maund of 85 pounds, but in 1916 was again raised to one rupee four annas.

This tax is much disliked, and is looked upon as a source of grievance by the people.] *The Income Tax* was first of all imposed in 1860. Since then it has been abolished and restored; and it is still in force. It is not imposed on incomes derived from agriculture or the tenure of land. Moreover, it is graduated in such a way that the rich pay on a higher scale than those who are only moderately well off, the poor being exempt altogether. . . . [Opium, which is a government monopoly, is of rapidly decreasing value as a source of revenue. It is also produced in large quantity in some of the native states. This opium, known as Malwa opium, is subject to a heavy export duty. The land revenue, which may be looked upon either as a rental, or as a direct tax upon the land, according to the point of view, is the most important source of Indian revenue, as it has been since before the beginning of the written history of the country.] In the laws of Manu it is seen that a proportion of the gross produce from the land was due to the State. In early times this revenue was paid in kind, and represented the amount of grain which the rulers considered their fair share of the crops. . . . Under the rule of the Moguls the system of land revenue became regularized. . . . Land revenue henceforward was to be paid in cash rather than in kind. . . . A calculation was made from the prices of the last ten years, and one-third of the average crop was considered the right proportion due to the State. As the Muhammadan Empire fell into decay, the collection of land revenue became disorganized. The evil system of farming out the privilege of collecting the revenues became customary. These revenue farmers were in some instances the Hindu chiefs whom the Muhammadan rulers wished to conciliate, or else individuals having some claim on the State, either by their position or by past services. They were known in Bengal as Zemindars, and in Oudh and Gujarat as Talukdars. As time went on, 'the Zemindars did just as they pleased, and made the villagers pay whatever they demanded, or whatever they could extract from them.' The actual amount paid by the Zemindars from the proceeds into the Treasury depended very largely on the bargain they had been able to make with the Government."—G. Anderson, *British administration in India*, pp. 120, 132, 127, 128, 134, 135.—See also below: 1912-1922.—In charge of a district was a Mamlatdar under whom were the zamindars, in charge of a varying number of villages, in which they dealt with the *patels* or head men, who in turn decided the amount to be paid by the individual ryots or peasant cultivators. Later the office of Mamlatdar was let out to the highest bidder, who farmed his district to collectors. Darakdars, or inspectors, were employed in many districts to prevent mal-practice; but even so, the unfortunate cultivators were subjected to oppression. Under British control, an effort has evidently been made to arrange an equitable system of collecting the land revenues, in approximate accordance with the usage to which the people of each province were accustomed. In new districts, brought under cultivation by irrigation, the officials have had a freer hand. Thus, the land system of India is extremely complicated. In Bengal, where the permanent system is in operation, no change has been made since the settlement. This also applies to districts in the provinces of Madras and part of the United Provinces where the settlement maintains. The larger portion of the land in Madras and Bombay is cultivated by peasant proprietors, with whom the government enters into individual agreements, under the tenure known as

ryotwari. Speaking of this tenure, the commission which was appointed to enquire into the cause of famine in 1880 stated that: The ryot "holds his land in proprietary right, subject to the payment of the assessed revenue which is fixed for a period of thirty years. He has the option of resigning his entire holding, or any individual field, at the end of the agricultural year. His improvements cannot be made a ground for increasing his assessment at the time of the periodical assessment. He can sell, mortgage, or let his land to any one without requiring the consent of the Government, and at his death the land descends to his children according to the rules of inheritance."

"A general term for land-holders of position superior to that of cultivator is zamindar," and settlements on this system are known as "zamindari." They prevail in Bengal, the United Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces. These two forms of settlement are sharply distinguished in official literature. But, in substance, they tend to approach one another. Under a zamindari settlement the units of assessment—the revenue-paying estates—are generally very much larger than under a ryotwari settlement. But by the subdivisions of inheritances, their size is constantly diminishing. On the other hand, the free transfer of land, which is generally permitted leads to the amalgamation by purchase of ryotwari holdings. Again, as a general rule, zamindari revenue-payers are rent-receivers, not cultivators, while ryotwari revenue-payers are cultivators, not rent-receivers. But zamindars commonly farm a part of their estates, and sometimes the whole of them; and ryotwari [in the north, where the zamindari system is in operation the ryot is simply a cultivating tenant] holdings are sublet on an exceedingly extensive scale. From the fiscal point of view, an important point of difference is that zamindari holdings include much unassessed waste land that lies in and about their cultivated areas [which is non-productive of revenue] (although it may pay rent to the zamindar when taken up for reclamation). . . . In a ryotwari village, a cultivator who takes up waste land pays upon it forthwith."—J. B. Fuller, *Empire of India*, pp. 337, 338.—It is stated that, generally speaking, the land tax or rental is from five to ten per cent. of the gross produce, in ryotwari districts, and falls under fifty per cent. of the net income in zamindari districts. Permanent settlements are not in favor with officials, because the settlement being fixed on the basis of an average year, it tends to be too heavy in a bad season, in an agricultural country, where poverty is the rule, and where the people are too easily content with little to strive to lay by enough to tide them over a season of drought. In permanent settlement districts, therefore, a system of suspensions and remissions is in force to raise the burden from the peasantry in bad seasons. In these districts also laws are enforced against rack renting by zamindari landlords, an evil which was prevalent until the passage of legislation to prevent it.

ALSO IN: J. Sarkar, *Economics of British India*.—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 4.—K. T. Shah, *Sixty years of Indian finance*.—J. Strachey, *India, its administration and progress*, pp. 364-384.

Ancient art: Architecture, painting and sculpture.—Early frescoes at Ajanta and Assissi.—Development of music. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental; India; PAINTING: Asiatic; SCULPTURE: India, etc.; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented by temple architecture; MUSIC: Ancient: B.C. 2000—A.D. 1200.

Economic conditions. See below: 1912-1922.

Education. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B.C. 15th-5th centuries: India; EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: India; also below: 1813-1835; 1835-1922.

Ethics. See ETHICS: India; ASIA: European influences, etc.: 6.

Social conditions. See ASIA: European influences, etc.: 5.

Subservience of women in ancient times.—Woman's rights movement.—Marriage customs. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: B.C. 1200; 1900-1921; ASIA: European influences, etc.: 5.

Earliest records of commerce. See COMMERCE: Ancient: B.C. 2000.

Medical science of Hindus. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient Hindu.

B.C. 2000-600.—Immigration and conquests of the Aryans.—Vedism.—Brahmanism.—Hinduism.—“The immigration of the Aryas into India took place from the west. They stand in the closest relation to the inhabitants of the table-land of Iran, especially the inhabitants of the eastern half. These also call themselves Aryas, though among them the word becomes Airya, or Ariya, and among the Greeks Arioī. The language of the Aryas is in the closest connection with that of the Avesta, the religious books of Iran, and in very close connection with the language of the monuments of Darius and Xerxes, in the western half of that region. The religious conceptions of the Iranians and Indians exhibit striking traits of a homogeneous character. A considerable number of the names of gods, of myths, sacrifices, and customs, occurs in both nations, though the meaning is not always the same, and is sometimes diametrically opposed. Moreover, the Aryas in India are at first confined to the borders of Iran, the region of the Indus, and the Panjab. Here, in the west, the Aryas had their most extensive settlements, and their oldest monuments frequently mention the Indus, but not the Ganges. Even the name by which the Aryas denote the land to the south of the Vindhya, Dakshinapatha (Deccan), i.e., path to the right, confirms the fact already established, that the Aryas came from the west. From this it is beyond a doubt that the Aryas, descending from the heights of Iran, first occupied the valley of the Indus and the five tributary streams, which combine and flow into the river from the north-east, and they spread as far as they found pastures and arable land, i.e., as far eastward as the desert which separates the valley of the Indus from the Ganges. The river which irrigated their land, watered their pastures, and shaped the course of their lives they called Sindhu (in Pliny, Sindus), i.e., the river. It is, no doubt, the region of the Indus, with the Panjab, which is meant in the Avesta by the land hapta hindu (hendu), i.e., the seven streams. The inscriptions of Darius call the dwellers on the Indus Idhus. These names the Greeks render by Indos and Indoi. . . . Products of India, and among them such as do not belong to the land of the Indus, were exported from the land about 1000 B.C., under names given to them by the Aryas, and therefore the Aryas must have been settled there for centuries previously. For this reason, . . . we may assume that the Aryas descended into the valley of the Indus about the year 2000 B.C., i.e., about the time when the kingdom of Elam was predominant in the valley of the Euphrates and Tigris, when Assyria still stood under the dominion of Babylon, and the kingdom of Memphis was ruled by the Hyksos. . . . [In the Rig-veda, written about 2000 B.C.], the Indus is especially the object of praise; the ‘seven rivers’ are mentioned as the dwelling-place of the Aryas. This aggregate of seven is made up of the Indus

itself and the five streams which unite and flow into it from the east—the Vitasta, Asikni, Iravati, Vipāca, Çatadru. The seventh river is the Sarasvati, which is expressly named ‘the seven-sistered.’ The land of the seven rivers is, as has already been remarked, known to the Iranians. The ‘Sapta sindhava’ of the Rigveda are, no doubt, the hapta hendu of the Avesta, and in the form Harahvaiti, the Arachotus of the Greeks, we again find the Sarasvati in the east of the table-land of Iran. As the Yamuna [Jumna] and the Ganges are only mentioned in passing . . . and the Vindhya mountains and Narmadas are not mentioned at all, the conclusion is certain that, at the time when the songs of the Aryas were composed, the nation was confined to the land of the Panjab, though they may have already begun to move eastward beyond the valley of the Sarasvati. We gather from the songs of the Rigveda that the Aryas on the Indus were not one civic community. They were governed by a number of princes (raja). Some of these ruled on the bank of the Indus, others in the neighbourhood of the Sarasvati. They sometimes combined; they also fought not against the Dasyus only, but against each other.”—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 4, bk. 5, ch. 1-2.—“Vedism was the earliest form of the religion of the Indian branch of the great Aryan family. . . . Brahmanism grew out of Vedism. . . . Brahmanism was rather a philosophy than a religion, and in its fundamental doctrine was spiritual Pantheism. Hinduism grew out of Brahmanism. . . . Yet Hinduism is distinct from Brahmanism, and chiefly in this—that it takes little account of the primordial, impersonal Being Brahmā, and wholly neglects its personal manifestation Brahmā, substituting, in place of both Brahmā and Brahṃā, the two popular personal deities Siva and Vishnu.”—M. Williams, *Religious thought and life in India*, pt. 1, ch. 1, and introduction.—See also ARYANS; BRAHMANISM; RELIGION: B.C. 1000; VEDAS.

ALSO IN: R. Mitra, *Indo-Aryans*.—F. M. Müller, *History of ancient Sanskrit literature*.—Idem, ed., *Sacred books of the East*, v. 1.—A. Barth, *Religions of India*.—*Rig-Veda Samhita* (tr. by H. H. Wilson).—F. E. Pargiter, *Ancient Indian historical tradition*.

B.C. 600-327.—Rise of Buddhism in the empire of Magadha.—Invasion of Darius.—Extensive commerce.—“The history of India begins, for an orthodox Hindu, more than three thousand years before Christ, with the war between the sons of Pandu and the sons of Kuru, as described in the Mahabharata, a vast epic about eight times the bulk of the Iliad and Odyssey combined, and in parts of great antiquity. Another huge epic, the Ramayana, which probably is less ancient, relates the story of Rama, prince of Kosala (Oudh), and is also regarded by Hindus as a storehouse of historical facts. Many attempts, all alike unsuccessful, have been made to distil history from the Indian epic poems, but modern criticism now generally acknowledges the fact that bardic lays cannot be made the basis of sober history. . . . [However] most of the leading problems in Indian chronology have been successfully attacked and solved with the aid of . . . synchronisms; and it is now possible to give an outline of the main facts in chronological order from 600 B.C. to A.D. 650. . . . The oldest historical traditions seem to be those embodied in the Jain and Buddhist scriptures, parts of which may have been composed as early as the fifth century B.C. [when Buddha lived and taught]. . . . The early traditions give us glimpses of India in the sixth and seventh centuries B.C. The country, as far as it was occupied



by the more advanced tribes, especially those commonly called Aryan, was even then a civilized land, in a condition far removed from barbarism. We hear of sixteen great powers or principal states in Northern India, besides smaller kingdoms and tribal republics. Cities and towns were numerous, and well equipped with the necessaries and luxuries of life. Some of the places mentioned in the most ancient stories, such as Benares and Broach (Bharoch), are important cities to this day. Others, famous in the olden time, are now ruinous heaps, and of some the very name and site have been forgotten. Taxila, for instance, which was celebrated as one of the greatest cities of the East in the time of Alexander, was not only the capital of a kingdom two centuries earlier, but a seat of learning, to which scholars of all classes flocked for instruction in every branch of knowledge then within the reach of a student. Its site is now marked by lines of shapeless mounds, scattered among the villages near Rawalpindi. Sravasti, the splendid city where Buddha lived and taught for many years, lies buried in jungle on the borders of Nepal. Herodotus, who wrote towards the close of the fifth century B.C., gives the first important notice of India by a foreign observer. He did not visit the country personally, and doubtless derived his information from Persian sources. Darius, the son of Hystaspes (521-485 B.C.), having consolidated his power as master of the Persian empire, sought to extend it over part of India. [See also PERSIA: B.C. 521-493.] He obtained the necessary information by dispatching Scylax of Caryanda on a voyage of exploration down the rivers of the Punjab and Sind. The explorer, starting from a town named Kaspatyros, somewhere near Attock, in due course reached the sea, and, crossing it westward, 'arrived in the thirtieth month at that place [on the coast of the Red sea] where the King of Egypt dispatched the Phœnicians to sail round Libya.' Unfortunately no more detailed account has been preserved of this adventurous voyage, which anticipated the achievement of Alexander and Nearchus. Darius then attacked India and annexed to his empire the provinces west of the Indus, and possibly part of the Punjab. At the time of Alexander's invasion [in 327 B.C.] the Indus was the boundary between the Persian dominions and independent India. The Indian conquests were organized as the Twentieth Satrapy, the richest and most populous province of the empire. . . .

"All traditions agree in assigning a prominent position from very early times to the kingdom of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. Both the Jain and Buddhist religions arose either in that kingdom or on its borders. . . . [Gautama Buddha was probably born there, and it was from there that his doctrines later spread throughout India and beyond its borders], and Brahmanical Hinduism from time immemorial has always possessed a stronghold in the neighbouring city of Benares. The followers of all the leading Indian sects were thus equally interested in Magadha and the surrounding states. But the prominence assigned to Magadha is not due solely to the position it occupied in the history of religion. It was undoubtedly a powerful kingdom from a very early date. The most ancient dynasty in the Puranic lists which can lay claim to historic reality is that said to have been founded by Sisunaga, about the end of the seventh century. Bimbisara, the fifth monarch of this line of Magadhan kings, is famous in Buddhist story as the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha, the Sakya sage, the founder of the system which we call Buddhism. This unfor-

tunate prince was deposed, imprisoned, and ultimately starved to death by his son and successor, Ajatasatru, early in whose reign Buddha died, probably in the year 487 B.C. . . . [No other paramount power existed, and the state of the country seems to have been that of chronic warfare. Nevertheless, by the fourth century the Indians appear to have been well advanced in civilization, and to have carried on an extensive commerce. Also, all of India was included in this commerce, and in spite of its size the peoples of the north and south were known to each other.] But hardly anything definite is known about this early period; and detailed historical narrative does not become possible until the accession of Chandragupta Maurya, the first paramount sovereign or emperor of India, in 321 B.C."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India, v. 2, pp. 270-274.*—Such then was the political state of India when Alexander reached its borders.—See also BUDDHISM: Early spread of teachings.

ALSO IN: E. B. Havell, *History of Aryan rule in India.*

B.C. 327-312.—European discovery.—Conquests in India by Alexander the Great.—Influence of Greeks.—Rise of empire of Chandragupta.—"The year B.C. 327 marks an important era in the history of India. . . . The great empire of Magadha was apparently falling into anarchy, but Brahmanism and Buddhism were still expounding their respective dogmas on the banks of the Ganges. At this juncture Alexander of Macedonia was leading an army of Greeks down the Cabul river towards the river Indus, which at that time formed the western frontier of the Punjab [see MACEDONIA: B.C. 330-323]. . . . The design of Alexander was to conquer all the regions westward of the Indus, including the territory of Cabul, and then to cross the Indus in the neighbourhood of Attock, and march through the Punjab in a south-easterly direction, crossing all the tributary rivers on his way; and finally to pass down the valley of the Ganges and Jumna, via Delhi and Agra, and conquer the great Gangetic empire of Magadha or Pataliputra between the ancient cities of Prayaga and Gour. . . . After crossing the Indus, there were at least three kingdoms in the Punjab to be subdued one after the other, namely;—that of Taxiles between the Indus and the Jhelum; that of Porus the elder between the Jhelum and the Chenab; and that of Porus the younger between the Chenab and the Ravee. . . . When Alexander had fully established his authority in Cabul he crossed the Indus into the Punjab. Here he halted some time at the city of Taxila [Taxiles, the king, having submitted in advance], and then marched to the river [Hydaspes, the modern] Jhelum, and found that Porus the elder was encamped on the opposite bank with a large force of cavalry and infantry, together with chariots and elephants. The decisive battle which followed on the Jhelum is one of the most remarkable actions in ancient story. . . . Porus fought with a valour which excited the admiration of Alexander, but was at last wounded and compelled to fly. Ultimately he was induced to tender his submission. . . . The victory over Porus established the ascendancy of Alexander in the Punjab. [It] not only decided the question between himself and Porus, but enabled him to open up a new communication with Persia, via the river Indus and the Indian Ocean. He sent out woodmen to cut timber for ship-building in the northern forests, and to float it down the Jhelum; and he founded two cities, Bukephalia and Nikæa, one on each side of the Jhelum. . . . Whilst the fleet was being constructed, Alexander continued his march to the Chenab, and crossed

that river into the dominions of Porus the younger, [who fled at his approach, and whose kingdom was made over to the elder Porus, his uncle]. Alexander next crossed the Ravee, when he was called back by [a revolt in his rear, which he suppressed]. But meantime the Macedonians had grown weary of their campaign in India. . . . They . . . resisted every attempt to lead them beyond the Sutlej; and Alexander, making a virtue of necessity, at last consulted the oracles and found that they were unfavourable to an onward movement. . . . He returned with his army to the Jhelum, and embarked on board the fleet with a portion of his troops, whilst the remainder of his army marched along either bank. In this manner he proceeded almost due south through the Punjab and Scinde. . . . [But he had not lost his determination to found an Indian empire, and left behind him colonies and trading posts, and a port at the mouth of the river.] At last he reached the Indian Ocean, and beheld for the first time the phenomena of the tides; and then landed his army and marched through Beloochistan towards Susa, whilst Nearchos conducted the fleet to the Persian Gulf, and finally joined him in the same city. . . . Alexander had invaded the Punjab during the rainy season of B.C. 327, and reached the Indian Ocean (in September, 325 B.C.). . . . Meantime Philip remained at Taxila as his lieutenant or deputy, and commanded a garrison of mercenaries and a body-guard of Macedonians. When Alexander was marching through Beloochistan, on his way to Susa, the news reached him that Philip had been murdered by the mercenaries, but that nearly all the murderers had been slain by the Macedonian body-guards. Alexander immediately despatched letters directing the Macedonian Eudemos to carry on the government in conjunction with Taxiles, until he could appoint another deputy; and this provisional arrangement seems to have been continued until the death of Alexander in B.C. 323. The political anarchy which followed this catastrophe can scarcely be realized. . . . India was forgotten. Eudemos took advantage of the death of Alexander to murder Porus; but was ultimately driven out of the Punjab with all his Macedonians by an adventurer who was known to the Greeks as Sandrakottos, and to the Hindus as Chandragupta [312 B.C.].—J. T. Wheeler, *History of India: Hindu, Buddhist and Brahmanical*, ch. 4.

Also in: Arrian, *Anabasis of Alexander* (tr. by Chinnock), bk. 4-6.—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander*, ch. 38-43.—V. A. Smith, *Early history of India*.

B.C. 312.—Chandragupta.—Mauryan empire.—Spread of Buddhism and its Brahmanic absorption.—After the death of Alexander, not only was India forgotten by Europe, but India proceeded to forget Alexander and his deeds. Not a single allusion to him is found in any Indian writing. Within two years of his death, Macedonian authority was at an end, save only a small district held by Eudamos for a few years. "The leader of the revolt against the foreigners was an able adventurer, Chandragupta [Maurya] by name [a kinsman of the reigning king of Magadha, whose displeasure he had incurred, and from whose wrath he was a fugitive during Alexander's invasion of the Panjab]. . . . Chandragupta, having collected, during his exile, a formidable force of the warlike and predatory clans on the north-western frontier, attacked the Macedonian garrisons, immediately after Alexander's death, and conquered the Panjab. He then turned his victorious arms against his enemy the king of Magadha. . . . [He dethroned and slew the king, exterminated the

royal family and seized the throne. This tyrant, for such he proved to be, overran and subjugated the Northern States, probably as far as Narbada], so that the dominions of Chandragupta, the first historical paramount sovereign or emperor in India, extended from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian sea. [While Chandragupta was engaged in building this empire, Seleukos Nikator, who began to reign about 312 B.C., determined to recover Alexander's Indian conquests, and in pursuance of his project crossed the Indus in 305 B.C.] When the shock of battle came, the hosts of Chandragupta were too strong for the invader, and Seleukos was obliged to retire and conclude a humiliating peace. Not only was he compelled to abandon all thought of conquest in India, but he was constrained to surrender a large part of Ariana to the west of the Indus. . . . [The Hindu Kush mountains] in this way became the frontier of Chandragupta's provinces of Herat and Kabul on the South, and the Seleukid province of Bactria on the North."—V. A. Smith, *Early history of India*, pp. 115, 116, 117, 118.—Soon after the conclusion of the treaty of peace Seleukos sent as his envoy to Chandragupta's court an officer named Megasthenes. "To this circumstance we owe the first authentic account of Indian manners, customs, and religious usages by an intelligent observer who was not a native, and this narrative of Megasthenes, preserved by Strabo, furnishes a basis on which we may find a fair inference that Brahmanism and Buddhism existed side by side in India on amicable terms in the fourth century B.C. There is even ground for believing that King Chandragupta himself was in secret a Buddhist, though in public he paid homage to the gods of the Brahmans; at any rate, there can be little doubt that his . . . [grandson] Asoka did for Buddhism what Constantine did for Christianity—gave an impetus to its progress by adopting it as his own creed. [See also below: B.C. 273-161.] Buddhism, then, became the state religion, the national faith of the whole kingdom of Magadha, and therefore of a great portion of India. . . . What then is Buddhism? It is certainly not Brahmanism, yet it arose out of Brahmanism, and from the first had much in common with it. Brahmanism and Buddhism are closely interwoven with each other, yet they are very different from each other. Brahmanism is a religion which may be described as all theology, for it makes God everything, and everything God. Buddhism is no religion at all, and certainly no theology, but rather a system of duty, morality, and benevolence, without real deity, prayer or priest. . . . Brahmanism and Buddhism [in India] appear to have blended, or, as it were, melted into each other, after each had reciprocally parted with something, and each had imparted something. At any rate it may be questioned whether Buddhism was ever forcibly expelled from any part of India by direct persecution, except, perhaps, in a few isolated centres of Brahmanical fanaticism."—M. Williams, *Hinduism*, ch. 6.—See also BRAHMANISM; BUDDHISM.

B.C. 273-161.—Reign of Asoka.—Missionary efforts.—Greco-Bactrian kingdoms.—Chandragupta was succeeded in 297 B.C. by his son, Bindusara, of whom little is known. The contrary, however, is true of Asoka, the son of Bindusara, who ascended the throne in 273, or 272 B.C. The peace of this great monarch was disturbed by only one war, when he conquered the little state of Kalinga, near the mouth of the Godavari. It is related that the miseries caused by this war affected him so greatly that he declared that ambition should never again lead him to inflict such

wrongs. Soon after this, he came under the influence of Buddhist teaching and became a convert to Buddhism. On the completion of his conversion [he] . . . took measures, which proved very effective, to diffuse and propagate Buddhist doctrine throughout his dominions and those of his friendly neighbours. . . . He also set forth the main principles of the doctrine in pithy documents composed in the vernacular dialects, which were inscribed on rocks in the frontier, and on monolith pillars in the home provinces [from which a fairly comprehensive account of his life and work has been obtained]. An active proselytizing propaganda by means of special agents was organized, in addition to the system of instruction by officials. Missionaries were dispatched to Ceylon, to the independent Chola and Pandya kingdoms in the extreme South, and to all tributary states on the frontiers, as well as to the Hellenistic kingdoms of Syria, Macedonia, Epirus, Egypt, and Cyrene. . . . Popular interest in the royal teaching was further secured by the provision at government expense of material comforts for man and beast. The high roads were marked with milestones, and shaded by avenues of trees. Camping grounds were furnished with wells, mango-groves, and resthouses for travellers. Hospitals were founded, and medicinal herbs, wherever they were lacking, were freely imported and planted. The severity of the penal code was mitigated, and on each anniversary of the coronation prisoners were liberated. In these ways, and by a watchful supervision over public morals Asoka demonstrated the sincerity of his faith, and secured an astonishing amount of success in his efforts to propagate the system of Buddha. The form of Buddhism which he introduced into Ceylon has remained almost unchanged to this day in the island, and has thence spread over Burma and Siam [See also CEYLON: Earliest history.] In India conversion proceeded at a very rapid rate, and good progress was made among the mountaineers and nomads to the north and northwest. . . . By his efforts Buddhism, which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the great religions of the world—the greatest, probably, if measured merely by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered; this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but in that of the world."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 2, pp. 284-285.—See also BUDDHISM: Early spread of the teachings.—"After the time of Alexander the Great the Greeks made no important conquests in India. Antiochos, the grandson of Seleukos, entered into a treaty with the famous Buddhist king, Asoka, the grandson of Chandra Gupta, in 256 B.C. The Greeks had founded a powerful kingdom in Bactria, to the north-west of the Himalayas. During the hundred years after the Indo-Greek treaty of 256 B.C. the Greco-Bactrian kings sent invading hosts into the Punjab; some of whom reached eastwards as far as Muttra, or even Oudh, and southwards to Sind and Cutch. between 181 and 161 B.C. But they founded no kingdoms; and the only traces which the Greeks left in India were their science of astronomy, their beautiful sculptures, and their coins. Some of the early Buddhist statues, after 250 B.C., have exquisite Greek faces; and the same type is preserved in the most ancient carvings on the Hindu temples. By degrees even this trace of Greek influence faded away; but specimens of Indo-Greek sculptures may still be found in the museums of India."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, p. 89.

B.C. 240-A.D. 1290.—Résumé of the more important Hindu dynasties.—Towards the close of Asoka's reign the Maurya kingdom included part of peninsular India, Nepal and Bengal to the mouth of the Ganges, Sind, Kashmir, part of Baluchistan, and most of Afghanistan. This kingdom dwindled away after Asoka's death in 231 B.C. The Maurya was succeeded in the north in 184 B.C. by the Sunga dynasty which lasted 112 years, and was followed by the Kanva dynasty, overthrown in 27 B.C. by the Andhra kings. They were succeeded by the Kshaharata satraps in the west about 236 A.D. At the same time that the Andhra dynasty held sway in the center and south, there existed in the north the Kushan dynasty which lasted until 225 A.D., followed by a period of confusion. The Gupta dynasty, lasted from 320 to about 470 A.D.; the period of White Huns from 470 to 565; and the Chalukya dynasty in the Deccan, from 550 to 1126. The three ancient kingdoms of the South or Deccan were the Pandyas, Cholas and Cheras. Authentic records of the dynasties of the Pandyas and Cheras do not begin until the end of the 12th and the beginning of the 14th century respectively. The Chola dynasty lasted from 860 to about the end of the 13th century.

B.C. 231-A.D. 480.—Rise of Andhra kingdom.—Break-up of Bactrian kingdom.—Invasion by Menander.—Sakas, Andhras and Kalingas.—Kushand power.—Gupta empire.—Hindu renaissance.—"The reign of Asoka, which lasted for some forty years, ended in 231 B.C. After his death, the Maurya empire, which had endured for ninety years and three generations of kings, crumbled to pieces. The valleys of the Kistna and Godavari were formed, about 220 B.C., into an independent kingdom, known by the name of Andhra, which waxed great with remarkable rapidity, and soon spread across the central table-land of India from the Bay of Bengal to the Western Ghats. The home provinces seem to have passed at once under the sway of Dasaratha, Asoka's grandson, whose descendants continued to claim the imperial titles and rule Magadha, with perhaps some neighbouring districts, until 184 B.C. The last of them was then assassinated by his commander-in-chief, Pushyamitra, who seized the vacant throne, and founded the dynasty of the Sungas, to which tradition assigns a duration of one hundred and twelve years."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 2, p. 285-286.—In the meantime the Bactrian kingdom, north of the Hindu Kush enjoyed a large "measure of autonomy and profited greatly by the increase of trade between India and the west. In 250 B.C. it became independent. . . . The mountain passes of Sarikol, part of the coast and the Indus valley fell into their hands, and an empire was founded which endured for a century and a half. During this period, the Bactrian kingdom was broken up by the barbarians [Sakas]. And so the Greeks settled down to their kingdom in the Panjab [Punjab], to enact the last phase in the gallant but fruitless drama of the invasion of Alexander. . . . But the subjects of the kingdom of Sagala became slowly but surely absorbed in the native population. . . . Of only one of the Indo-Greek princes can we relate anything which may be termed definitely personal. This is the great Menander, whose fame has survived in the Buddhist dialogues, the *Questions of Milinda*, and of whom we have just so much information as to make us wish we knew more of the mighty king who was probably the last independent Greek monarch in history."—H. G. Rawlinson, *Indian historical studies*, pp. 48-49.—Pushyamitra had barely "secured his position, when he was threat-

ened by two great enemies from without—Menander (Milinda of Buddhistic tradition), from across the northwestern frontier and Karavela, the Kalingaraja from the south. Having [about 155 B.C.] laid waste the country as far east as even Saketa (possibly that in Oudh) and besieging Madhyamika (near Chitor in Rajaputana), Menander retired and no other European afterwards attempted the conquest of India from the land side . . . nor any at all up to the days of Vasco-de-Gama.”—K. Aiyangar, *Ancient India*, p. 12.—This could not be said of Asiatic peoples, who again and again have invaded and overrun parts of India from the north-west. Some of these invaders had already made their appearance, and may have begun to filter into the country under pressure from behind. “In the meantime there had appeared on the borders of India a formidable foe who soon overthrew the whole of the Græco-Bactrian kingdoms. These were the Sakas, a section of the great Turki, or Scythian, race. Their original settlements had been in Eastern Turkestan. Thence they were driven out, about 160 B.C., by the so-called Yuenchi [or Yue-chi], another section of the same race. They migrated to India, probably across the passes of the Karakorum Range, and through the valleys of the Indus. Having reached India, one portion marched west into Afghanistan. . . . The other portion of the invading Sakas occupied the Punjab, and gradually extended their conquest over the whole of the territory once belonging to Menander, *i.e.*, Sindh, Gujrat and Malwa. . . . [But, to return for a moment to the remnant of the great Mauryan empire, it appears that about 72 B.C. a minister of the Sunga emperor], a Brahman of the Kanva family, usurped the imperial power. For forty-five years he and his descendants, known as the Kanvayana dynasty, ruled the [Mauryan] empire. . . . [Some time later the Andhra king] seized the paramount power, [and] with this event the First Indian Empire became extinct. The central portion, Bihar and Oudh, now sank to the position of an insignificant province, while in the west, south, and east respectively, the great kingdoms of the Sakas, Andhras, and Kalingas took its place. Of the subsequent fortunes of the central portion nothing definite is known until the rise of the Second Indian Empire of the Guptas in the next period. From the confused account in the *Puranas* only this much may be concluded, that the unhappy country was torn by a succession of internal contests of rival factions belonging to different castes and tribes. Of the fortunes of the Kalinga kingdom also nothing is known, . . . till about 610 A.D.”—A. F. R. Hoernle and H. A. Stark, *History of India*, pp. 43-45.—Collateral with the dying Mauryan power, a great new power had risen in the northwest. The Sakas had been followed by the Yue-chi, who forced them out of Bactria, and after they had overrun that country, the Kushan clan of the Yue-chi found its way into India. The most powerful chief of this people united the tribes about 45 A.D., and succeeded in founding an empire known as Kushana. This man, who is commonly called Kadphises I, established intercourse with the Romans. One of his successors, Kadphises II, failed in a war with China, and was compelled to pay tribute; but his wars in India were more successful, and his kingdom probably stretched as far as Benares. Kanishka, the most famous of the dynasty, [about 125 A.D.] left monuments and inscriptions which prove that he carried his empire all over north western India, and perhaps as far south as the Vindhya mountains, which stopped so many conquerors. “Medicine, Architecture and Sculpture

attained a high degree of perfection during the period of the Kushana empire. At Kanishka's court there flourished the great physician Charaka, whose *Samhita* or general text-book on Medicine is still considered a standard work in India. No less renowned is the *Samhita* or general text-book of the great surgeon Susruta, which is said to have been revised and enlarged by Nagarjuna. Under the influence of Greek teachers of Art, and in the service of the new Buddhism, there arose in Afghanistan and the Punjab the famous Gandhara School of Architecture and Sculpture. It built magnificent *Chaityas* or temples, and *Viharas* or monasteries, and decorated them with numberless statues of the Buddhist pantheon, and scenes from its mythology. A similar school of a more Indian style flourished in Central India, where the still existing ruins of Bharhut, Sanchi, Amravati, Nasik and other places, testify to the skill and enterprise with which the Buddhist artists built their religious monuments with stone, or carved them out of the living rock.”—A. F. R. Hoernle and H. A. Stark, *History of India*, pp. 53-54.—This power seems to have utterly collapsed about 226 A.D. Farther south the “Great Satrapy” or kingdom of Saurashtra was established sometime in the second century by a remnant of the Sakas who had settled in Gujerat. It included Gujerat and Malwa, and lasted down to the end of the fourth century. “It was in the region set over against Malva that the next great Indian Power comes into being. A certain officer, possibly of the Andhras, by name or title, Gupta, had a petty province in and about Kosambi south-west of Allahabad. . . . [His] grandson Chandragupta . . . became the founder of a dynasty. . . . [About 308 A.D.] Chandragupta married a Licchavi princess of Vaisali, which gave him such influence and, what is more, such powerful aid that he was able easily to make himself the ruler of what was ancient Magadha. He not only beat back the advancing tide of Kshetrapsa [Saurashtra] aggression in central India, but also uprooted the power of these Saka rulers, [and thereby extended his power to the Arabian sea, and brought his people in touch with Alexandrian commerce]. Having made himself so far successful, he founded an era in A.D. 310, known as the Gupta era. Chandragupta's reign was devoted to securing what under the Mauryas was Magadha. Having been happily so successful in this, he had also the discernment to join with him in this work of empire building his eldest son Samudragupta, [poet, musician, patron of literature, and] the Napoleon of India. Samudragupta [who succeeded his father about 330] well deserves the comparison. . . . He seems to have early conceived . . . the idea of uniting the whole of India into one empire, and this idea he began to put into practice with all the uncompromising zeal begotten of confidence in his capacity. Leaving in the extreme east, Kamarupa (Assam), Davaka (middle) and Samatata (the Delta) independent allies upon his eastern frontier, he conquered the whole of Hindustan excepting the Punjab. . . . This done he started on a career of conquest to the south. Starting from Patna, he passed rapidly through the Mahanadi valley down the east coast, coming up to Kanchi in the south where the Pallavas had already made themselves secure. Taking a turn to the north-west, he passed through the Maharashtra country and Khandesh and entered his territory again. From the eleven kingdoms he passed through, he exacted allegiance but otherwise left them autonomous.”—S. K. Aiyangar, *Ancient India*, p. 10.—Samudragupta's personal dominions “extended from the Hooghly on the east to the

Jumna and Chambal on the west; and from the foot of the Himalayas on the north to the Narmada on the south. Beyond these wide limits, the frontier kingdoms of Assam and the Gangetic delta, as well as those on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, and the free tribes of Rajputana and Malwa, were attached to the empire by bonds of subordinate alliance; while almost all the kingdoms of the south had been overrun by the emperor's armies and compelled to acknowledge his irresistible might. The empire thus defined was by far the greatest that had been seen in India since the days of Asoka, six centuries before, and its possession naturally entitled Samudragupta to the respect of foreign powers. We are not, therefore, surprised to learn that he maintained diplomatic relations with the Kushan king of Gandhara and Kabul, and the greater sovereign of the same race who ruled on the banks of the Oxus, as well as with Ceylon and other distant islands."—V. A. Smith, *Early history of India*, pp. 271-272.—Samudragupta "transferred his capital from Pataliputra, or Patna, to Kausambi. There he set up a pillar, now standing in Allahabad, on which he engraved a record of his conquests. . . . Gujarat and Bengal were afterwards added to the empire by his son Chandra Gupta II (375-413 A.D.). This we know from a record on the Iron Pillar at Delhi, which was incised after his death in memory of his exploits. It will thus be seen that, as to its geographical limits, the Gupta Empire nearly rivaled that of the Mauryas. But over a very large portion the rule of the Guptas was only indirect, or even nominal. Their effective rule never extended beyond that part of Northern India which we call Hindustan. The states of the Deccan, such as the Kalachuri and Pallava, were only feudatory, and those of the northeast, Bengal and Assam paid only a nominal tribute. In the countries, however, which were under the direct rule of the Guptas, the administration, according to the testimony of the contemporary Chinese pilgrim Fahian, rivalled in excellence that of the great Asoka. . . . [The last great Gupta emperor was Skandagupta, who began to reign in 455. Even in his time the empire was shaken by revolts.] Fragments of the Kushana Empire, mainly consisting of foreign tribes, who occupied what is the modern Sindh and adjacent parts, had been brought into nominal subjection by Chandra Gupta II. It was these semi-independent tribes that caused the decadence of the Gupta Empire. The most active among them were the Pushyamitras [who were possibly the] . . . Maitrakas, who, as their name shows, had, in the course of time, become Indianised. Subsequently, . . . [the Maitrakas] succeeded in forming the independent kingdom of Valabhi; but in their first attempt they failed, for Skanda Gupta, soon after his accession, about 455 A.D., signally defeated them together with their barbarian allies; and thus reestablished the already tottering Gupta Empire."—A. F. R. Hoernle and H. A. Stark, *History of India*, pp. 56-57, 58.

"The golden age of the Guptas, glorious in literary, as in political, history, comprised a period of a century and a quarter (330-455 A.D.), and was covered by three reigns of exceptional length. [The period has been called the Periclean age of India, and the Hindu renaissance. The government appears to have been mild and firm, and the people free and prosperous. Then as now the revenue was chiefly derived from the land. Science flourished. Many claim that the best work in Indian literature was done at this period. Painting, sculpture and architecture attained a degree of excellence which was never afterwards reached.

Skandagupta saved India for a time] but, about 465 A.D., a fresh swarm of nomads poured across the frontier, and occupied Gandhara, or the north-western Panjab. . . . A little later, about 470, the Huns advanced into the interior, and again attacked Skandagupta in the heart of his dominions. He was unable to continue the successful resistance which he had offered in the earlier days of his rule, and was forced at last to succumb to the repeated attacks of the foreigners. . . . When he passed away, [about 480], the empire perished, but the dynasty remained, and was continued in the eastern provinces for several generations."—V. A. Smith, *Early history of India*, pp. 289, 291-293.

B.C. 100-A.D. 828.—Scythian and Arab invasions.—"The Greek or Bactrian expeditions into India ended more than a century before Christ; but a new set of invaders soon began to pour into India from the north. These came from Central Asia, and, for want of a more exact name, have been called the Scythians. They belonged to many tribes, and they form a connecting link between Indian and Chinese history. As the Aryan race in the west of Asia had, perhaps 3000 years before Christ, sent off branches to Europe on the one hand, and to India on the other; so the Scythians, who dwelt to the east of the old Aryan camping-ground in Asia, swarmed forth into India and China. These Scythic inroads went on during a great period of time. Buddha himself is said by some to have been a Scythian. But they took place in very great force during the century preceding the birth of Christ. They were the fore-runners of a long series of inroads which devastated Northern India more than a thousand years later, under such leaders as Changiz Khan and Timur, and which in the end founded the Mughal empire. About the year 126 B.C., the Tartar or Scythian tribe of Su are said to have driven out the Greek dynasty from the Bactrian kingdom, on the north-west of the Himalayas. Soon afterwards the Scythians rushed through the Himalayan passes and conquered the Greco-Bactrian settlements in the Punjab. About the beginning of the Christian era, they had founded a strong monarchy in Northern India and in the countries just beyond. Their most famous king was Kanishka, who summoned the Fourth Buddhist Council about 40 A.D. . . . The Scythian monarchies of Northern India came in contact with the Buddhist kingdom under the successors of Asoka in Hindustan. The Scythians themselves became Buddhists; but they made changes in that faith. The result was . . . that while the countries to the south of India had adopted the Buddhist religion as settled by Asoka's Council in 244 B.C., the Buddhist religion as settled by Kanishka's Council in 40 A.D. became the faith of the Scythian nations to the north of India, from Central Asia to Japan. . . . The Scythians are believed to have poured into India in such numbers as to make up a large proportion of the population in the north-western frontier Provinces at the present day. . . . However this may be, it is clear that many Scythian inroads took place into India from the first century B.C. to the fifth century A.D. . . . During that long period several Indian monarchs won fame by attempting to drive out the Scythians. The best known of these is Vikramaditya, King of Ujjain in Malwa, in honour of whose victories one of the great eras in India, or systems of reckoning historical dates, is supposed to have been founded. It is called the *Samvat* era, and begins in 57 B.C. Its reputed founder is still known as Vikramaditya Sakari, or Vikramaditya the enemy of the Scyth-

ians. . . Vikramaditya is merely a royal title, meaning "A very Sun in Prowess," which has been borne by several kings in Indian history. But the Vikramaditya of the first century before Christ was the most famous of them—famous alike as a defender of his country against the Scythian hordes, as a patron of men of learning, and as a good ruler of his subjects. . . . About a hundred years later, another valiant Indian king arose against the Scythians. His name was Salivahana; and a new era, called the *Saka* or Scythian, was founded in his honour in 78 A.D. These two eras—the *Samvat*, beginning in 57 B.C., and the *Saka*, commencing in 78 A.D.—still form two well-known systems of reckoning historical dates in India. . . . During the next five centuries, three great Indian dynasties maintained the struggle against the Scythians. The Sah kings reigned in the north-west of Bombay from 60 to 235 A.D. The Gupta kings reigned in Oudh and Northern India from 319 to 470 A.D., when they seem to have been overpowered by fresh hosts of Huns or Scythians. The Valabhi kings ruled over Cutch, Malwa, and the north-western districts of Bombay from 480 to after 722 A.D. . . . The Valabi dynasty seems to have been overthrown by the early Arab invaders of Sind in the eighth century A.D."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, pp. 90-93.—The first of these Arab invasions was made in 711 A.D., under the authority of the caliph of Bagdad. "Within a hundred years after . . . [the death of Mohammed, 632], his followers had invaded the countries of Asia as far as the Hindu Kush. Here their progress was stayed, and Islam had to consolidate itself, during three more centuries, before it grew strong enough to grasp the rich prize of India. But, almost from the first, the Arabs had fixed eager eyes upon that wealthy country. Fifteen years after the death of the prophet, Usman sent a sea-expedition to Thana and Broach on the Bombay coast (647? A.D.). Other raids towards Sind took place in 662 and 664, with no permanent results. In 711, however, the youthful Kasim advanced into Sind, to claim damages for an Arab ship which had been seized at an Indian port. After a brilliant campaign, he settled himself in the Indus valley; but the advance of the Musalmans depended on the personal daring of their leader, and was arrested by his death in 714 A.D. The despairing valour of the Hindus struck the invaders with wonder. One Rajput garrison preferred extermination to submission. They raised a huge funeral pile, upon which the women and children first threw themselves. The men then bathed, took a solemn farewell of each other, and, throwing open the gates, rushed upon the besiegers and perished to a man. In 750, the Rajputs are said to have expelled the Muhammadan governor, but it was not till 828 A.D. that the Hindus regained Sind."—W. W. Hunter, *Indian empire: Its peoples, history and products*, p. 321.

A.D. 1st century.—Invasion of Java. See JAVA: Early history.

480-648.—Hun invasions.—Harsha empire.—On the break up of the Gupta empire, immense numbers of Huns invaded northern India, and by their cruelty terrorized and oppressed the people for about three quarters of a century before they were overthrown by a confederacy of princes under the king of the ancient state of Magdha. "The barbarian invasions of the fifth and sixth centuries, although slurred over by the Indian authorities, constitute a turning-point in the history of northern and western India, both political and social. The political system of the Gupta period was completely broken up, and new kingdoms were formed.

No authentic family or clan traditions go back beyond the Hun invasions. All genuine tradition of the earlier dynasties has been absolutely lost. The history of the Mauryas, Kushans, and Guptas, so far as is known, has been recovered laboriously by the researches of scholars, without material help from living tradition. . . . [Little has been learned of the state of India throughout the sixth century. Something is known of the Valabhi kingdom, which was established in the Surashttra peninsula at the end of the fifth century, and brought western India under its control for a time. About the middle of the century the Chalukya clan established a kingdom in the Bijapur district, Bombay, which in the seventh century became the leading power in the Deccan. Beyond these facts, and the Hun invasions the history is very obscure and it is evident that there was little peace in the land. However,] "the embarrassing lack of material for the history of the latter half of the sixth century is no longer felt when the story of the seventh has to be told. . . . Harsha or Kanouj, the able monarch who reduced anarchy to order in northern India, and reigned for forty-one years, as Asoka had done, is not merely a name in a genealogy. His personal characteristics and the details of his administration, as recorded by men who knew him intimately, enable us to realize him as a living person who achieved greatness by his capacity and energy. . . . Harsha, or Harsha-wardhana, [606-647] was the younger son of . . . [the] Raja of Thanesar, the famous holy town to the north of Delhi, who had won considerable military successes. . . . [After his death by assassination] his younger son, Harsha, then only sixteen or seventeen years of age, was constrained by his nobles to accept the vacant throne, and to undertake the difficult task of bringing northern India into subjection and tolerable order."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, pp. 163-165.—The reign of Harsha is one of the bright spots in Indian history. An excellent description of the country during his reign has been left by Hiuen Tsiang, a Chinese pilgrim who visited his court in 643, and travelled throughout the whole of India. According to this writer, the one hundred and eighteen nations, which had comprised India in the time of Megasthenes, had been reduced to seventy. "The territories west of the Indus, including Gandhara, had become subject to the king of Kapisa or Northern Afghanistan, and part of the Punjab was under the dominion of Kashmir. North of the Narbada river all, or nearly all the states, . . . seem to have recognized the suzerainty of Harsha, and even the king of distant Assam obeyed his orders and attended in his train. The king of Valabhi in the far west was his son-in-law, and also helped to swell the crowd of twenty tributary princes. For the efficient control of his extensive dominions Harsha seems to have relied . . . upon his personal supervision. . . . He was continually on the move, except during the rainy season, so that his camp was his capital. . . . Criminals . . . were few in number, and only occasionally troublesome. The ordinary punishment was imprisonment, which meant, as now in Tibet, that the prisoners 'are simply left to live or die, and are not counted among men.' But certain crimes regarded as heinous, including breaches of filial piety, were liable to punishment by amputation of the nose, ears, hands, or feet, or by banishment to the wilds. Minor offences were expiated by fine. . . . Torture was not employed to extract evidence, but an absurd system of ordeals by water, fire, poison, or weight was much favoured as an infallible method of ascertaining the truth. Hiuen Tsiang agreed with his predecessor Fa-hien

[a Chinese chronicler of the reign of Chandragupta II] in judging the taxation to be light and the revenue administration lenient. He noted with satisfaction that every man could keep his worldly goods in peace, and till the ground for his own subsistence. The normal rent of the crown lands was one-sixth of the gross produce. Officials were paid by assignments of land (*jagir*); and the 'fixed salaries' mentioned by Fa-hien probably meant the same. Labour on public works was duly paid for, compulsory service not being exacted. . . . Hiuen Tsiang repeats the statement made by Fa-hien that gold and silver coins were not known, and adds that commerce was conducted by barter. . . . In reality, both silver and copper coins were commonly used in Northern India from 500 or 600 B.C.; and during the centuries of the Kushan and Gupta domination large issues of gold coin were struck, specimens of which still exist in hundreds. In the time of Harsha the coinage of gold had ceased, or

country into disorder, which was aggravated by famine. . . . The experiences of the third and sixth centuries were repeated, and a rearrangement of kingdoms was begun, of which the record is obscure. It is impossible to say exactly what happened in most of the provinces for a considerable time after his disappearance from the scene. [After his death, there was no unity in India until in the twelfth century the Delhi sultans brought a number of important provinces under their rule.] The disorder following upon Harsha's death . . . may be regarded . . . as forming the transition from Early to Medieval India, during which the hordes of foreign invaders were absorbed into the Hindu body politic and a new grouping of states was gradually evolved. The transitional period was marked by the development of the Rajput clans, never heard of in earlier times, which begin from the eighth century to play a conspicuous part in the history of northern and western India. They



FORT OF RAI PATHORA, DELHI

Built before the coming of the Mohammedan kings

become very rare, but silver pieces resembling those of the Guptas were minted in quantity. . . . Buddhism generally exhibited signs of decay, but was still strong in the Punjab, Kashmir, and the neighbouring states on the northwestern frontier. In the Gangetic valley the adherents of orthodox Hinduism formed a decided majority, while Jains were numerous in Eastern Bengal and at Vaisali. An epoch is marked by the death in A. D. 648 of Harsha, the last native paramount sovereign of northern India."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 2, pp. 300-301.

647-1310.—Rajput period.—Turmoil in upper India.—Kingdoms of the south.—Chola dynasty.—"The Chalukya kingdom in the Deccan, founded, . . . in the middle of the sixth century, was raised to a paramount position by its king, Pulakesin II, the contemporary of Harsha. The northern monarch, impatient of a rival, attacked Pulakesin about A. D. 620, but was defeated, and obliged to accept the Narbada as his southern frontier. So far as is known that defeat was Harsha's only failure. . . . [He died in 646, or 647, and] the withdrawal of his strong arm threw the whole

become so prominent that the centuries from the death of Harsha to the Muhammadan conquest of Hindostan, extending in round numbers from the middle of the seventh to the close of the twelfth century, might be called with propriety the Rajput Period. Nearly all the kingdoms were governed by families or clans which for ages past have been called collectively Rajputs. . . . [The term Rajput] merely denotes a tribe, clan, sept, or caste of warlike habits, the members of which claimed aristocratic rank. . . . Gradually, however, the operation of complicated caste rules concerning intermarriage during many centuries has produced an extensive network of blood-relationship between the clans, which have become castes. . . . [During this period, states and kingdoms rose and fell, and were seldom at peace with one another. But in spite of constant warfare, the rulers maintained princely courts] and the arts of peace were cultivated with success. Stately works of architecture, enriched lavishly with sculptures often of high merit, were erected in almost every kingdom; and learned men, writing for the most part in the Sanskrit language, enjoyed liberal and intelligent patronage from

princes who not unfrequently wielded the pen as well as the sword. Hindi, Bengali, Gujarati, and the other languages now spoken gradually attained the dignity of recognized existence, and the foundations of vernacular literatures were laid. . . . In the ninth and tenth centuries the Gurjara-Pratiharas (Parihars) became the leading power in north-western India. Bengal came under the sway of the Palas, apparently an indigenous dynasty, for more than four centuries; while Malwa, Gujarat, and several other kingdoms obtained a large share of wealth and power. . . . The Tamil realms of the Far South formed a world of their own, its isolation being complete, save for frequent wars with the kings of the Deccan and Ceylon and for extensive foreign trade. The ancient state of the Pandyas, Cholas, and Cheras were overshadowed for a long time, especially in the seventh century, by the Pallavas. . . .

"The normal limits of the territories of the three ancient ruling races of the Tamil country [in the south] were defined by immemorial tradition and well recognized, although the actual frontiers of the kingdoms varied continually and enormously from time to time. The Pandya kingdoms, as defined by tradition . . . comprised the existing Districts of Madura and Tinnevely with parts of the Travancore State. The Chola country, according to the most generally received tradition . . . include Madras with several adjoining Districts, and a large part of the Mysore State. The Chera or Kerala territory consisted in the main of the rugged region of the Western Ghats to the south of the Chandragiri river, which falls into the sea not far from Mangalore, and forms the boundary between the peoples who severally speak Tulu and Malayalam. No such traditional limits are attributed to the dominions of the Pallavas, although their early habitat, the Tondainadu, comprising the districts near Madras, was well known. They held as much territory as they could grasp. [They were paramount in the south from the middle of the sixth to the middle of the eighth century when power began to slip from their grasp. About the end of the ninth century the Cholas replaced them, and held the ascendancy for more than three hundred years.] The administration of the Chola kingdom was highly systematized and evidently had been organized in very ancient times. . . . The whole fabric of the administration rested upon the basis of the village, or rather of unions of villages. . . . Each *kurram* or union managed its local affairs through the agency of an assembly (*mahasabha*), which possessed and exercised extensive powers subject to the control of the royal officers (*adhikarin*). The assembly was elected by an elaborate machinery for casting lots, and the members held office for one year. Each union had its own local treasury, and enjoyed full control over the village lands, being empowered even to sell them in certain contingencies. Committees were appointed to look after tanks, gardens, justice, and other departments. A certain number of *kurram* or unions constituted a District (*nadu*), a group of Districts formed a *kottam* or Division, and several Divisions formed a province. The kingdom was divided into six provinces. . . . The theoretical share of the gross produce claimed by the state as land revenue was one-sixth, but petty imposts in great variety were levied, and the total demand has been estimated as four-fifteenths. . . . The lands were regularly surveyed, and a standard measure was recorded. Details concerning the military organization are lacking. A strong fleet was maintained. Irrigation works were constructed on a vast scale and of good design. The embank-

ment of the artificial lake at Gangaikonda-Cholapuram, for instance, was sixteen miles in length, and the art of throwing great dams or 'ancicuts' across the Kaveri (Cauvery) and other large rivers was thoroughly understood. Various public works of imposing dimensions were designed and erected. . . . It seems that forced labour was employed on such works. The principal roads were carefully maintained. The particulars thus briefly summarized give an impression that the administrative system was well thought out and reasonably efficient. The important place given to the village assemblies assured the central government of considerable popular support, and individuals probably submitted readily to the orders of their fellow villagers who had the force of public opinion behind them. The system appears to have died out along with the Chola dynasty early in the fourteenth century, and ever since that distant time has been quite extinct."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, pp. 167, 169-170, 174, 181, 206, 211-213.

ALSO IN: *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 4.—W. W. Hunter, *History of British India*.—H. G. Rawlinson, *Indian historical studies*.—R. C. Dutt, *Ancient India*.

977-1290.—Under the Ghaznavide and Mameluke empires.—Slave dynasty.—The disunion in India during the Rajput period left the north an easy prey to Musulman invasion, although for a time it was practically unmolested. "It was not to be wondered at if the Arabs made no wide or lasting Indian conquests in the early ages of the Musulman era. At a time when they were engaged with the Christian Empires of the East and the West, when they were spreading the power of the crescent from the borders of Khorasan to the Pillars of Hercules, the warriors of Islam had perhaps but little temptation to undertake further adventure. Certain it is that beyond the confines of Makran and a part of Sindh (occupied less than a hundred years after the Hijra) the Arab conquests did not spread in India. It was Nasir-ud-Din Sabuktigin—certainly a Merv captive and popularly believed a scion of the Sassanian dynasty that once ruled Persia—by whom the first Muslim invasion of Hindustan was made in durable fashion. His master, Alptigin, having fled from the oppression of the Samani dynasty of Bukhara in 962, had founded a principality at Ghazni. Sabuktigin acquired his favour, and was able, soon after his death, to acquire the succession in 977. He established his power in the Punjab; and his armies are said to have penetrated as far as Benares. On his death, 997, his son, the celebrated Sultan Mahmud, succeeded to the Empire extending from Balkh to Lahore, if not to Hansi. (See TURKEY: 999-1183.) During a reign of over thirty years he invaded Hindustan twelve times, inflicting terrible carnage on the Hindus, desecrating their idols, and demoralising their temples. Mathura, Kanauj, Somnath; to such distant and divergent points did his enterprises reach. [See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.] Mahmud died, 1030, and was buried at Ghazni, where his monument is still to be seen. For about one hundred years the dynasty continued to rule in the Punjab and Afghanistan, more and more troubled by the neighbouring tribe of Ghor, who in 1187 took Lahore and put an end to the Ghaznavide dynasty. A prince of the Ghorians—variously known, but whose name may be taken as Muhammad Bin Sam—was placed in a sort of almost independent viceroyalty at Ghazni. In 1191 he led an army against Sirhind, south of the Sutlaj river. Rai Pithaura, or Pirthi Rai, a chief of the



Chauhans (who had lately possessed themselves of Delhi), marched against the invaders and defeated them in a battle where Bin Sam had a narrow escape from being slain. But the sturdy mountaineers would not be denied. Next year they returned [and defeated Pithaura]. The towns of Mirat and Delhi fell upon his defeat; and their fall was followed a year later by that of Kanauf and Benares. The Viceroy's brother dying at this juncture, he repaired to his own country to establish his succession. He was killed in an expedition, 1206, . . . and the affairs of Hindustan devolved upon . . . Kutb-ud-din Aibak, a Mameluke, or Turkish slave, who had for a long time been his faithful follower. One of the Viceroy's first undertakings was to level to the ground the palaces and temples of the Hindus at Delhi, and to build, with the materials obtained by their destruction, a great Mosque for the worship of Allah. . . . From 1192 to 1206, the year of Bin Sam's death, Kutb-ud-din Aibak ruled as Viceroy. But it is recorded that the next Emperōr—feeling the difficulty, perhaps, of exercising any sort of rule over so remote a dependency—sent Aibak a patent as 'Sultan,' accompanied by a canopy of state, a throne and a diadem. Becoming Sultan of Hindustan, the distinguished and fortunate Mameluke founded what is known as 'the Slave dynasty.' . . . Aibak died at Lahore, in 1210, from an accident at a game now known as polo. He was contemporaneous with the great Mughul leader Changiz Khan, by whom, however, he was not molested. The chief event of his reign is to be found in his successful campaigns in Behar and Northern Bengal. . . . The Musulman power was not universally and firmly established in the Eastern Provinces till the reign of Balban (circ. 1232). At the death of Aibak the Empire was divided into four great portions. The Khiljis represented the power of Islam in Bihar and Bengal; the North-West Punjab was under a viceroy named Ilduz, a Turkoman slave; the valley of the Indus was ruled by another of these Mamelukes, named Kabacha; while an attempt was made at Delhi to proclaim an incompetent lad, son of the deceased, as Sultan. But the Master of the Horse, a third Mameluke named Altimsh, was close at hand, and, hurrying up at the invitation of influential persons there, speedily put down the movement. . . . Altimsh, having deposed his feeble brother-in-law, became Suzerain of the Empire. His satraps were not disposed to obedience; and bloody wars broke out, into the details of which we need not enter. It will be sufficient to note that Ilduz was defeated and slain A.D. 1215. Two years later Kabacha came up from Sindh, and seems [to] have enlisted some of the Mughul hordes in his armies. These formidable barbarians, . . . were now in force in Khorasan, under Changiz in person, assisted by two of his sons. [See MONGOLIA: A.D. 1153-1227.] They drove before them the Sultan of Khwarizm (now Khiva), and occupied Afghanistan. The fugitive, whose adventures are among the most romantic episodes of Eastern history, attempted to settle himself in the Panjab; but he was driven out by Altimsh and Kabacha in 1223. Two years later Altimsh moved on the Khiljis in the Eastern Provinces, occupied Gaur, their capital; and proceeding from thence made further conquests south and north at the expense of the Hindus. In 1228 he turned against Kabacha, the mighty Satrap of Sindh, who was routed in battle near Bakkhar, where he committed suicide or was accidentally drowned. In 1232-3 the Sultan reduced Gwalior (in spite of a stout resistance on the part of the Hindus under Milak Deo), slaying 700 prisoners at

the door of his tent. In 1234 he took the province of Malwa; where he demolished the great temples of Bhilsa and Ujain. In the following year this puissant warrior of the Crescent succumbed to the common conqueror, dying a natural death at Delhi [or Delhi] after a glorious reign of twenty-six (lunar) years. . . . His eldest son, who had conducted the war against the Khiljis, had died before him, and the Empire was assumed by a younger son, Rukn-ud-din Firoz. . . . [In 1241] Lahore was taken by the Mughols with terrific carnage. Troubles ensued; Delhi was besieged by the army that had been raised for its defence



KUTAB MINAR, DELHI

Built about 1207, with chapters of the Koran carved on its shaft

against the Mughols: in May 1242 the city was taken by storm and the new Sultan was slain. His successor, Ala-ud-din I., was a grandson of Altimsh, incompetent and apathetic as young men in his position have usually been. The land was partitioned among Turkish satraps, and overrun by the Mughols, who penetrated as far as Gaur in Bengal. Another horde, led by Mangu, grandson of Changiz, and father of the celebrated Kiblai Khan, ravaged the Western Punjab. The Sultan marched against them and met with a partial success. This turned into evil courses the little intellect that he had [and] a plot was organised for his destruction. Ala-ud-din was slain, and his uncle Nasir-ud-din was placed upon the vacant throne in June 1246. Nasir's reign was long, and,

so far as his personal exploits went, would have been uneventful. But the risings of the Hindus and the incursions of the Mughols kept the Empire in perpetual turmoil. [Nasir was succeeded by his minister Ulugh Khan Balban, a ruthless man of whom it was said that 'fear and awe of him took possession of all men's hearts,' and whose fierce revenge on hapless Hindu rebels made his name a byword. He died in 1286, and was succeeded by his grandson, Kaikobad.] . . . This unfortunate young man was destined to prove the futility of human wisdom. Educated by his stern and serious grandfather, his lips had never touched those of a girl or a goblet. His sudden elevation turned his head. He gave himself up to debauchery, caused his cousin Khusrū to be murdered, and was himself ultimately killed in his palace at Kilokhari, while lying sick of the palsy. With his death (1290) came to an end the Mameluke Empire of Hindustan."—H. G. Keene, *Sketch of the history of Hindustan*, v. 1, pp. 20-22, 25-30, 35-36.—See also MONGOLIA: Map of Mongolian empires.

Also IN: J. T. Wheeler, *History of India*, v. 4, pt. 1, ch. 2.—A. Dow, *History of Hindustan* (from the Persian of Ferishta), v. 1.

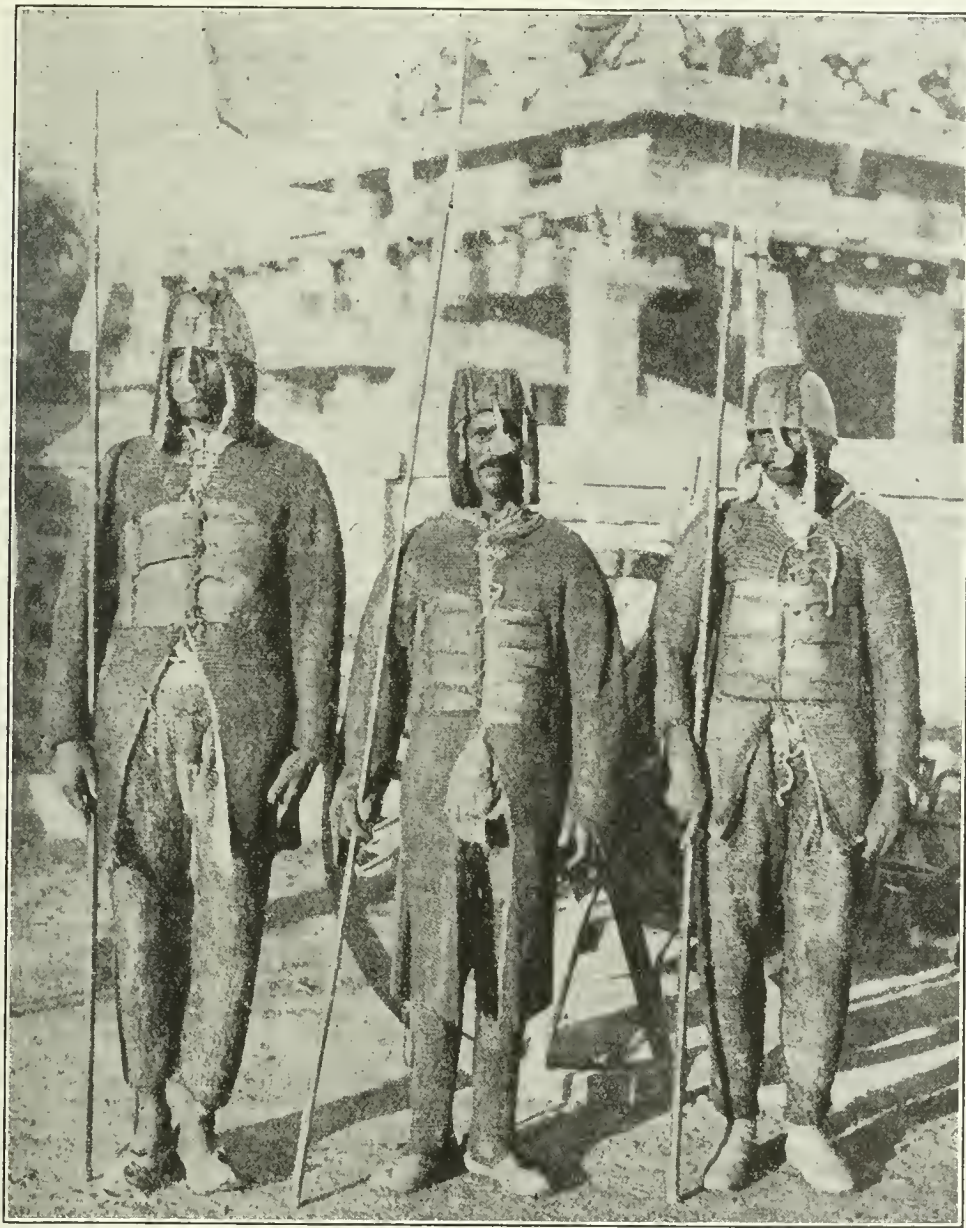
1290-1398.—From Afghans to Moguls.—Tughlak sultans.—Invasion of Timur or Tamerlane.—"In 1290 the last Sultan of the Afghan slave dynasty was assassinated, and a Sultan ascended the throne at Delhi under the name of Jelal-ud-din. He was an old man of seventy, and made no mark in history; but he had a nephew, named Ala-ud-din, who became a man of renown, [and who presently acquired the throne by murdering his uncle]. When Ala-ud-din was established on the throne at Delhi he sent an army to conquer Guzerat. [This conquest was followed by that of Rajputana.] Meanwhile the Moghuls [Mongols] were very troublesome. In the previous reign the uncle of Ala-ud-din had enlisted 3,000, and settled them near Delhi; but they were turbulent, refractory, and mixed up with every rebellion. Ala-ud-din ordered them to be disbanded, and then they tried to murder him. Ala-ud-din then ordered a general massacre. Thousands are said to have been put to death, and their wives and children were sold into slavery. Ala-ud-din [Mohammed I] was the first Muhammadan sovereign who conquered Hindu Rajas in the Deccan and Peninsula. . . . Ala-ud-din sent his general Malik Kafur to invade these southern countries, ransack temples, and carry off treasure and tribute. The story is a dreary narrative of raid and rapine."—J. T. Wheeler, *Short history of India*, pt. 2, ch. 1.—"These expeditions . . . put an end to the old Southern Empire of the Hindus. They raised Muhammad I's reign and the First Muhammadan Empire to the zenith of their glory. The latter empire now rivalled that of the Guptas by embracing nearly the whole of India; but, as was the case with the Gupta Empire, its sway was neither effective nor enduring. South India acknowledged it only so long as she was overawed by the imperial troops, and the outlying provinces, such as Bengal, respected it hardly more than in name. Muhammad I, whose master-mind alone held the empire together, died of dropsy in 1316 A.D. [Some say he was murdered by Kafur.] After him, under his profligate and faithless son Mubarak, there ensued a general breakdown, both internal and external, which culminated in 1320 A.D. in the extraordinary usurpation of the throne by Mubarak's favourite, the utterly depraved and low-caste Hindu, Khusrū. A reaction was not long delayed. Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq, the governor of the Punjab, came to the rescue, and defeated and executed the usurper in the same year. Seeing

that the Khalji House had been exterminated by the usurper, Tughlaq himself was called to the throne by the nobles and officers of state. According to Ibn-Batuta he was a Karauna, *i.e.*, of mixed Turki and Indian descent, and he thus became the founder of the Karauna or Tughlaq-shahi dynasty which reigned for nearly a century (1320-1414 A.D.). It gave to India, in Muhammad II, the son of Tughlaq (1325-1351 A.D.), the most striking figure among the rulers of the first Muhammadan Empire. He was a man of high culture, great intellect, and indomitable will. His conduct was full of contradictions, acts of extravagant generosity alternating with others of incredible cruelty. Ibn-Batuta, the Arab traveller, who visited his court in 1333 A.D., tells us that 'at his gate there might always be seen some faqir whom he had enriched, or the corpse of some one whom he had slain.' His mind was that of a genius with a strain of madness. The most striking administrative acts of his reign were the attempted removal, in 1339 A.D., of the capital from Delhi to the more centrally situated Devagiri [in the Deccan] which he re-named Daulatabad, and the attempted enrichment, in 1327 A.D., of the national exchequer by the introduction of a brass token currency. Both ideas were excellent in conception. Muhammad II rightly saw that a vast and imperfectly welded empire such as his required a central capital and a well-filled treasury. But the projects were enforced with so little foresight and brought so much suffering on the people, that they utterly failed and had to be abandoned. When he recognized their failure, Muhammad II was honest enough to frankly abandon them. But the mischief was done; nor could he repair it by the confirmation of his sovereignty which he secured, in 1340 A.D., from the Khalifah of Egypt. It resulted in the ruin of the magnificent empire which he had inherited from his father. Bengal in 1339 A.D., and the Deccan in 1347, declared themselves independent; and when Muhammad II died in 1351 A.D., Oudh, Malwa, Gujarat and Sindh were in revolt. The further disintegration of the empire was for a time averted by the long and prosperous reign of his cousin, Firuz III (1351-1388 A.D.). This mild and pious sovereign made no attempt to recover the lost provinces, but applied himself, with the help of his wise wazir, Maqbul Khan, to the better development of those that still remained to him. His chief measures for this purpose were the abolition of certain oppressive taxes, the construction of the still-existing Great Jumna Canal and other irrigation works, the reclamation of waste lands [see also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1350-1630], and the founding of new towns, colleges, *serais* and other public buildings. On the other hand, the mildness of his rule, combined with his system of granting whole provinces in fief to successful courtiers, directly contributed to the final break-up of the empire, which ensued soon after his death in 1388 A.D. His sons and grandsons, six of whom reigned after him, were unable to maintain their authority over the viceroys of Oudh, Malwa, Gujarat, and the Western Marches. Between 1394 and 1401, these, one after the other turned their fiefs into independent kingdoms. They thus reduced the imperial possessions so much that these hardly comprised more than the home province of Delhi that is the Doab and Rohtak. The general turmoil of the time reached its climax in the fearful invasion of Timur, [or Tamerlane the Great], the celebrated Mughal leader, who captured Delhi in December 1398 A.D. The invasion lasted only six months; but the incredible devastation which Timur left in his track,

earned for him the name of "the Scourge of God."—A. F. Hoernle and H. A. Stark, *History of India*, pp. 96-99.—See also TIMUR.

14th-18th centuries.—Characteristics of Moslem architecture. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: India: Moslem architecture.

chi, Huns and others, the Moslems did not allow themselves to be absorbed into the Hindu race and religion. Fortified by the possession of a sacred book, which the other invaders did not have, and by the purity of their theistic doctrine as opposed to the polytheism of the Hindus, they



CHAIN ARMOR DATING FROM TIME OF MOGUL DOMINATION

1351-1767.—Administration of Sultans.—Social conditions under Moguls.—Without exception, the Sultans were fierce bigots, and even though some of them were interested in literature, and were flattered by the presence of learned men, whom they patronized, they were utterly intolerant, and spared no means, no matter how cruel or repressive, to convert the Hindus to Mohammedanism. Unlike their predecessors the Sakas, Yue-

held stoutly to their faith in the unity of God. They looked upon themselves as superior to the people whom they had vanquished, and as far as possible kept themselves from social contact with a race whom they looked upon as inferior. Though small in number, especially at the beginning, the Mohammedan invaders were able to keep the Hindu population in check by the superiority of their armies as a fighting machine.

Moreover, as dwellers in a cool climate, they had more stamina, and their stronger diet provided them with greater energy than their vegetarian opponents, who were further debilitated by living in a warm climate. Besides, the Mohammedan hosts were not only still further armed, and made careless of life by the belief that death in battle ensured them immediate entrance to paradise, but like the Spaniards in South America were spurred to a fierce, careless courage by the knowledge that retreat through a hostile nation was impossible, and that the smallest sign of failure would have encouraged swarms of the enemy who surrounded them to rise against them. This knowledge perhaps added to the pitilessness with which they oppressed the subject peoples. "Bengal, after it had been overrun by a few parties of horsemen at the close of the twelfth century, remained for ages under the heel of foreign chiefs who were sometime Afghans, and the province never escaped from Musalman rule until it passed under British control. The wars with Bengal of which we read during the period of the Sultanate were concerned only with the claim preferred by Delhi to receive homage and tribute from the Muslim rulers of Bengal. Those rulers, in their turn, often seem to have left Hindu Rajas undisturbed in their principalities, subject to the payment of tribute with greater or less regularity. Indeed the same practice necessarily prevailed over a large part of the Muslim dominions. Some sort of civil government had to be carried on, and the strangers had not either the numbers or the capacity for civil administration except in a limited area. The Sultans left no fruitful ideas or valuable institutions behind them."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, p. 258.—Under the rule of both the Sultans and the Moguls, the lot of the Hindus was not always a happy one. Writing of the Moguls, an Indian historian says: "A non-Muslim . . . cannot be a citizen of the State; he is a member of a depressed class; his status is a modified form of slavery. He lives under a contract (*zimma*) with the State: for the life and property that are grudgingly spared to him by the commander of the faithful he must undergo political and social disabilities, and pay a commutation-money (*jaziya*). In short, his continued existence in the State after the conquest of his country by the Muslims is conditional upon his person and property being made subservient to the cause of Islam. . . . As the learned Quazi Mughis-ud-din declared to Alauddin Khalji, in accordance with the teaching of the books on Canon Law:—"The Hindus are designated in the Law as "payers of tribute" (*kharaj-guzar*); and when the revenue officer demands silver from them, they should, without question and with all humility and respect, tender gold. If the officer throws dirt into their mouths, they must without reluctance open their mouths wide to receive it. By these acts of degradation are shown the extreme obedience of the *zimmi*, the glorification of the true faith of Islam, and the abasement of false faiths. God himself orders them to be humiliated. . . . The rule for Hindus is "Either death or Islam." . . . Every device short of massacre in cold blood was resorted to in order to convert heathen subjects. In addition to the poll-tax and public degradation in dress and demeanour imposed on them, the non-Muslims were subjected to various hopes and fears. Rewards in the form of money and public employment were offered to apostates from Hinduism. The leaders of Hindu religion and society were systematically repressed, to deprive the sect of spiritual instruction, and their religious gather-

ings and processions were forbidden in order to prevent the growth of solidarity and a sense of communal strength among them. No new temple was allowed to be built nor any old one to be repaired. . . . Muslim polity formed 'the faithful' into a body with no other profession than war. As long as there were any fresh lands to conquer and any rich *kafirs* to plunder, all went well with the State. The dominant body prospered and multiplied rapidly; even arts and industries, literature and painting of a certain type were fostered. But when the tide of Muslim expansion reached its farthest limit and broke in vain on the hills of Assam and Chatgaon, or the arid rocks of Maharashtra, there was nothing to avert a rapid downfall. The State had no economic basis, and was not able to stand a time of peace. Repose was fatal not only to its growth but to its very life. . . . The enormous areas of land sequestered by the king as religious and service grants, nourished thousands of Muslim families in a life of slothful ease, while every succeeding generation turned their competence into deepening squalor. The vast sums spent by the State in maintaining pauper houses and in scattering alms during Ramzan and other holy days and joyous ceremonies, were a direct premium on laziness. It was more lucrative and comfortable to be a *faqir* at the capital than to earn an honest living as a cultivator, subject to the caprices of the seasons and the worse caprices of the revenue underlings and officials on tour. Thus a lazy and pampered class was created in the empire, who sapped its strength and were the first to suffer when its prosperity was arrested. . . . At the same time that the ruling class was placed on an unsound non-economic basis, the treatment of the subject people prevented the full development of the resources of the State by them. . . . With every generous instinct of the soul crushed out of them, with intellectual culture merely adding a keen edge to their sense of humiliation, the Hindus could not be expected to produce the utmost of which they were capable; their lot was to be hewers of wood and drawers of water to their masters, to bring grist to the fiscal mill, to develop a low cunning and flattery as the only means of saving what they could of the fruits of their own labour. . . . The barrenness of the Hindu intellect and the meanness of spirit of the Hindu upper classes are the greatest condemnation of Muhammadan rule in India."—J. Sarkar, *History of Aurangzib*, v. 3, pp. 286-288, 290, 296-297.—"On the poor . . . the incidence of the tax [poll tax, which was imposed only on Hindus] was 6 per cent of the gross income; on the middle class it ranged from 6 to  $\frac{1}{4}$  p.c., and on the rich it was always lighter even than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per thousand. . . . It could never be less than Rs  $3\frac{1}{2}$  on a man, which was the money-value of nine maunds of wheat flour at the average market price of the end of the 16th century. (*Ain*, i. 63). The State, therefore, at the lowest incidence of the tax, annually took away from the poor man the full value of one year's food as the price of religious indulgence."—*Ibid.*, p. 307.—Under the great Akbar the Hindus fared better than at any other time throughout the Moslem period. "The regulations for the collection of the revenue enforced by Akbar were well calculated to prevent fraud and oppression, and, on the whole, they worked well for the benefit of the people; but it has been said of them, and with truth, that 'they contained no principle of progressive improvement, and held out no hopes to the rural population, by opening paths by which it might spread

into other occupations, or rise by individual exertions within its own."—J. W. Kaye, *Administration of the East India Company*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—On the death of the titular head of the Sur family "Akbar found himself, nominally, at least, lord paramount of northern India from the Himalaya to the Narbada river, and from sea to sea. But there was much to be done before the gallant boy could call himself really master of that wide and fertile land. What may have been the condition of the people at the time of his accession, can only be inferred from the nature of his subsequent reforms. The elaborate administrative machinery of Sher Shah must have incurred rust and decay; and the inhabitants would suffer all the more because of the few years of good government and the return of war. Again had come rapacity and negligence, and the devastations of lawless soldiers; the drums and trappings of armed hosts, and the smoke of arson from wrecked and plundered homes. Happily for the people of Hindustan, longer times of peace were now at hand. . . . What the Emperor could do single-handed was to provide for the welfare of the current generation. He could not propagate his Theism without using foul means and causing hypocrisy, and from this he refrained. But in administrative measures he could at least follow the path of Sher Shah and restore the good old times of that wise and great ruler. . . . Such measures could not but benefit his subjects, however powerless for permanent reform. It is only by embodying in the form of statute the needs and aspirations of the community that a government can enter into permanent organic union with the governed; and no such embodiment could take place in Hindustan at that time. The idea of law, as then conceived by the people of India, was inconsistent with legislation by any man or governing body. It is true that Sher Shah is credited with some amount of crude legislation; but, for want of institutions and ideas it could take no root. Hindu and Muslim alike, the people believed that each class had been born under a special provision of positive injunctions, revealed by the Deity—much like what are now called 'laws of Nature,' in so far that they could not be altered by any authority of man. In such conditions there could be no human legislation, nor any State-enactments by which social evolution could be registered or advanced. The wisest and most benevolent reformer, in possession of the most unquestioned sovereignty, could only issue salutary ordinances, valid for the duration of his reign. And this Akbar did, to a remarkable degree. . . . To the north of the Narbada at least, the work of integration and good government was begun, the exertions of the administrator completing the work of the soldier, both inspired by the magnetism of an earnest and benevolent master. The next great task of Akbar was the destruction of the overweening power of the Muslim Church, but this, when effected, proved a doubtful advantage: after the great Emperor was gone his successors ruled unchecked by any organised body, and more and more scope was found for the abuses of despotism, only corrigible by the brutal remedies of regicide and rebellion. . . . Akbar sympathised with the Hindus, of whom Abul Fazl—no doubt reflecting his master's view—often speaks kindly, and with esteem. The cultivators and farmers were not only protected but helped. Their assessments were to be undisturbed for nineteen years . . . but no marauding chiefs or usurping barons intercepted the payments charged upon the land in lieu of taxation. . . . Under the rule of Salim, who as-

sumed the title of Jahangir before his accession, the empire continued to feel the momentum of Akbar's rule, and fairly preserved its equipoise. . . . Each province, again, was subdivided into counties and fiscal unions, in the administration of which a like quality generally prevailed. Law suits of Muslims were disposed of by learned men, acting under the supervision of a Chief Justice; but Hindus had their causes heard and determined by a Brahman, who doubtless applied the Hindu law. . . . The celebrated diplomatic agent of James I. of England, Sir Thomas Roe—who was at the court from 1614-1618—has left a record which shows how little justice was really done, and how much crime was committed, under the specious pretences of this reign. . . . Under Shah-Jahan the equilibrium of the empire continued. . . . [Shah-Jahan left] a reserve of coin and a bullion which, without precious stones, was valued by the cautious Bernier at £24,000,000 of modern money. Nor had this surplus been obtained at the cost of undue exaction from the people. . . . Tavernier thought [well] of Shah-Jahan's paternal rule. Bernier, who knew European countries, and who had travelled in Persia, testifies to the superior size of the Indian cities, the general cultivation of the land, and the efficiency of the police in the reign of Shah-Jahan; nor was any sign of decay apparent when the new reign began. . . . The Emperor Alamgir was an exceptional man, with very little of the Mughal either in character or in blood. For the first years of his reign he mainly left public affairs to the tracks in which they had long been wont to run. According to the testimony of Manucci, the administration of justice was much cared for; and, although the bulk of a community may be fortunate enough to keep out of the law courts, yet there is no Eastern country in which the substitution of the king's jurisdiction for civil disorder is not a potent test of good government. . . . During the latter part of his reign the empire consisted—nominally at least—of no less than twenty great provinces. And the land revenue was estimated at thirty *krors*; exclusive of other items. Elphinstone is of opinion that the new taxes produced a heavy loss to the state: the imposts may have been collected—at what cost in popular welfare and content can only be conjectured; but only a part of the money found its way to the Treasury. . . . It is impossible not to be struck with the parallel that he presents to his European contemporary, Louis XIV. of France. . . . The imposition of the Hindu capitation-tax was an act closely resembling the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; it was so far worse that it oppressed the vast majority of the population, and caused a universal contempt of law. Political nihilism may be said to have then become the feeling of three-fourths of the Indian community. Of the condition of the people we are left to judge from conjecture. The sturdy races of the Punjab and Hindustan maintained their self-governed townships—the 'little republics' of Megasthenes—troubled doubtless by wild beasts and human marauders. But the yeomen were stout of heart and provided with sharp swords and spears, well able to take their own parts, and to do a certain amount of cattle-stealing and plunder on their own account. . . . Provided, by the contempt of their foreign rulers, with their own code, and able to enforce awards by an unusually strong force of public opinion, and by the terrors of ex-communication, the Hindus were a law to themselves. But the correctional courts would always be active; a proverb of their own time was to

the effect that 'swift injustice was better than tardy justice.' . . . Even the revenue administration was pervaded with this pedantry. In . . . 'The Institutes of Aurangzeb' (Alamgir) . . . will be found an abstract of the system which, in his religious fervour, the Emperor substituted for the humane and judicious scheme of Akbar. The capitation-tax alone made a difference to a Hindu of about cent-per-cent.; and thus the tax was resented by the population as a duplication of their burdens no less than as a standing badge of conquest."—H. G. Keene, *History of India*, v. 1, pp. 107, 111, 113-114, 116, 127, 139, 140.

ALSO IN: W. W. Hunter, *Indian empire: Its peoples, history and products*, pp. 344-372.—J. T. Wheeler, *Short history of India*, pt. 2, ch. 1.—M. Elphinstone, *History of India: Hindu and Mahometan*, bk. 6, ch. 2-3.

1398-1399.—Timur's invasion of the Punjab. See TIMUR.

1399-1605.—Sayd and Lodi dynasties.—Founding of the Mogul empire by Babar and Akbar.—Organization of a stable and civilized empire by Akbar.—"The invasion of Taimur . . . dealt a fatal blow to an authority already crumbling. The chief authority lingered indeed for twelve years in the hands of the then representative, Sultan Mahmud. It then passed for a time into the hands of a family which did not claim the royal title. This family, known in history as the Saiyid dynasty, ruled nominally in Northern India for about 33 years, but the rule had no coherence, and a powerful Afghan of the Lodi family took the opportunity to endeavour to concentrate power in his own hands. The Muhammadan rule in India had indeed become by this time the rule of several disjointed chiefs over several disjointed provinces, subject in point of fact to no common head. Thus, in 1450, Delhi, with a small territory around it, was held by the representative of the Saiyid family. Within fourteen miles of the capital, Ahmad Khan ruled independently in Mewat. Sambhal, or the province now known as Rohilkhand, extending to the very walls of Delhi, was occupied by Darya Khan Lodi. . . . Lahore, Dipalpur, and Sirhind, as far south as Panipat, by Behlul Lodi. Multan, Jaunpur, Bengal, Malwa, and Gujarat, each had its separate king. Over most of these districts, and as far eastward as the country immediately to the north of Western Bihar, Behlul Lodi, known as Sultan Behlul, succeeded on the disappearance of the Saiyids in asserting his sole authority, 1450-88. His son and successor, Sultan Sikandar Lodi, subdued Behar, invaded Bengal, which, however, he subsequently agreed to yield to Allah-u-din, its sovereign, and not to invade it again; and overran a great portion of Central India. On his death, in 1518, he had concentrated under his own rule the territories now known as the Punjab; the North-western Provinces, including Jaunpur; a great part of Central India; and Western Bihar. But, in point of fact, the concentration was little more than nominal." The accession of his son Ibrahim Lodi was followed by civil war which resulted in calling in the Tatar or Mongol conqueror, Babar, a descendant of Timur. Babar had crossed the Indian border in 1505, but his first serious invasion was in 1510, followed, according to some historians, by a second invasion the same year; the third was in 1520; the fourth occurred after an interval of two or three years. On his fifth expedition he made the conquest complete, winning a great battle at Panipat, fifty-three miles to the north-west of Delhi, on April 24, 1526. Ibrahim Lodi, son and successor of Sikan-

dar Lodi, was killed in the battle, and Delhi and Agra were immediately occupied. "Henceforth the title of King of Kabul was to be subjected to the higher title of Emperor of Hindustan." Babar was in one sense the founder of the Mogul (synonymous with Mongol) dynasty—the dynasty of the great Moguls, as his successors were formerly known. He died in 1530, sovereign of northern India, and of some provinces in the center of the peninsula. (See Bengal.) But "he bequeathed to his son, Humayun, . . . a congeries of territories uncentred by any bond of union or of common interest, except that which had been concentrated in his life. In a word, when he died, the Mughal dynasty, like the Muhammadan dynasties which had preceded it, had shot down no roots into the soil of Hindustan."—G. B. Malleson, *Akbar*, ch. 4-5.—Humayun succeeded Babar in India, "but had to make over Kabul and the Western Punjab to his brother and rival, Kamran. Humayun was thus left to govern the new conquest of India, and at the same time was deprived of the country from which his father had drawn his support. The descendants of the early Afghan invaders, long settled in India, hated the new Muhammadan hordes of Babar even more than they hated the Hindus. After ten years of fighting, Humayun was driven out of India by these Afghans under Sher Shah, the Governor of Bengal."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, ch. 10.

"Sher Shah . . . assumed the empire at Delhi, 25th January, 1542, being about sixty years of age; and the rest of his brief career was devoted to the establishment of the unity which he had long ago perceived to be the great need of his country. Though a devout Muslim he never oppressed his Hindu subjects. His progresses were the cause of good to the people instead of being—as is too often the case in India—the occasions of devastation. He laboured ceaselessly for the protection of the public: 'it behoves great men,' he said, 'to be always working.' He divided the land into 116,000 fiscal unions, in each of which he placed five officials, one of whom was an Hindu accountant, and one a judicial officer, whose duty was to mediate between the servants of the crown and the members of the community. A new digest of civil and penal law was substituted for the narrow code of Islam. The lands were assessed, for one year at a time, the assessment being based on a measurement of the cultivation and an appraisalment of the various crops. No official was allowed to remain in the same place for more than two years. All districts but those on the frontiers were deprived of arms. A royal highway, planted on either side with trees and patrolled by police, ran from the shores of the Bay of Bengal to the banks of the river Jehlam. Three other great roads traversed the empire; one from Agra to Burhanpore on the border of the Deccan, a second crossed Rajputana, and a third led from Lahore to Multan: daily posts carried letters along these roads from place to place. The rural population was still sparse, and the tillage depended on a scanty supply of labour; for which reason the government was the more urgently required to care for the comfort and content of the peasantry. Even in a hostile country the people should not be molested: 'if we drive away the agriculturist,' said the Shah, 'all our conquests can be of but little profit.' It is a welcome task to take note of such things as a break in the long annals of rapine and slaughter, and we can do so without hesitation; for the acts of Sher Shah are attested by his enemies, writing when he was dead, and when his

dynasty had passed away for ever."—H. G. Keene, *History of India*, v. 1, pp. 98-99.—Sher Shah "was killed while storming the rock fortress of Kalinjar (1545). His son succeeded. But, under Sher Shah's grandson, the third of the Afghan house, the Provinces revolted, including Malwa, the Punjab, and Bengal. Humayun returned to India, and Akbar [the son of Humayun], then only in his thirteenth year, defeated the Afghan army after a desperate battle at Panipat (1556). India now passed finally from the Afghans to the Mughals. Sher Shah's line disappears; and Humayun, having recovered his Kabul dominions, reigned again for a few months at Delhi, but died in 1556. . . . Akbar the Great, the real founder of the Mughal Empire as it existed for two centuries, succeeded his father at the age of fourteen. . . . His reign lasted for almost fifty years, from 1556 to 1605, and was therefore contemporary with that of . . . Queen Elizabeth (1558-1603). His father, Humayun, left but a small kingdom in India, scarcely extending beyond the Districts around Agra and Delhi. . . . The reign of Akbar was a reign of pacification. . . . He found India split into petty kingdoms, and seething with discordant elements; on his death, in 1605, he bequeathed it an empire. The earlier invasions by Turks, Afghans, and Mughals, had left a powerful Muhammadan population in India under their own Chiefs. Akbar reduced these Musalman States to Provinces of the Delhi Empire. Many of the Hindu kings and Rajput nations had also regained their independence; Akbar brought them into political dependence upon his authority. This double task he effected partly by force of arms, but in part also by alliances. He enlisted the Rajput princes by marriage and by a sympathetic policy in the support of his throne. He then employed them in high posts, and played off his Hindu generals and Hindu ministers against the Mughal party in Upper India, and against the Afghan faction in Bengal. . . . His efforts to establish the Mughal Empire in Southern India were less successful. . . . Akbar subjugated Khandesh, and with this somewhat precarious annexation his conquests in the Deccan ceased, . . . [but he] not only subdued all India to the north of the Vindhya mountains, he also organized it into an empire. He partitioned it into Provinces, over each of which he placed a governor, or viceroy, with full civil and military control."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, ch. 10.—Akbar "improved the system of land-assessment, or rather he improved upon the improvements instituted by Shir Shah. He adapted an uniform and improved system of land-measurement, and computed the average value of the land, by dividing it into three classes, according to the productiveness of each. This computation being made, one-third of the average produce was fixed as the amount of tax to be paid to the state. But as this was ordinarily to be paid in money, it was necessary to ascertain the value of the produce, and this was done upon an average of the nineteen preceding years, according to local circumstances; and if the estimate was conceived to be too high, the tax-payer was privileged to pay the assessment in kind. . . . The judicial regulations of Akbar were liberal and humane. Justice, on the whole, was fairly administered. All unnecessary severity—all cruel personal punishments, as torture and mutilation, were prohibited, except in peculiar cases, and capital punishments were considerably restricted. The police appears to have been well organised. . . . He prohibited . . . trials by ordeal, [child marriages, and the slaughter of

animals for sacrifice]; he suppressed the barbarous custom of condemning to slavery prisoners taken in war; and he authoritatively forbade the burning of Hindoo widows, except with their own free and uninfluenced consent. [He abolished the taxes on infidels and pilgrims; he employed Hindus as well as Mohammedans.] . . . That something of the historical lustre which surrounds the name of the Emperor Akbar was derived rather from the personal character of the man than from the great things that he accomplished, is, I think, not to be denied. His actual performances, when they come to be computed, fall short of his reputation. But his merits are to be judged not so much by the standard of what he did, as of what he did with the opportunities allowed to him, and under the circumstances by which he was surrounded. Akbar built up the Mogul Empire, and had little leisure allowed him to perfect its internal economy."—J. W. Kaye, *Administration of the East India Company*, pt. 1, ch. 2.—See also FEUDALISM: Feudal system in Asia.

ALSO IN: W. Erskine, *History of India under Baber and Humayun*.—A. Dow, *History of Hindustan* (from the Persian of Ferishta), v. 2.—J. T. Wheeler, *History of India*, v. 4, ch. 4.—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*.—H. G. Keene, *History of India*.

1498-1580.—Coming of Europeans.—Century of Portuguese settlement and monopoly of trade.—While the great Moguls were building up and consolidating their empire, the enterprising adventurers of Europe, led by fabulous tales of the wealth of India, were inspired to begin that remarkable course of discovery and conquest which made them the lords of the trade-routes and the undeveloped lands of the world. As in Japan and elsewhere the Portuguese were the first to establish trade with India, and, for a century, their monopoly was undisputed. In May, 1498, Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese navigator, reached Calicut, on the southwest (Malabar) coast, being the first European to traverse the ocean route to India, around the Cape of Good Hope. (See PORTUGAL: 1463-1498.) He met with a hostile reception from the natives of Malabar; but the next voyager from Portugal, Alvarez Cabral, "who came out the following year, was very favourably received, being allowed to establish a factory on the mainland and to appoint a 'factor' (or consul, as we say now) to represent Portugal there. This factor seems to have had some difficulties with the natives, chiefly owing to his own high-handed actions, which resulted in the murder of himself and the destruction of the factory. Alvarez Cabral therefore sailed up to Cochin, and was received with great friendliness by the chiefs of that part of the country, who allowed him again to set up agencies at Cochin and at Cananore. But the vengeance of the ruler of Malabar pursued them; and the Portuguese, together with their native allies, had to fight desperately for their safety. They were almost exhausted with the struggle when in 1504 large reinforcements were sent from Portugal, bombarded Calicut, the capital of Malabar, and established the name and fame of the Portuguese as an important power in India generally. A regular maritime trade with India was now firmly set on foot, but the Portuguese had to struggle hard to maintain it. The Mohammedans of India called in the aid of Egypt against them, and even the republic of Venice joined these enemies, in hopes of crushing this new rival to their ancient trade. In 1508 a powerful expedition was sent out from Egypt against





the newcomers, a tremendous battle took place, and the Portuguese were defeated. But by a desperate effort Almeida, the Portuguese viceroy, collected all his forces for a final blow, and succeeded in winning a magnificent naval victory which once and for all firmly established the Portuguese power in India. Two years afterwards Almeida's rival and successor, Alfonso de Albuquerque, gained possession of Goa (1510), and this city became the centre of their Indian dominion, which now included Ceylon and the Maldivé Islands, together with the Malacca and Malabar coasts. In 1511 the city of Malacca was captured, and the city of Ormuz in 1515. The next few years were spent in consolidating their sovereignty in these regions, till in 1542 the Portuguese colonists practically regulated all the Asiatic coast trade with Europe, from the Persian Gulf . . . to Japan. . . . For nearly sixty years after this date the king of Portugal, or his viceroy, was virtually the supreme ruler—in commercial matters at any rate—of the southern coast of Asia. The Portuguese were at the climax of their power in the east. The way in which Portuguese trade was carried on is an interesting example of the spirit of monopoly which has, invariably at first and very often afterwards, inspired the policy of all European powers in their efforts of colonisation. The eastern trade was of course kept in the hands of Portuguese traders only, as far as direct commerce between Portugal and India was concerned; but even Portuguese orders were shut out from intermediate commerce between India and other eastern countries, i. e., China, Japan, Malacca, Mozambique, and Ormuz. This traffic was reserved as a monopoly to the crown; and it was only as a great favour, or in reward for some particular service, that the king allowed private individuals to engage in it. The merchant fleet of Portugal generally set sail from Lisbon, bound to Goa, once a year about February or March. . . . This voyage generally took about eighteen months, and, owing to the imperfect state of navigation at that time, and the lack of accurate charts of this new route, was frequently attended by the loss of several ships. Immense profits were, however, made by the traders. On arriving back at Lisbon the Portuguese merchants, as a rule, did not themselves engage in any trade with other European countries in the goods they had brought back, but left the distribution of them in the hands of Dutch, English, and Hansa sailors who met them at Lisbon. . . . The colonial empire of Portugal, so rapidly and brilliantly acquired, came to a disastrous close. It lasted altogether hardly a century. The avarice and oppressions of its viceroys and merchants, the spirit of monopoly which pervaded their whole policy, and the neglect both of the discipline and defences necessary to keep newly-acquired foreign possessions, hastened its ruin. By 1580 the Portuguese power in the east had seriously declined, and in that year the crown of Portugal was united to that of Spain in the person of Philip II. The Spaniards neglected their eastern possessions altogether, and engaged in wars with the Dutch which had the effect, not only of wasting a great portion of their own and the Portuguese fleet, but of positively driving the Dutch into those very eastern seas which the Portuguese had once so jealously kept to themselves. Only Goa and Diu and a few other small stations remained out of all their magnificent dominion."—H. de B. Gibbins, *History of commerce in Europe*, bk. 3, ch. 1, sect. 94-97.—See also COMMERCE: Era of

geographic expansion: 15th-17th centuries: Leadership of the Portuguese.

ALSO IN: E. McMurdo, *History of Portugal*, v. 3, bk. 2-5.—*Commentaries of the great Alfonso Dalboquerque* (*Hakluyt Society Publications*).—E. Grey, *Introduction to travels of Pietro della Valle* (*Hakluyt Society Publications*).—H. M. Stephens, *Albuquerque*.

16th-18th centuries.—Missionary efforts.—Jesuits.—Francis Xavier at Goa. See JESUITS: 1542-1649; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: India.

1600-1702.—Beginnings of English trade.—Chartering of the English East India Company.—Early footholds in Hindustan.—Founding of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.—Three presidencies.—Administration of the East India Company.—"For some time it appears to have been thought by other European Powers, that the discovery of the passage round Africa by the Portuguese gave them some exclusive claim to its navigation. But after the year 1580 the conquest of Portugal by Spain, and the example of the Dutch who had already formed establishments not only in India but the Spice Islands, aroused the commercial enterprise of England. In 1599 an Association was formed for the Trade to the East Indies; a sum was raised by subscription, amounting to 68,000*l.*; and a petition was presented to the Crown for a Royal Charter. Queen Elizabeth wavered during some time, apprehending fresh entanglements with Spain. At length, in December 1600, the boon was granted; the 'Adventurers' (for so were they termed at that time) were constituted a body corporate, under the title of 'the Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies.' By their Charter they obtained the right of purchasing lands without limitation, and the monopoly of their trade during fifteen years, under the direction of a Governor, and twenty-four other persons in Committee, to be elected annually. [See also EAST INDIA COMPANY, BRITISH.] . . . In 1609, the Charter of the new Company was not only renewed but rendered perpetual,—with a saving clause, however, that should any national detriment be at any time found to ensue, these exclusive privileges should, after three years' notice, cease and expire. It does not seem, however, that the trade of the new Company was extensive. Their first voyage consisted of four ships and one pinnace, having on board 28,742*l.* in bullion, and 6,860*l.* in goods, such as cloth, lead, tin, cutlery, and glass. Many other of their voyages were of smaller amount; thus, in 1612, when they united into a Joint Stock Company, they sent out only one ship, with 1,250*l.* in bullion and 650*l.* in goods. But their clear profits on their capital were immense; scarcely ever, it is stated, below 100 per cent. During the Civil Wars the Company shared in the decline of every other branch of trade and industry. But soon after the accession of Charles II. they obtained a new Charter, which not only confirmed their ancient privileges but vested in them authority, through their agents in India, to make peace and war with any prince or people, not being Christians, and to seize within their limits, and send home as prisoners, any Englishmen found without a licence. It may well be supposed that in the hands of any exclusive Company this last privilege was not likely to lie dormant. . . . The period of the Revolution was not so favourable to the Company as that of the Restoration. A rival Company arose, professing for its object greater freedom of trade with the East Indies, and supported by a majority

in the House of Commons. It is said that the competition of these two Companies with the private traders and with one another had well nigh ruined both. . . . An Union between these Companies, essential, as it seemed, to their expected profits, was delayed by their angry feelings till 1702. Even then, by the Indenture which passed the Great Seal, several points were left unsettled between them, and separate transactions were allowed to their agents in India for the stocks already sent out. Thus the ensuing years were fraught with continued jarrings and contentions. . . . After the grant of the first Charter by Queen Elizabeth, and the growth of the Company's trade in India, their two main factories were fixed at Surat and Bantam. Surat was then the principal sea-port of the Mogul Empire, where the Mahometan pilgrims were wont to assemble for their voyages towards Mecca. Bantam, from its position in the island of Java, commanded the best part of the Spice trade. But at Surat the Company's servants were harassed by the hostility of the Portuguese, as at Bantam, by the hostility of the Dutch. To such heights did these differences rise that in 1622 the English assisted the Persians in the recovery of Ormuz from the Portuguese, and that in 1623 the Dutch committed the outrage termed the 'Massacre of Amboyna,'—putting to death, after a trial, and confession of guilt extorted by torture, Captain Towerson and nine other Englishmen, on a charge of conspiracy. In the final result, many years afterwards, the factories both at Bantam and Surat were relinquished by the Company. Other and newer settlements of theirs had, meanwhile, grown into importance.—In 1640 the English obtained permission from a Hindoo Prince in the Carnatic to purchase the ground adjoining the Portuguese settlement of St. Thomé, on which they proceeded to raise Fort St. George and the town of Madras. . . . In a very few years Madras had become a thriving town.—About twenty years afterwards, on the marriage of Charles II. to Catherine of Braganza [1661], the town and island of Bombay were ceded to the King of England as a part of the Infanta's dowry. For some time the Portuguese Governor continued to evade the grant, alleging that the patent of His Majesty was not in accordance with the customs of Portugal; he was compelled to yield; but the possession being found on trial to cost more than it produced, it was given up by King Charles to the East India Company, and became one of their principal stations. Nor was Bengal neglected. Considering the beauty and richness of that province, a proverb was already current among the Europeans, that there are a hundred gates for entering and not one for leaving it. The Dutch, the Portuguese, and the English had established their factories at or near the town of Hooghly on one of the branches—also called Hooghly—of the Ganges. But during the reign of James II. the imprudence of some of the Company's servants, and the seizure of a Mogul junk, had highly incensed the native Powers. The English found it necessary to leave Hooghly, and drop twenty-five miles down the river, to the village of Chuttanuttee. Some petty hostilities ensued, not only in Bengal but along the coasts of India. . . . So much irritated was Aurungzebe at the reports of these hostilities, that he issued orders for the total expulsion of the Company's servants from his dominions, but he was appeased by the humble apologies of the English traders, and the earnest intercession of the Hindoo, to whom this commerce was a source of profit. The English might even have resumed

their factory at Hooghly, but preferred their new station at Chuttanuttee, and in 1698 obtained from the Mogul, on payment of an annual rent, a grant of the land on which it stood. Then, without delay, they began to construct for its defence a citadel, named Fort William, under whose shelter there grew by degrees from a mean village the great town of Calcutta. . . . At nearly the same period another station,—Tegnapatam, a town on the coast of Coromandel, to the south of Madras,—was obtained by purchase. It was surnamed Fort St. David, was strengthened with walls and bulwarks, and was made subordinate to Madras for its government. Thus then before the accession of the House of Hanover these three main stations,—Fort William, Fort St. George, and Bombay,—had been erected into Presidencies, or central posts of Government; not, however, as at present, subject to one supreme authority, but each independent of the rest. Each was governed by a President and a Council of nine or twelve members, appointed by the Court of Directors in England. Each was surrounded with fortifications, and guarded by a small force, partly European and partly native, in the service of the Company. The Europeans were either recruits enlisted in England or strollers and deserters from other services in India. Among these the descendants of the old settlers, especially the Portuguese, were called Topasses,—from the tope or hat which they wore instead of turban. The natives, as yet ill-armed and ill-trained, were known by the name of Sepoys,—a corruption from the Indian word 'sipahi,' a soldier. But the territory of the English scarcely extended out of sight of their towns."—Lord Mahon, *History of England*, v. 4, ch. 39.—"Endeavouring to achieve peace and security, first for their commerce and then for their territories, constantly seeking for a permanent frontier, the East India Company as constantly lost it in receding vistas, until at last they found themselves supreme over the whole of India south-east of the Punjab. Such rapid extension would have been impracticable had not their rule been generally welcome, for reasons explained by Abbé Dubois, a French missionary who worked in Southern India early in the last century [nineteenth century]: 'Nevertheless,' he wrote, 'the justice and prudence which the present rulers display in endeavouring to make these people less unhappy than they have been hitherto; the anxiety they manifest in increasing their material comfort; above all, the inviolable respect which they constantly show for the customs and religious belief of the country and, lastly, the protection they afford to the weak as well as to the strong, to the Brahman, to the Pariah, to the Christian, to the Muhammadan; all these have contributed more to the consolidation of their power than even their victories and conquests.'"—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, pp. 3-4.

ALSO IN: A. W. Tilby, *British India*.—A. D. Innes, *Short history of England*.

1602-1620.—Rise of Dutch East India Company. See NETHERLANDS: 1504-1620.

1605-1658.—Jahangir and Nur Jahan.—Shah Jahan and the Taj Mahal.—Seizure of the throne by Aurangzeb.—"Selim, the son and successor of Akbar, reigned from the year of his father's death until 1627, having assumed the title of Jahangir, or 'Conqueror of the World'; that is to say, he reigned, but he did not govern. Before he came to the throne, he fell in love with a poor Persian girl," whom his father gave in marriage to one of his officers. "On his advent to the throne, Jahangir . . . managed to

get the husband killed, and took the widow into his harem. He subsequently married her, and she ruled, not him alone, but the whole empire. . . . [She was first called Nur Mahal, 'Light of the Harem,' then Nur Jahan, 'Light of the World.'] It was during this reign, in 1615, that the first English ambassador, Sir Thomas Roe, arrived in Hindustan from James I.; and proceeding to Ajmere, where Jahangir was staying at the time with his court, he made him several presents, amongst which, we are told, a beautiful English coach gave the Emperor the most satisfaction. He received the ambassador with great distinction, showed him marked attention at all public receptions, and granted a firmān to the English to establish a factory at Surat. . . . The later years of Jahangir's reign were disturbed by family intrigues, in which the Empress Nur Jahan took a prominent part, endeavouring to secure the succession for her son-in-law; but after the death of the Emperor, his oldest living son, Shah Jahan, pensioned and forced the Empress into retirement . . . and . . . 'dispatched all the males of the house of Timour, so that only himself and his children remained of the posterity of Baber, who conquered India.' In some respects the reign of Shah Jahan was unfortunate. He lost his Afghan dominions, and gained but little by his invasions of the Dekhan, which were carried on by his rebellious son and successor, Aurungzeb; but in another direction he did more to perpetuate the glory of the Mughal dynasty than any other emperor of his line. Amongst other handsome buildings, he erected the most beautiful the world has ever possessed. . . . This was the well-known Taj Mahal at Agra, a mausoleum for his favourite Empress Arjamund, known as Mumtaz-i-Mahal [of which name, according to Elphinstone, Taj Mahal is a corruption], 'the Exalted One of the Seraglio.' . . . When Shah Jahan had attained his 66th year (according to some writers, his 70th), he was seized with a sudden illness, the result of his debauched life, and as it was reported that he was dead, a civil war broke out amongst his sons for the possession of the throne. These were four in number, Dara (the oldest), Shuja, Aurungzeb, and Murad (the youngest); and in the conflict Aurungzeb, the third son, was ultimately successful. Two of the brothers, Dara and Murad, fell into the power of the last-named and were put to death by his orders. Shuja escaped to Arracan, and was murdered there; and as for the Emperor, who had recovered, Aurungzeb confined him in the fort at Agra, with all his female relatives, and then caused himself to be proclaimed in his stead [1658]. Towards the close of Shah Jahan's life [which came to an end in 1666], a partial reconciliation took place between him and his son, who, however, did not release him from his confinement."—J. Samuelson, *India, past and present*, pt. 1, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: T. Roe, *Journal of embassy* (*Pinkerton's Collections of voyages*, v. 8).—M. Elphinstone, *History of India: Hindu and Mahometan*, bk. 10.

1660-1720.—Prosperity of British East India Company.—"The company enjoyed during the greater part of the reign of Charles II, a prosperity to which the history of trade scarcely furnished any parallel and which excited the wonder, the cupidity and the envious animosity of the whole capital (London). . . . The taste for spices, the tissues and the jewels of the East became stronger day by day. . . . During the twenty-three years that followed the Restoration the value of the annual imports [into England] from that

rich and popular district (the Delta of the Ganges) increased from £8000 to £3,000,000. . . . The gains of this fast growing trade] were almost incredible. . . . The profits were such that in 1676 every proprietor received as a bonus a quantity of stock equal to that which he held. On the capital thus doubled were paid, during the five years, dividends amounting to an average of 20 per cent. annually."—T. B. Macaulay, *History of England*, v. 5, pp. 155, 156.—In the decade, 1710-1720, the actual export of bullion by the East India Company averaged £4,344,000.

ALSO IN: A. D. Innes, *British in India*.—R. Muir, *Making of British India*.—A. W. Tilby, *British India*.

1662-1748.—Struggle of Aurungzeb with Mahrattas.—Mahratta empire.—Development of Sikhs into independent nation.—Invasion of Nadir Shah.—Sack of Delhi and great massacre.—Anarchy as prelude to British intervention.—"Aurungzebe had reigned five years before he succeeded in destroying all his kinsmen. . . . About that time, in the year 1662, a new and extraordinary power in Southern India began to attract attention. The Mahrattas appear to have been nothing more than the Hindoo peasantry [descendants of an ancient people, settled in Maharashtra from early times], scattered throughout some of the mountainous districts of the Mahomedan kingdoms of Ahmednuggur, Bejjapoor and Golconda, and united into a body only by the prejudices of caste, of which their rank was the lowest, that of Sudra. In the confusion incidental to the constant wars in which these states were engaged, some of the head men of their villages set up for themselves, and one of them, Shahji Borla, became powerful enough to play a conspicuous part at the time of the annexation of Ahmednuggur to the Mogul empire. His son Sevaji, setting out from this vantage ground, strengthened his hands by the silent capture of some hill forts in Bejjapoor, and eventually raising the standard of revolt against that government, introduced a spirit of union amidst the scattered masses of his people, and may thus be considered the founder of the Mahratta empire. In 1662 he commenced his predatory expeditions into the Mogul territory. [In 1664 he plundered and destroyed Surat], and in ten years he found himself at the head of a regular government with the title of Rajah, and strong enough to encounter and defeat the imperial forces in a field battle. This was the critical moment in the progress of the Mogul empire. Aurungzebe was called away for two years by the chronic disturbances beyond the Indus; his strength was wasted by the ceaseless wars of the Deccan; and being goaded to madness by the casual insurrection of some Hindoo devotees in the centre of his dominions, he replaced the capitation tax on infidels, and fulminated other decrees against that portion of his subjects of such extravagant intolerance that they at length looked upon the progress of their co-religionists, the Mahrattas, with more longing than alarm. In 1679, the western portion of Rajahstan was in arms against the empire, and continued in a state of hostility more or less active during the whole reign. Even the emperor's eventual successes in the Deccan, in overthrowing the kingdoms of Bejjapoor and Golconda, contributed to his ruin; for it removed the check of regular government from that distracted portion of the country, and . . . threw into the arms of the Mahrattas the adventurous and the desperate of the population. Sevaji died, and successors of less

talent filled the throne of the robber-king; but this seems to have had no effect upon the progress of the inundation, which now bursting over the natural barriers of the peninsula, and sweeping away its military defences, overflowed Malwa and a portion of Guzerat. Aurungzebe fought gallantly and finessed craftily by turns; . . . and thus he struggled with his destiny even to extreme old age, bravely and alone. He expired in his 89th year, the 50th of his reign, on the 21st of February, 1707.—L. Ritchie, *History of the Indian empire*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 5.—“On the death of the Mughal emperor, Aurangzeb, in 1707, Southern India gradually became independent of Delhi. In the Deccan proper, the Nizam-ul Mulk founded a hereditary dynasty, with Haidarabad for its capital, which exercised a nominal authority over the entire south. The Karnatik, or the lowland tract between the central plateau and the Bay of Bengal, was ruled by a deputy of the Nizam, known as the Nawab of Arcot, who in his turn asserted claims to hereditary sovereignty. Farther south, Trichinopoli was the capital of a Hindu Raja; Tanjore formed another Hindu kingdom under a degenerate descendant of the Maratha leader, Sivaji. Inland, Mysore was gradually growing into a third Hindu State; while everywhere local chieftains, called *palegars* or *nayaks*, were in semi-independent possession of citadels or hill-forts. These represented the feudal chiefs or fief-holders of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar; and many of them had maintained a practical independence, subject to irregular payments of tribute, since the fall of that kingdom in 1565.”—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, pp. 177-178.—“From the death of Aurangzeb to the close of the eighteenth century the history of India is among the blackest in the annals of modern times. For all effective purposes the Mogul Empire had passed away. Hence Nadir Shah or Ahmed Shah Abdali could ravish the beautiful provinces of the North, kill Hindu and Moslem alike, and fritter away wealth and resources they could not but abuse. The tragedy of the triangular rivalry and bloodshed of Sikh, Hindu, and Moslem, so useless and insensate, in the Punjab, has never been painted by a capable historian in the dark colours it deserves. The Kings of Oudh, incompetent and ever looking to foreign alliances for support, destroyed the unity of a province designed by nature to be the right arm of the Empire. Disunited Bengal was the theatre of internecine war until the East India Company, obtaining the Dewani, established absolute and, at that time, by no means too benevolent rule. The southern half of India was degenerating into a vast jungle with the Pindari and the Mahratta ravaging provinces and states in all directions.”—Agba Khan, *India in transition*, p. 73.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.—“During the next twelve years after the death of Aurungzebe, no fewer than five princes sat upon the throne, whose reigns, without being distinguished by any great events, exhibited evident indications of the gradual decline of the empire. During that period the Sikhs, originally a sect of Hindoo dissenters, whose peculiarity consisted in their repudiation of all religious ceremonies, having first been changed into warriors by persecution, began to rise by the spirit of union into a nation; but so weak were they at this time that in 1706 the dying energies of the empire were sufficient almost for their extirpation. [See also SHIKHS.] . . . Mahomed Shah succeeded to the throne in 1719. The Mahratta government was by this time completely consolidated, and the great fam-

ilies of the race, since so celebrated, had begun to rise into eminence: such as that of the Peshwa, the official title of a minister of the Rajah; of Holkar, the founder of which was a shepherd; and of Sindia, which sprang from a menial servant. . . . A still more remarkable personage of the time was Asof Jah, whose descendants became the Nizams [regulators or governors—the title becoming hereditary in the family of Asaf, at Hyderabad] of the Deccan. . . . While the empire was . . . rent in pieces by internal disturbances, a more tremendous enemy even than the Mahrattas presented himself from without. A revolution had taken place in Persia, which seated a soldier of fortune upon the throne; and the famous Nadir Shah, after capturing Candahar, found it necessary, according to the fashion of conquerors, to seize upon the Mogul territories, Ghizni and Cabul, and when at the latter city to continue his march into Hindostan. In 1739, he arrived at Kurnaul, within 70 miles of Delhi, and defeated the emperor in a general engagement. . . . The two kings then proceeded to Delhi after the battle, where Nadir, in consequence, it is said, of an insurrection of the populace, set fire to the city and massacred the inhabitants to a number which has been variously estimated at from 30,000 to 150,000. He then proceeded to the main business of his invasion, robbing first the treasury and afterwards the inhabitants individually, torturing or murdering all who were suspected of concealing their riches, and at length returned to his own dominions, having obtained a formal cession of the country west of the Indus, and carrying with him in money and plate at least twelve millions sterling, besides jewels of great value, including those of the Peacock Throne [the throne of the Great Mogul, made solidly of gold and adorned with diamonds and pearls,—the enamelled back of the throne being spread in the form of a peacock's tail.—*Tavernier's travels* (tr. and ed. by V. Ball), v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 8.—From this period to the death of the Emperor Mahomed Shah, in 1748, the interval was filled up with the disturbances which might be expected.”—L. Ritchie, *History of the Indian empire*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 5.—The Asaf or Asof Jah mentioned above had become in 1721, the prime minister of the Emperor Muhammad Shah. “In a little more than three years he had thrown up in disgust an office which the levity of the young monarch hindered him from discharging to his satisfaction; and had repaired to the Deccan, where he founded the State which still subsists under the name of ‘The Nizam's Dominions’ [or Hyderabad]. Nominally, it was the Subab [province] erected on the ruins of the old Musalman kingdoms; but in the decline of the Empire it became a hereditary and quasi-independent province, though the ruler never took the royal title, but continued to retain the style of an Imperial Viceroy, as ‘Nizam-ul-mulk,’ which his descendant still bears.”—H. G. Keene, *Madhava Rao Sindhia*, ch. 1.—“The different provinces and viceroyalties went their own natural way; they were parcelled out in a scuffle among revolted governors, rebellious chiefs, leaders of insurgent tribes or sects, religious revivalists, or captains of mercenary bands. The Indian people were becoming a masterless multitude swaying to and fro in the political storm, and clinging to any power, natural or supernatural, that seemed likely to protect them. They were prepared to acquiesce in the assumption of authority by any one who could show himself able to discharge the most elementary functions of government in the preservation of life and property. In short, the people were scat-

tered without a leader or protector; while the political system under which they had long lived was disappearing in complete disorganization. It was during this period of tumultuary confusion that the French and English first appeared upon the political arena in India."—A. Lyall, *Rise of the British dominion in India*, ch. 4, sect. 1-2.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *Aurangzib*, ch. 9-12.—A. Dow, *History of Hindustan* (from the Persian of Ferishta), v. 3.—J. G. Duff, *History of the Maharrattas*, v. 1, v. 2, ch. 1.—C. R. Markham, *History of Persia*, ch. 12.—R. Muir, *Making of British India*.

1665-1743.—Commercial undertakings of the French.—Settlement at Pondicherry.—"Many expeditions to India had been made [by the French] earlier than the time of Colbert's East India Company, chartered in the year 1665. The first French ships, of which there is any record, that succeeded in reaching India, were two despatched from one of the ports of Brittany in 1601. These ships were, however, wrecked on the Maldivé Islands, and their commander did not return to France for ten years. Voyages were undertaken in 1616, 1619, and again in 1633, of which the most that can be said is that they met with no great disaster. The attempt to found settlements in Java and Madagascar, which was the object of these voyages, completely failed. The first operations of the French East India Company were to establish factories in Hindostan. Surat, a large commercial city at the mouth of the Taptee, was fixed upon for the principal depot. The abuses and lavish waste of the officers entrusted to carry out Colbert's plans, brought the company to an end in five years. An attempt in 1672 to form a colony at Trincomalee, on the north-east coast of Ceylon, was frustrated by the hostility of the Dutch. Afterwards the French made an attempt on Meliapor or Thomé, belonging to the Portuguese. They were soon expelled, and the survivors sought refuge at Pondicherry [1674], a small town which they had purchased on the same coast of the Carnatic. In 1693, Pondicherry was taken by the Dutch, who improved the fortifications and general condition of the town. At the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, the settlement was restored to the French. For half a century Pondicherry shared the neglect common to French colonies, and owed more to the probity and discretion of its governors than to the home government. M. Martin, and subsequently Dumas, saved the settlement from ruin. They added to the defences; and Dumas, being in want of money for public purposes, obtained permission from the King of Delhi to coin money for the French settlers. He also procured the cession of Karikal, a district of Tanjore. On the other hand, several stations and forts had to be given up."—J. Yeats, *Growth and vicissitudes of commerce*, pt. 3, ch. 7.—See also FRANCE: 1661-1683.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleon, *History of the French in India*, ch. 1-3.—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV*, v. 1, ch. 2.—A. V. Tilby, *British India*.—G. H. Keene, *History of India*, v. 1.

1679-1823.—Decline caused by economic conditions in Europe.—"The Indians have in all ages maintained an unapproached and almost incredible perfection in their fabrics of cotton—some of their muslins might be thought the work of fairies or insects, rather than of men," said Baines in 1835, when Indian fabrics were still being made. The Arabian traveller of the ninth century says: 'In this country, India, they make garments of such extraordinary perfection, that nowhere else is there like to be seen,—sewed

and woven to such a degree of fineness, they may be drawn through a ring of moderate size.' Marco Polo (thirteenth century) says: 'The Coast of Coromandel and especially Masulipatam, produce the finest and most beautiful cottons to be found in any part of the world.' . . . Indian commerce was extensive from the Christian era to the end of the eighteenth century. For many hundred years, Persia, Arabia, Syria, Egypt, Abyssinia and all the eastern parts of Africa were supplied with cottons and muslins from the markets of India. Owing to the beauty and cheapness of Indian fabrics, the manufacturers of Europe were apprehensive of being ruined by their Indian competitors. The Dutch traders and the East India Company imported large quantities of these cotton goods in the seventeenth century. As early as 1679, a loud outcry was raised in England against the admission of Indian fabrics, which 'were ruining our ancient woollen manufactures.' We quote from a pamphlet of the period: The woollen trade 'is much hindered by our own people who do were many foreign commodities instead of our own; . . . instead of green sey that was wont to be used for children's frocks, is now used *painted and Indian stained and striped calicoes*; . . . and sometime is used a *Bangale* brought from India, both for lynyngs to coats and for petticoats too. . . . It would be necessary to lay a very high impost on all such commodities as these are.' A writer of 1696 laments the misfortune of Indian muslins and silks becoming the general wear in England. In 1708 Daniel Defoe wrote: . . . 'The general fansie of the people runs upon East India goods to that degree that the *chintes* and *painted calicoes*, before only made use of for carpets, quilts, etc., and to clothe the children and ordinary people, become now the dress of our ladies; and such is the power of a mode as we saw persons of quality dressed in Indian carpets, which but a few years before their chamber maids would have thought too ordinary for them; the chintz was advanced from being upon their floors to their backs, and even the Queen herself at this time was pleased to appear in China silks and calicoe; . . . it crept into our houses; our closets, and bed chambers; curtains, cushions, chairs and beds themselves were nothing but calicoes or Indian stuffs, and in short, almost everything that used to be made of wool or silk, relating either to the dress of our women or the furniture of our house, was supplied by the Indian trade.' Defoe's complaint was not of an evil existing in 1708 when he wrote, but of one a few years earlier, for the prohibition of Indian goods had taken place in 1700, by Acts 11 and 12 of William III, Cap. 10. The introduction of Indian silks and printed calicoes for domestic use as either apparel or furniture was forbidden under penalty of £200 on the wearer or seller, and as this did not prevent the use of Indian goods, other acts were passed at later date. This 'evil' of the consumption of Indian manufacture did not disappear by 1728, and other countries of Europe were making similar efforts to penalise the import and use of Indian fabrics. Baines says: 'Not more than a century ago, the cotton fabrics of India were so beautiful and cheap that nearly all the governments of Europe thought it necessary to prohibit or load them with heavy duties, to protect their own manufactures.'"—L. Rai, *England's debt to India*, pp. 123-127.

"India has always been predominantly agricultural, but even centuries ago her handicrafts ranked high among the industries of the world.

It was the fine linens and prints, the jewels and embroideries of eighteenth century India, that enabled the East India Company to pay its bondholders average profits of 117 per cent. for the first eighty years of its existence and to sell shares of stock issued at 100 for as high as 500. Rivalry among European traders to secure a footing in India was occasioned, not by her raw produce but by the variety and value of her manufactures. Dyeing, rug making, fine embroidery, metal work, damascening of arms, carving, paper making, and the jeweler's art all flourished, and a considerable proportion of the population were employed in these industries until the close of the eighteenth century. In 1787 the city of Dacca exported muslin to England to the value of \$1,500,000. By 1817, her exports had dropped to zero. This incredibly abrupt strangling of a great industry had two causes—the natural instinct of Englishmen in the first flush of colonial adventure to develop home industries at the cost of this far-away dependency, and the unfortunate coincidence for India of the invention of power looms and the factory system at just this moment. Lancashire and Manchester mills were young and could demand protection as infant industries. The tariffs imposed were practically confiscatory. Henry St. George Tucker, a director of the East India Company, made the statement in 1823 that Indian silks and silk and cotton mixtures had already been excluded from the British markets, and that 'by the operation of a duty of 67 per cent. and also owing to the effect of superior British machinery, the cotton fabrics of India, hitherto her staple product, have not only been displaced, but we are exporting cotton into India. India is thus reduced from the state of a manufacturing to that of an agricultural country.' British goods imported into India were taxed only 3½ per cent. In a few years and through a process of crowding out her peasant weaver, instead of exporting fabrics to England, India was not even weaving enough to supply her own needs. English factories were able to undersell the hand-woven linens and muslins of India."—F. B. Fisher, *India's silent revolution*, pp. 34-36.—See also COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 16th-17th centuries.

1743-1752.—Struggle of French and English for supremacy in the Deccan.—Clive against Dupleix.—Founding of British empire.—"England owes the idea of an Indian empire to the French, as also the chief means by which she has hitherto sought to realize it. The war of the Austrian succession had just broken out [1743] between France and England. [See AUSTRIA: 1743.] Dupleix, the governor of the settlements of the French East India Company, proposed to the English company a neutrality in the eastern seas; it was rejected. The English probably repented of their presumption when they saw Captain Peyton, the commander of a squadron of three liners and a frigate, after an indecisive engagement with the French admiral, Labourdonnais, take flight to the Bay of Bengal, leaving Madras, then the most flourishing of the English settlements, defenceless. Dupleix and Labourdonnais were the first of that series of remarkable Frenchmen who, amidst every discouragement from home, and in spite of their frequent mutual disensions, kept the French name so prominent in India for more than the next half century, only to meet on their return with obloquy, punishment, even death. Labourdonnais, who was Admiral of the French fleet, was also Governor of Mauritius, then called the Isle of France. He had disciplined

a force of African negroes. With French troops and these, he entered the narrow strip of coast, five miles long, one mile broad, which was then the territory of Madras, bombarded the city, compelled the fort (which had lost five men) to surrender. But his terms were honourable; the English were placed on parole; the town was to be given up on payment of a moderate ransom (1746). Dupleix, however, was jealous; he denied Labourdonnais' powers; broke the capitulation; paraded the Governor and other English gentlemen in triumph through Pondicherry. In vain did Admiral Boscawen besiege the latter place; time was wasted, the trenches were too far, the rains came on; Boscawen raised the siege, crippled in men and stores; was recalled by the news of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, and, to close his career of misfortune, lost several ships and 1,200 men on the Coromandel coast (1748-9). News of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, however, produced a very temporary cessation of hostilities, Madras being restored, with fortifications much improved. The English fortunes seemed at their lowest in India; the French rising to their full height. Dupleix conceived the bold plan of interfering in the internal politics of the country. Labourdonnais had disciplined the negro; Dupleix disciplined the native Indian. . . . Labourdonnais had beaten off the so-called Nawab of the Carnatic, when he attempted to take Madras; the event produced an immense sensation; it was the first victory obtained for a century by Europeans over the natives of India. Dupleix was strong enough to be reckoned a valuable ally. But on the English side a young man had appeared who was to change the whole course of events in the East. Robert Clive, an attorney's son from Market Drayton, born in 1725, sent off at eighteen as a writer to Madras—a naughty boy who had grown into an insubordinate clerk, who had been several times in danger of losing his situation, and had twice attempted to destroy himself—ran away from Madras, disguised as a Mussulman, after Dupleix's violation of the capitulation, obtained an ensign's commission at twenty-one, and began distinguishing himself as a soldier under Major Lawrence, then the best British officer in India."—J. M. Ludlow, *British India*, lect. 7.—"Clive and others who escaped [from Madras] betook themselves to Fort St. David's—a small English settlement a few miles south of Pondicherry. There Clive prepared himself for the military vocation for which nature had clearly destined him. . . . At Fort St. David's the English intrigued with the native chiefs, much as the French had done, and not more creditably. They took sides, and changed sides, in the disputes of rival claimants to the province of Tanjore, under the inducement of the possession of Devi-cottah, a coast station at the mouth of the Coleroon. There was no great honour in the results, any more than in the conception, of this first little war. We obtained Devi-cottah; but we did not improve our reputation for good faith, nor lessen the distance between the French and ourselves in military prestige. But Dupleix was meantime providing the opportunity for Clive to determine whether the Deccan should be under French or English influence. . . . The greatest of the southern princes, the Nizam al Mulk, Viceroy of the Deccan, died in 1748; and rivals rose up, as usual, to claim both his throne and the richest province under his rule—the Carnatic. The pretenders on one side applied to the French for assistance, and obtained reinforcements to the extent of 400 French soldiers and 2,000 trained sepoy. This aid secured

victory; the opposing prince was slain; and his son, the well-known Mohammed Ali, 'the Nabob of Arcot' of the last century, took refuge, with a few remaining troops, at Trichinopoly. In a little while, the French seemed to be supreme throughout the country. Dupleix was deferred to as the arbiter of the destinies of the native princes, while he was actually declared Governor of India, from the Kistna to Cape Comorin—a region as large as France, inhabited by 30,000,000 of people, and defended by a force so large that the cavalry alone amounted to 7,000 under the command of Dupleix. In the midst of this dominion, the English looked like a handful of dispirited and helpless settlers, awaiting the dis-

could make their position worse; and they caught at every chance of making it better. Clive offered to attack Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, in the hope that this would draw away the besiegers from Trichinopoly; and the offer was accepted. The force consisted of 200 British and 300 native soldiers, commanded, under Clive, by four factors and four military men, only two of whom had ever been in action. Everything was against them, from numbers and repute to the weather; but Clive took Arcot [Sept. 11, 1751], and (what was much more difficult) kept it. The garrison had fled in a panic; but it was invested by 10,000 men before the British had repaired half its dilapidations and deficiencies, or recruited their



ROCK TEMPLE OF TRICHINOPOLY, SOUTHERN INDIA

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posal of the haughty Frenchman. Their native ally had lost everything but Trichinopoly; and Trichinopoly itself was now besieged by the Nabob of the Carnatic and his French supporters. Dupleix was greater than even the Mogul sovereign; he had erected a column in his own honour, displaying on its four sides inscriptions in four languages, proclaiming his glory as the first man of the East; and a town had sprung up round this column, called his City of Victory. To the fatalistic mind of the native races it seemed a settled matter that the French rule was supreme, and that the English must perish out of the land. Major Lawrence had gone home; and the small force of the English had no commander. Clive was as yet only a commissary, with the rank of captain, and regarded more as a civilian than a soldier. He was only five-and-twenty. His superiors were in extreme alarm, foreseeing that when Trichinopoly was taken, the next step would be the destruction of Madras. Nothing

numbers, now reduced to 320 men in all, commanded by four officers. For fifty days, amidst fatigue, hunger, and a hundred pressing dangers, the little band sustained the siege. . . . A series of victories followed, and men and opinion came round to the side of the victors. There was no energy at headquarters to sustain Clive in his career. . . . In his absence, the enemy appeared again before Fort George, and did much damage; but Clive came up, and 100 of the French soldiers were killed or taken. He uprooted Dupleix's boasting monument, and levelled the city to the ground, thereby reversing the native impression of the respective destinies of the French and English. Major Lawrence returned. Dupleix's military incapacity was proved, and his personal courage found wanting as soon as fortune deserted him. Trichinopoly was relieved, and the besiegers were beaten, and their candidate prince put to death. Dupleix struggled in desperation for some time longer before he gave up the contest; and Clive

had his difficulties in completing the dislodgement of the French. . . . He did it; but nearly at the sacrifice of his life. When the British supremacy in the Deccan was completely established, he returned [1752] in bad health to England. . . . He left behind him Dupleix, for whom a summons home in disgrace was on the way."—H. Martineau, *History of British rule in India*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *History of the French in India*, ch. 3-6.—Idem, *Founders of the Indian empire: Lord Clive*, ch. 1-6.—C. Wilson, *Lord Clive*, ch. 2-4.

1747-1761.—Durani power in Afghanistan.—Conflict of Afghans and Mahrattas.—Great defeat of the latter at Panipat.—Fall of shattered Mogul empire.—State of affairs which invited British conquest.—On the death of Nadir Shah, who was murdered in 1747, his Afghan kingdom was acquired by a native chief, Ahmed Abdalee, who, first a prisoner and a slave to Nadir Shah, had become one of the trusted officers of his court and army. "Ahmed Abdalee had acquired so great an ascendancy among the troops that upon this event [the death of Nadir Shah] several commanders and their followers joined his standard; and he drew off toward his own country. He fell in with and seized a convoy of treasure, which was proceeding to the camp. This enabled him to engage in his pay a still larger body of his countrymen. He proclaimed himself king of the Afghans; and took the title of Door-dowran, or pearl of the age, which being corrupted into Dooranee [or Durani], gave one of their names to himself and his Abdallees. He marched towards Candahar, which submitted to his arms; and next proceeded to Cabul . . . and this province also fell into the hands of the Afghans." Lahore was next added to his dominions, and he then, in 1747, invaded India, intent upon the capture of Delhi; but met with sufficient resistance to discourage his undertaking, and fell back to Cabul. In 1748, and again in 1749, he passed the Indus, and made himself master of the Punjab. In 1755-6 he marched to Delhi, which opened its gates to him and received him, prettendly as a guest, but really as a master. A plague breaking out in his army caused him to return to his own country. He "left his son Governor of Lahore and Multan; disordered by revolutions, wasted and turbulent. A chief . . . incited the Seiks [Sikhs] to join him in molesting the Dooranees; and they gained several important advantages over their principal commanders. They invited the Mahratta generals, Ragonaut Raow, Shumsheer Bahadur, and Holkar, who had advanced into the neighbourhood of Delhi, to join them in driving the Abdallees from Lahore. No occupation could be more agreeable to the Mahrattas. After taking Sirhind, they advanced to Lahore, where the Abdalee Prince made but a feeble resistance and fled. This event put them in possession of both Multan and Lahore. . . . The whole Indian continent appeared now about to be swallowed up by the Mahrattas. . . . Ahmed Shah [the Abdali or Durani] was not only roused by the loss of his two provinces, and the disgrace imprinted on his arms, but he was invited by the chiefs and people of Hindustan, groaning under the depredations of the Mahrattas, to march to their succour and become their King. . . . For some days the Dooranees hovered round the Mahratta camp; when the Mahrattas, who were distressed for provisions, came out and offered battle. Their army, consisting of 80,000 veteran cavalry, was almost wholly destroyed; and Duttah Sindia, their General, was among the slain.

A detachment of horse sent against another body of Mahrattas, who were marauding under Holkar in the neighbourhood of Secundra, surprised them so completely that Holkar fled naked, with a handful of followers, and the rest, with the exception of a few prisoners and fugitives, were all put to the sword. During the rainy season, while the Dooranee Shah was quartered at Secundra, the news of this disaster and disgrace excited the Mahrattas to the greatest exertions. A vast army was collected, and . . . the Mahrattas marched to gratify the resentments, and fulfil the unbounded hopes of the nation. . . . They arrived at the Jumna before it was sufficiently fallen to permit either the Mahrattas on the other side, or the Dooranees, to cross. In the meantime they marched to Delhi, of which after some resistance they took possession; plundered it with their usual rapacity, tearing away even the gold and silver ornaments of the palace; proclaimed Sultan Jewan Bukht, the son of Alee Gohur [or Shah Alam, absent son of the late nominal emperor at Delhi, Alungeer II, who had recently been put to death by his own vizir], Emperor; and named Sujah ad Dowlah, Nabob of Oude, his Vizir. Impatient at intelligence of these and some other transactions, Ahmed Shah swam the Jumna, still deemed impassable, with his whole army. This daring adventure, and the remembrance of the late disaster, shook the courage of the Mahrattas; and they entrenched their camp on a plain near Panniput. The Dooranee, having surrounded their position with parties of troops, to prevent the passage of supplies, contented himself for some days with skirmishing. At last he tried an assault; when the Rohilla infantry . . . forced their way into the Mahratta works, and Bulwant Raow with other chiefs was killed; but night put an end to the conflict. Meanwhile scarcity prevailed and filth accumulated in the Mahratta camp. The vigilance of Ahmed intercepted their convoys. In a little time famine and pestilence raged. A battle became the only resource [January 7, 1761]. The Abdalee restrained his troops till the Mahrattas had advanced a considerable way from their works; when he rushed upon them with so much rapidity as left them hardly any time for using their cannon. The Bhaow was killed early in the action; confusion soon pervaded the army, and a dreadful carnage ensued. The field was floated with blood. Twenty-two thousand men and women were taken prisoners. Of those who escaped from the field of battle, the greater part were butchered by the people of the country, who had suffered from their depredations. Of an army of 140,000 horse, commanded by the most celebrated generals of the nation, only three chiefs of any rank, and a mere residue of the troops, found their way to Deccan. The Dooranee Shah made but little use of this mighty victory. After remaining a few months at Delhi, he recognized Alee Gohur as Emperor, by the title of Shah Aulum II.; and entrusting Nujeeb ad Dowlah with the superintendence of affairs, till his master should return from Bengal, he marched back to his capital of Cabul in the end of the year 1760 [1761]. With Aulumgeer II. the empire of the Moguls may be justly considered as having arrived at its close. The unhappy Prince who now received the name of Emperor, and who, after a life of misery and disaster, ended his days a pensioner of English merchants, never possessed a sufficient degree of power to consider himself for one moment as master of the throne."—J. Mill, *History of British India*, v. 2, bk. 3, ch.



4.—“The words ‘wonderful,’ ‘strange,’ are often applied to great historical events, and there is no event to which they have been applied more freely than to . . . [the English] conquest of India. . . . But the event was not wonderful in a sense that it is difficult to discover adequate causes by which it could have been produced. If we begin by remarking that authority in India had fallen on the ground through the decay of the Mogul Empire, that it lay there waiting to be picked up by somebody, and that all over India in that period adventurers of one kind or another were founding Empires, it is really not surprising that a mercantile corporation which had money to pay a mercenary force should be able to compete with other adventurers, nor yet that it should outstrip all its competitors by bringing into the field English military science and generalship, especially when it was backed over and over again by the whole power and credit of England and directed by English statesmen. . . . England did not in the strict sense conquer India, but . . . certain Englishmen, who happened to reside in India at the time when the Mogul Empire fell, had a fortune like that of Hyder Ali or Runjeet Singh and rose to supreme power there.”—J. R. Seeley, *Expansion of England, course 2, lect. 3.*

ALSO IN: J. G. Duff, *History of the Mahrattas, v. 2, ch. 2-5.*—G. B. Malleson, *History of Afghanistan, ch. 8.*—H. G. Keene, *Madhava Rao Sindhia, ch. 2.*

1755-1757.—Capture of Calcutta by Suraj-ud-Dowlah.—Tragedy of Black Hole.—Clive's recovery of fort and settlement.—Clive remained three years in England, where he sought an election to Parliament, as a supporter of Fox, but was unseated by the Tories. On suffering this disappointment, he re-entered the service of the East India Company, as governor of Fort St. David, with the commission of a lieutenant-colonel in the British army, received from the king, and returned to India in 1755. Soon after his arrival at Fort St. David, “he received intelligence which called forth all the energy of his bold and active mind. Of the provinces which had been subject to the house of Tamerlane, the wealthiest was Bengal. No part of India possessed such natural advantages both for agriculture and for commerce. . . . The great commercial companies of Europe had long possessed factories in Bengal. The French were settled, as they still are, at Chandernagore on the Hoogley. Higher up the stream the Dutch traders held Chinsurah. Nearer to the sea, the English had built Fort William. A church and ample warehouses rose in the vicinity. A row of spacious houses, belonging to the chief factors of the East India Company, lined the banks of the river; and in the neighbourhood had sprung up a large and busy native town, where some Hindoo merchants of great opulence had fixed their abode. But the tract now covered by the palaces of Chowringhee contained only a few miserable huts thatched with straw. A jungle, abandoned to water-fowl and alligators, covered the site of the present Citadel, and the Course, which is now daily crowded at sunset with the gayest equipages of Calcutta. For the ground on which the settlement stood, the English, like the other great landholders, paid rent to the government; and they were, like other great landholders, permitted to exercise a certain jurisdiction within their domain. The great province of Bengal, together with Orissa and Bahar, had long been governed by a viceroy, whom the English called Aliverdy Khan, and who, like the other viceroys of the

Mogul, had become virtually independent. He died in 1756, and the sovereignty descended to his grandson, a youth under twenty years of age, who bore the name of Surajah Dowlah. . . . From a child Surajah Dowlah had hated the English. It was his whim to do so; and his whims were never opposed. He had also formed a very exaggerated notion of the wealth which might be obtained by plundering them; and his feeble and uncultivated mind was incapable of perceiving that the riches of Calcutta, had they been even greater than he imagined, would not compensate him for what he must lose, if the European trade, of which Bengal was a chief seat, should be driven by his violence to some other quarter. Pretexts for a quarrel were readily found. The English, in expectation of a war with France, had begun to fortify their settlement without special permission from the Nabob. A rich native, whom he longed to plunder, had taken refuge at Calcutta, and had not been delivered up. On such grounds as these Surajah Dowlah marched with a great army against Fort William. The servants of the Company at Madras had been forced by Dupleix to become statesmen and soldiers. Those in Bengal were still mere traders, and were terrified and bewildered by the approaching danger. . . . The fort was taken [June 20, 1756] after a feeble resistance; and great numbers of the English fell into the hands of the conquerors. The Nabob seated himself with regal pomp in the principal hall of the factory, and ordered Mr. Holwell, the first in rank among the prisoners, to be brought before him. His Highness talked about the insolence of the English, and grumbled at the smallness of the treasure which he had found; but promised to spare their lives, and retired to rest. Then was committed that great crime, memorable for its singular atrocity, memorable for the tremendous retribution by which it was followed. The English captives were left at the mercy of the guards, and the guards determined to secure them for the night in the prison of the garrison, a chamber known by the fearful name of the Black Hole. Even for a single European malefactor, that dungeon would, in such a climate, have been too close and narrow. The space was only twenty feet square. The air-holes were small and obstructed. It was the summer solstice, the season when the fierce heat of Bengal can scarcely be rendered tolerable to natives of England by lofty halls and by the constant waving of fans. The number of the prisoners was 146. When they were ordered to enter the cell, they imagined that the soldiers were joking; and, being in high spirits on account of the promise of the Nabob to spare their lives, they laughed and jested at the absurdity of the notion. They soon discovered their mistake. They expostulated; they entreated; but in vain. The guards threatened to cut down all who hesitated. The captives were driven into the cell at the point of the sword, and the door was instantly shut and locked upon them. Nothing in history or fiction, not even the story which Ugolino told in the sea of everlasting ice, after he had wiped his bloody lips on the scalp of his murderer, approaches the horrors which were recounted by the few survivors of that night. They cried for mercy. They strove to burst the door. Holwell who, even in that extremity, retained some presence of mind, offered large bribes to the gaolers. But the answer was that nothing could be done without the Nabob's orders, that the Nabob was asleep, and that he would be angry if anybody woke him. Then the prisoners

went mad with despair. They trampled each other down, fought for the places at the windows, fought for the pittance of water with which the cruel mercy of the murderers mocked their agonies, raved, prayed, blasphemed, implored the guards to fire among them. The gaolers in the mean time held lights to the bars, and shouted with laughter at the frantic struggles of their victims. At length the tumult died away in low gaspings and moanings. The day broke. The Nabob had slept off his debauch, and permitted the door to be opened. But it was some time before the soldiers could make a lane for the survivors, by piling up on each side the heaps of corpses on which the burning climate had already begun to do its loathsome work. When at length a passage was made, twenty-three ghastly figures, such as their own mothers would not have known, staggered one by one out of the charnel-house. A pit was instantly dug. The dead bodies, 123 in number, were flung into it promiscuously and covered up. . . . One Englishwoman had survived that night. She was placed in the harem of the Prince at Moorsshedabad. Surajah Dowlah, in the mean time, sent letters to his nominal sovereign at Delhi, describing the late conquest in the most pompous language. He placed a garrison in Fort William, forbade Englishmen to dwell in the neighbourhood, and directed that, in memory of his great actions, Calcutta should thenceforward be called Alinagore, that is to say, the Port of God. In August the news of the fall of Calcutta reached Madras, and excited the fiercest and bitterest resentment. The cry of the whole settlement was for vengeance. Within forty-eight hours after the arrival of the intelligence it was determined that an expedition should be sent to the Hoogley, and that Clive should be at the head of the land forces. The naval armament was under the command of Admiral Watson. Nine hundred English infantry, fine troops and full of spirit, and 1,500 sepoyes, composed the army which sailed to punish a Prince who had more subjects than Lewis XV. or the Empress Maria Theresa. In October the expedition sailed; but it had to make its way against adverse winds, and did not reach Bengal till December. The Nabob was revelling in fancied security at Moorsshedabad. He was so profoundly ignorant of the state of foreign countries that he often used to say that there were not ten thousand men in all Europe; and it had never occurred to him as possible, that the English would dare to invade his dominions. But, though undisturbed by any fear of their military power, he began to miss them greatly. His revenues fell off. . . . He was already disposed to permit the company to resume its mercantile operations in his country, when he received the news that an English armament was in the Hoogley. He instantly ordered all his troops to assemble at Moorsshedabad, and marched towards Calcutta. Clive had commenced operations with his usual vigour. He took Budgebudge, routed the garrison of Fort William, recovered Calcutta, stormed and sacked Hoogley. The Nabob, already disposed to make some concessions to the English, was confirmed in his pacific disposition by these proofs of their power and spirit. He accordingly made overtures to the chiefs of the invading armament, and offered to restore the factory, and to give compensation to those whom he had despoiled. Clive's profession was war; and he felt that there was something discreditable in an accommodation with Surajah Dowlah. But his power was limited. . . . The promises of the

Nabob were large, the chances of a contest doubtful; and Clive consented to treat, though he expressed his regret that things should not be concluded in so glorious a manner as he could have wished. With this negotiation commences a new chapter in the life of Clive. Hitherto he had been merely a soldier carrying into effect, with eminent ability and valour, the plans of others. Henceforth he is to be chiefly regarded as a statesman; and his military movements are to be considered as subordinate to his political designs."—T. B. Macaulay, *Lord Clive (Essays)*.

ALSO IN: Sir J. Malcolm, *Life of Lord Clive*, v. 1, ch. 3.—J. Mill, *History of British India*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 3.—H. E. Busteed, *Echoes from old Calcutta*, ch. 1.

1757.—Treachorous conspiracy against Suraj-ud-Dowlah.—Overthrow at the battle of Plassey.—Counterfeit treaty with Omichund.—Elevation of Mir Jafar to the subahdar's throne.—The unsatisfactory treaty entered into with Suraj-ud-Dowlah had been pressed upon Clive by the Calcutta merchants, who "thought the alliance would enable them to get rid of the rival French station at Chandernagore. The Subahdar gave a doubtful answer to their proposal to attack this settlement, which Clive interpreted as an assent. The French were overpowered, and surrendered their fort. Surajah Dowlah was now indignant against his recent allies; and sought the friendship of the French officers. Clive, called by the natives 'the daring in war,' was also the most adroit, and,—for the truth cannot be disguised,—the most unscrupulous in policy. The English resident at the Court of Moorsshedabad, under Clive's instructions, encouraged a conspiracy to depose the Subahdar, and to raise his general, Meer Jaffier, to the supreme power. A Hindoo of great wealth and influence, Omichund, engaged in this conspiracy. After it had proceeded so far as to become the subject of a treaty between a Select Committee at Calcutta and Meer Jaffier, Omichund demanded that a condition should be inserted in that treaty, to pay him thirty lacs of rupees as a reward for his service. The merchants at Calcutta desired the largest share of any donation from Meer Jaffier, as a consideration for themselves, and were by no means willing that £300,000 should go to a crafty Hindoo. Clive suggested an expedient to secure Omichund's fidelity, and yet not to comply with his demands—to have two treaties drawn; a real one on red paper, a fictitious one on white. The white treaty was to be shown to Omichund, and he was to see with his own eyes that he had been properly cared for. Clive and the Committee signed this, as well as the red treaty which was to go to Meer Jaffier. Admiral Watson refused to sign the treacherous document. On the 10th of May, 1757, Clive stood up in his place in the House of Commons, to defend himself upon this charge against him, amongst other accusations. He boldly acknowledged that the stratagem of the two treaties was his invention;—that admiral Watson did not sign it; but that he should have thought himself authorised to sign for him in consequence of a conversation; that the person who did sign thought he had sufficient authority for so doing. 'He (Clive) forged admiral Watson's name,' says lord Macaulay. . . . The courage, the perseverance, the unconquerable energy of Clive have furnished examples to many in India who have emulated his true glory. Thank God, the innate integrity of the British character has, for the most part, preserved us from such exhibitions of 'true policy and justice.' The English resident, Mr. Watts,

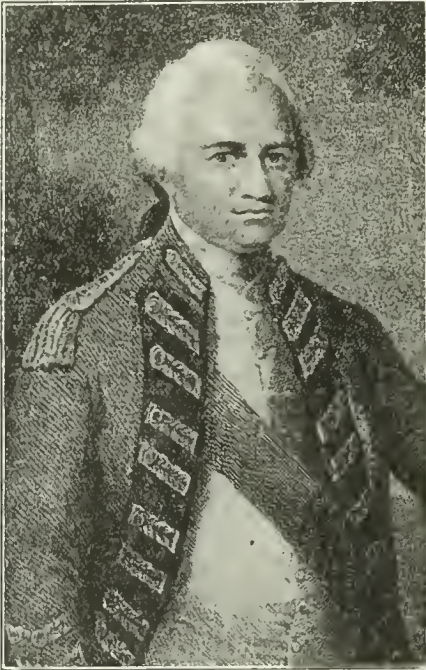
left Moorshedabad. Clive wrote a letter of defiance to Surajah Dowlah, and marched towards his capital. The Subahdar had come forth from his city, as populous as the London of a century ago, to annihilate the paltry army of 1,000 English, and their 2,000 Sepoys disciplined by English officers, who dared to encounter his 60,000. He reached the village of Plassey with all the panoply of oriental warfare. His artillery alone appeared sufficient to sweep away those who brought only eight field pieces and two howitzers to meet his fifty heavy guns. Each gun was drawn by forty yoke of oxen; and a trained elephant was behind each gun to urge it over rough ground or up steep ascents. Meer Jaffier had not performed his promise to join the English with a division of the Subahdar's army. It was a time of terrible anxiety with the English commander. Should he venture to give battle without the aid of a native force? He submitted his doubt to a Council of War. Twelve officers, himself amongst the number, voted for delay. Seven voted for instant action. Clive reviewed the arguments on each side, and finally cast away his doubts. He determined to fight, without which departure from the opinion of the majority, he afterwards said, the English would never have been masters of Bengal. On the 22nd of June [1757], his little army marched fifteen miles, passed the Hooghly, and at one o'clock of the morning of the 23rd rested under the mangoe-trees of Plassey. As the day broke, the vast legions of the Subahdar,—15,000 cavalry, 45,000 infantry,—some armed with muskets, some with bows and arrows, began to surround the mangoe-grove and the hunting-lodge where Clive had watched through the night. There was a cannonade for several hours. The great guns of Surajah Dowlah did little execution. The small field-pieces of Clive were well served. One of the chief Mohammedan leaders having fallen, disorder ensued, and the Subahdar was advised to retreat. He himself fled upon a swift camel to Moorshedabad. When the British forces began to pursue, the victory became complete. Meer Jaffier joined the conquerors the next day. Surajah Dowlah did not consider himself safe in his capital; and he preferred to seek the protection of a French detachment at Patna. He escaped from his palace disguised; ascended the Ganges in a small boat; and fancied himself secure. A peasant whose ears he had cut off recognised his oppressor, and with some soldiers brought him back to Moorshedabad. In his presence-chamber now sat Meer Jaffier, to whose knees the wretched youth crawled for mercy. That night Surajah Dowlah was murdered in his prison, by the orders of Meer Jaffier's son, a boy as blood-thirsty as himself."—C. Knight, *Popular history of England*, v. 6, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *Founders of the Indian empire: Clive*, ch. 8-10.—Idem, *Lord Clive (Rulers of India)*.—Idem, *Decisive battles of India*, ch. 3.—E. Thornton, *History of British empire in India*, v. 1, ch. 4.

1757-1772.—Clive's administrations in Bengal.—Decisive war with Mogul emperor and nawab of Oudh.—English supremacy established.—"The battle of Plassey was fought on June 23, 1757, an anniversary afterwards remembered when the Mutiny of 1857 was at its height. History has agreed to adopt this date as the beginning of the British Empire in the East. But the immediate results of the victory were comparatively small, and several years passed in hard fighting before even the Bengalis would admit the superiority of the British arms. For the moment,

however, all opposition was at an end. Clive, again following in the steps of Duplex, placed Mir Jafar upon the Viceregal throne at Murshidabad, being careful to obtain a patent of investiture from the Mughal court. Enormous sums were exacted from Mir Jafar as the price of his elevation. . . . At the same time, the Nawab made a grant to the Company of the zamindari or landholder's rights over an extensive tract of country round Calcutta, now known as the District of the Twenty-four Parganas. The area of this tract was 882 square miles. In 1757 the Company obtained only the zamindari rights—i. e., the rights to collect the cultivator's rents, with the revenue jurisdiction attached [see below: 1785-1793]. The superior lordship, or right to receive the land tax, remained with the Nawab. But in 1759, this also was granted by the Delhi Emperor, the nominal Suzerain of the Nawab, in favour of Clive, who thus became the landlord of his own masters, the Company. . . . Lord Clive's claims to the property as feudal Suzerain over the Company were contested in 1764; and on the 23d June, 1765, when he returned to Bengal, a new deed was issued, confirming the unconditional jagir to Lord Clive for ten years, with reversion afterwards to the Company in perpetuity. . . . In 1758, Clive was appointed by the Court of Directors the first Governor of all the Company's settlements in Bengal. Two powers threatened hostilities. On the west, the Shahzada or Imperial prince, known afterwards as the Emperor Shah Alam, with a mixed army of Afghans and Mahrattas, and supported by the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, was advancing his own claims to the Province of Bengal. In the south the influence of the French under Lally and Bussy was overshadowing the British at Madras. The name of Clive exercised a decisive effect in both directions. Mir Jafar was anxious to buy off the Shahzada, who had already invested Patna. But Clive marched in person to the rescue, with an army of only 450 Europeans and 2,500 sepoy, and the Mughal army dispersed without striking a blow. In the same year, Clive despatched a force southwards under Colonel Forde, which recaptured Masulipatam from the French, and permanently established British influence throughout the Northern Circars, and at the court of Haidarabad. He next attacked the Dutch, the only other European nation who might yet prove a rival to the English. He defeated them both by land and water; and their settlement at Chinsurah existed thenceforth only on sufferance. From 1760 to 1765, Clive was in England. He had left no system of government in Bengal, but merely the tradition that unlimited sums of money might be extracted from the natives by the terror of the English name. In 1761, it was found expedient and profitable to dethrone Mir Jafar, the English Nawab of Murshidabad, and to substitute his son-in-law, Mir Kasim, in his place. On this occasion, besides private donations, the English received a grant of the three Districts of Bardwan, Midnapur, and Chittagong, estimated to yield a net revenue of half a million sterling. But Mir Kasim soon began to show a will of his own, and to cherish dreams of independence. . . . The Nawab alleged that his civil authority was everywhere set at naught. The majority of the Council at Calcutta would not listen to his complaints. The Governor, Mr. Vansittart, and Warren Hastings, then a junior member of Council, attempted to effect some compromise. But the controversy had become too hot. The Nawab's officers fired upon an English boat, and forthwith

all Bengal rose in arms [1763]. Two thousand of . . . sepoy were cut to pieces at Patna; about 200 Englishmen, who there and in other various parts of the Province fell into the hands of the Muhammadans, were massacred. But as soon as regular warfare commenced, Mir Kasim met with no more successes. His trained regiments were defeated in two pitched battles by Major Adams, at Gheriah and at Udha nala; and he himself took refuge with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, who refused to deliver him up. This led to a prolongation of the war. Shah Alam, who had now succeeded his father as Emperor, and Shuja-ud-Daula, the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, united their forces, and threatened Patna, which the English



LORD CLIVE

had recovered. A more formidable danger appeared in the English camp, in the form of the first sepoy mutiny. This was quelled by Major (afterwards Sir Hector) Munro, who ordered 24 of the ringleaders to be blown from guns, an old Mughal punishment. In 1764, Major Munro won the decisive battle of Baxar [or Buxar], which laid Oudh at the feet of the conquerors, and brought the Mughal Emperor as a suppliant to the English camp. Meanwhile, the Council at Calcutta had twice found the opportunity they loved of selling the government of Bengal to a new Nawab.—*Imperial Gazetteer of India, v. 4, pp. 389-393.*

In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned to India as governor of Bengal. He found that, during his absence, the officials of the Company had been guilty of injustice and rapacity. The Company's servants transferred their goods from place to place duty free, while the country merchants were taxed and were ruined while the Company's servants, native as well as English, reared great fortunes. "It is to the credit of Warren Hastings [who was then a member of the council] that he consistently pro-

tested against the claims of the Company's servants to carry on their private trade duty free, and deplored the ruin that was thus caused to the people of Bengal . . . while the entire inland trade of Bengal was thus disorganized by the Company's servants and their agents in every important district, the methods by which they secured the manufactures . . . are fully described by William Bolts, an English merchant who saw things with his own eyes. . . . 'It may with truth be now said that the whole inland trade of the country, as at present conducted, and that of the Company's investment for Europe in a more peculiar degree, has been one continued scene of oppression; the baneful effects of which are severely felt by every weaver and manufacturer in the country, every article produced being made a monopoly; in which the English, with their Banyans and black Gomastahs [native clerks] arbitrarily decide what quantities of goods each manufacturer shall deliver, and the prices he shall receive for them. . . . Upon the Gomastah's arrival at the Auring, or manufacturing town, he fixes upon a habitation which he calls his Cutcherry; to which, by his peons and hircarabs, he summons the brokers, called *dallals* and *pykars*, together with the weavers, whom, after receipt of the money despatched by his masters, he makes to sign a bond for the delivery of a certain quantity of goods, at a certain time and price, and pays them a certain part of the money in advance. The assent of the poor weaver is in general not deemed necessary; for the Gomastahs, when employed on the Company's investment, frequently make them sign what they please; and upon the weavers refusing to take the money offered, it has been known they have had it tied in their girdles, and they have been sent away with a flogging. . . . A number of these weavers are generally also registered in the books of the Company's Gomastahs, and not permitted to work for any others, being transferred from one to another as so many slaves, subject to the tyranny and roguery of each succeeding Gomastah. . . . The roguery practised in this department is beyond imagination; but all terminates in the defrauding of the poor weaver; for the prices which the Company's Gomastahs, and in confederacy with them the Jachendars (examiners of fabrics) fix upon the goods, are in all places at least 15 per cent., and some even 40 per cent. less than the goods so manufactured would sell in the public bazaar or market upon free sale. . . . Weavers, also, upon their inability to perform such agreements as have been forced upon them by the Company's agent, universally known in Bengal by the name of Mutchulcahs, have had their goods seized and sold on the spot to make good the deficiency; and the winders of raw silk, called *Negoads*, have been treated also with such injustice, that instances have been known of their cutting off their thumbs to prevent their being forced to wind silk. . . . The ryots, who are generally both land-holders and manufacturers, by the oppressions of Gomastahs in harassing them for goods are frequently rendered incapable of improving their lands, and even of paying their rents; for which, on the other hand, they are again chastised by the officers of the revenue, and not infrequently have by those harpies been necessitated to sell their children in order to pay their rents, or otherwise obliged to fly the country.' . . . [Complaints began to reach England, and Warren Hastings wrote in strong terms to the Company:] 'I beg leave to lay before you a grievance which calls loudly for redress.

... I mean the oppression committed under the sanction of the English name.' ... [He goes on to accuse the company's servants, and to inveigh against the use of the English flag to cover not only their own oppression but that of their native agents, and to complain of the insolence of the sepoys to the population.] It is due ... to the East India Company to state that they set their faces against ... exactions recovered under the name of presents, and condemned also the internal trade carried on by their servants in Bengal. In 1765 they sent out orders against the receipt of presents, and despatched Clive once more to put a stop to the internal trade of their servants, which they had already prohibited. The orders had already arrived in Bengal, and the covenants to be signed by the Company's servants were shortly expected. ... Lord Clive had an arduous duty to perform. The Company's affairs were in a bad way; their servants were corrupt; their subjects were oppressed. ... His letter to the court of Directors, from Calcutta; dated 30th. September 1765, is one of the most memorable documents ... in Indian affairs. In this letter Lord Clive described the state of affairs as he found them. ... 'Upon my arrival, I am sorry to say, I found your affairs in a condition so nearly desperate as would have alarmed any set of men whose sense of honour and duty to their employers had not been estranged by the too eager pursuit of their own advantage. The sudden, and, among many, the unwarrantable acquisition of riches, had introduced luxury in every shape and in the most pernicious excess. These two enormous evils went hand in hand together through the whole Presidency, infecting almost every member of each Department; every inferior seemed to have grasped at wealth that he might be able to assume that spirit of profusion which was now the only distinction between him and his superior. ... It is no wonder that the lust of riches should readily embrace the proffered means of its gratification, or that the instruments of your power should avail themselves of their authority, and proceed even to extortion in those cases where simple corruption could not keep pace with their rapacity. Examples of this sort, set by superiors, could not fail of being followed in proportional degree by inferiors; the evil was contagious, and spread among the civil and military, down to the writer, the ensign, and the free merchant. ... The sources of tyranny and oppression, which have been opened by the European agents acting under the authority of the Company's servants, and the numberless black agents and sub-agents acting also under them, will, I fear, be a lasting reproach to the English name in this country.'—R. C. Dutt, *Economic history of India under early British rule*, v. 1, pp. 21, 25-27, 33-37.—'Two landmarks stand out in his [Clive's] policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But the beginning of ... [British] Indian rule dates from this second governorship of Clive, as ... [British] military supremacy had dated from his victory at Plassey. Clive landed, advanced rapidly up from Calcutta to Allahabad, and there settled in person the fate of nearly half of India. Oudh was given back to the Nawab Wazir, on condition of his paying half a million sterling towards

the expenses of the war. The Provinces of Allahabad and Kora, forming the greater part of the Doab, were handed over to Shah Alam himself, who in his turn granted to the Company the diwani or fiscal administration of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and also the territorial jurisdiction of the Northern Circars. A puppet Nawab was still maintained at Murshidabad, who received an annual allowance from ... [the company] of £600,000. Half that amount, or about £300,000 ... [was] paid to the Emperor as tribute from Bengal. Thus was constituted the dual system of government, by which the English received all the revenues and undertook to maintain the army; while the criminal jurisdiction, or nizamat, was vested in the Nawab. In Indian phraseology, the Company was diwan and the Nawab was nizam. The actual collection of the revenues still remained for some years in the hands of native officials. ... Lord Clive quitted India for the third and last time in 1767. Between that date and the governorship of Warren Hastings, in 1772, little of importance occurred in Bengal beyond the terrible famine of 1770, which is officially reported to have swept away one-third of the inhabitants. The dual system of government, established in 1765 by Clive, had proved a failure. Warren Hastings, a tried servant of the Company, distinguished alike for intelligence, for probity, and for knowledge of oriental manners, was nominated Governor by the Court of Directors, with express instructions to carry out a predetermined series of reforms. In their own words, the Court had resolved to 'stand forth as diwan, and to take upon themselves, by the agency of their own servants, the entire care and administration of the revenues.' In the execution of this plan, Hastings removed the exchequer from Murshidabad to Calcutta, and appointed European officers, under the now familiar title of Collectors, to superintend the revenue collections and preside in the courts. Clive had laid the territorial foundations of the British Empire in Bengal. Hastings may be said to have created a British administration for that Empire.—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 4, pp. 389-394.

ALSO IN: W. M. Torrens, *Empire in Asia: How we came by it*, ch. 4-6.—C. Wilson, *Lord Clive*, ch. 7-9.—G. B. Malleson, *Decisive battles of India*, ch. 7.

1758-1761.—End of French domination in India.—Battle of Wandiwash.—'In 1758 the fortunes of the French in India underwent an entire change. In April a French fleet [which had been sent out at the outbreak of the Seven Years' War] arrived at Pondicherry. It brought a large force under the command of Count de Lally, who had been appointed Governor-General of the French possessions in India. ... No sooner had he landed at Pondicherry than he organised an expedition against Fort St. David; but he found that no preparations had been made by the French authorities. There was a want alike of coolies, draught cattle, provisions, and ready money. But the energy of Lally overcame all obstacles. ... In June, 1758, Lally captured Fort St. David. He then prepared to capture Madras as a preliminary to an advance on Bengal. He recalled Bussy from the Dekhan to help him with his Indian experiences; and he sent the Marquis de Conflans to succeed Bussy in the command of the Northern Circars. [A strip of territory on the Coromandel coast, which had been ceded to the French in 1752 by Salabat Jang, nizam of the Deccan, was so called; it stretched along 600 miles of seaboard, from the Carnatic frontier northwards.] ... The departure of Bussy from

the Northern Circars was disastrous to the French. The Raja of Vizianagram revolted against the French and sent to Calcutta for help. Clive despatched an English force to the Northern Circars, under the command of Colonel Forde; and in December, 1758, Colonel Forde defeated the French under Conflans [at Condore, or Kondur, December 9], and prepared to recover all the English factories on the coast which had been captured by Bussy. Meanwhile Count de Lally was actively engaged at Pondicherry in preparations for the siege of Madras. He hoped to capture Madras, and complete the destruction of the English in the Carnatic; and then to march northward, capture Calcutta, and expel the English from Bengal. . . . Lally reached Madras on the 12th of December, 1758, and at once took possession of Black Town. He then began the siege of Fort St. George with a vigour and activity which commanded the respect of his enemies. His difficulties were enormous. . . . Even the gunpowder was nearly exhausted. At last, on the 16th of February, 1759, an English fleet arrived at Madras under Admiral Pocock, and Lally was compelled to raise the siege. Such was the state of party feeling amongst the French in India, that the retreat of Lally from Madras was received at Pondicherry with every demonstration of joy. The career of Lally in India lasted for two years longer, namely from February, 1759, to February, 1761; it is a series of hopeless struggles and wearying misfortunes. In the Dekhan, Salabut Jung had been thrown into the utmost alarm by the departure of Bussy and defeat of Conflans. He was exposed to the intrigues and plots of his younger brother, Nizam Ali, and he despaired of obtaining further help from the French. Accordingly he opened up negotiations with Colonel Forde and the English. Forde on his part recovered all the captured factories [taking Masulipatam by storm, April 7, 1759, after a fortnight's siege], and drove the French out of the Northern Circars. He could not however interfere in the domestic affairs of the Dekhan, by helping Salabut Jung against Nizam Ali. In 1761 Salabut Jung was dethroned and placed in confinement; and Nizam Ali ascended the throne at Hyderabad as ruler of the Dekhan. In the Carnatic the French were in despair. In January, 1760, Lally was defeated by Colonel Coote at Wandiwash, between Madras and Pondicherry. Lally opened up negotiations with Hyder Ali, who was rising to power in Mysore; but Hyder Ali as yet could do little or nothing. At the end of 1760 Colonel Coote began the siege of Pondicherry. Lally . . . was ill in health and worn out with vexation and fatigue. The settlement was torn by dissensions. In January, 1761, the garrison was starved into a capitulation, and the town and fortifications were levelled with the ground. A few weeks afterwards the French were compelled to surrender the strong hill-fortress of Jingi, and their military power in the Carnatic was brought to a close. [On the return of Count Lally to France] he was sacrificed to save the reputation of the French ministers. . . . He was tried by the parliament of Paris. . . . In May, 1766, he was condemned not only to death, but to immediate execution."—J. T. Wheeler, *Short history of India*, pt. 3, ch. 2.—"The battle of Wandewash, . . . though the numbers on each side were comparatively small, must yet be classed amongst the decisive battles of the world, for it dealt a fatal and decisive blow to French domination in India."—G. B. Malleson, *History of the French in India*, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: G. B. Malleson, *Decisive battles of India*, ch. 4.

1767-1769.—First war with Hyder Ali.—Exhaustion of East India Company's resources.—"At this period, the main point of interest changes from the Presidency of Bengal to the Presidency of Madras. There, the English were becoming involved in another war. There, they had now, for the first time, to encounter the most skilful and daring of all the enemies against whom they ever fought in India—Hyder Ali. He was of humble origin, the grandchild of a wandering 'fakir' or Mahomedan monk. Most versatile in his talents, Hyder was no less adventurous in his career; by turns a private man devoted to sports of the chase, a captain of free-booters, a partisan-chief, a rebel against the Rajah of Mysore, and commander-in-chief of the Mysorean army. Of this last position he availed himself to dethrone and supplant his master. . . . Pursuing his ambitious schemes, Hyder Ali became, not merely the successor of the Rajah, but the founder of the kingdom of Mysore. From his palace at Seringapatam, as from a centre, a new energy was infused through the whole of Southern India. By various wars and by the dispossession of several smaller princes, he extended his frontiers to the northward, nearly to the river Kistna. His posts on the coast of Malabar, Mangalore especially, gave him the means of founding a marine; and he applied himself with assiduous skill to train and discipline his troops according to the European models. The English at Madras were roused by his ambition, without as yet fully appreciating his genius. We find them at the beginning of 1767 engaged, with little care or forethought, in a confederacy against him with the Nizam and the Mahrattas. Formidable as that confederacy might seem, it was speedily dissipated by the arts of Hyder. At the very outset, a well-timed subsidy bought off the Mahrattas. The Nizam showed no better faith; he was only more tardy in his treason. He took the field in concert with a body of English commanded by Colonel Joseph Smith, but soon began to show symptoms of defection, and at last drew off his troops to join the army of Hyder. A battle ensued near Trincomalee, in September, 1767. Colonel Smith had under him no more than 1,500 Europeans and 9,000 Sepoys; while the forces combined on the other side were estimated, probably with much exaggeration, at 70,000 men. Nevertheless, Victory, as usual, declared for the English cause. . . . [The] victory at Trincomalee produced as its speedy consequence a treaty of peace with the Nizam. Hyder was left alone; but even thus proved fully a match for the English both of Madras and of Bombay. . . . He could not be prevented from laying waste the southern plains of the Carnatic, as the territory of one of the staunchest allies of England, Mahomed Ali, the Nabob of Arcot. Through such ravages, the British troops often underwent severe privations. . . . At length, in the spring of 1769, Hyder Ali became desirous of peace, and resolved to extort it on favourable terms. First, by a dexterous feint he drew off the British forces 140 miles to the southward of Madras. Then suddenly, at the head of 5,000 horsemen, Hyder himself appeared at St. Thomas's Mount, within ten miles of that city. The terrified Members of the Council already, in their mind's eye, saw their country-houses given up to plunder and to flame, and were little inclined to dispute whatever might be asked by an enemy so near at hand. Happily his terms were not high. A treaty was signed,

providing that a mutual restoration of conquests should take place, and that the contracting parties should agree to assist each other in all defensive wars. In the career of Hyder Ali, this was by no means the first, nor yet the last occasion, on which he showed himself sincerely desirous of alliance with the English. He did not conceal the fact, that, in order to maintain his power and secure himself, he must lean either on them or on the Mahrattas. . . . In this war with Hyder, the English had lost no great amount of reputation, and of territory they had lost none at all. But as regards their wealth and resources, they had suffered severely. Supplies, both of men and of money, had been required from Bengal, to assist the government at Madras; and both had been freely given. In consequence of such a drain, there could not be made the usual investments in goods, nor yet the usual remittances to England. Thus at the very time when the proprietors of the East India Company had begun to wish each other joy on the great reforms effected by Lord Clive, and looked forward to a further increase of their half-yearly Dividend, they were told to prepare for its reduction. A panic ensued. Within a few days, in the spring of 1760, India Stock fell about sixty per cent."—Lord Mahon, *History of England*, ch. 67.

ALSO IN: Mir Hussein Ali Khan Kirmani, *History of Hydr Naik*, ch. 1-17.—L. B. Bowring, *Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan*, ch. 8.

1770-1773.—Famine in Bengal.—Break-down of Company's government.—North's Regulating Acts.—Reorganization of Company.—"In 1770 Bengal was desolated by perhaps the most terrible of the many terrible famines that have darkened its history, and it was estimated that more than a third part of its inhabitants perished. Yet in spite of all these calamities, in spite of the rapidly accumulating evidence of the inadequacy of the Indian revenues, the rapacity of the proprietors at home prevailed, and dividends of 12 and 12½ per cent., as permitted by the last Act, were declared. The result of all this could hardly be doubtful. In July, 1772, the Directors were obliged to confess that the sum required for the necessary payments of the next three months was deficient to the extent of no less than 1,203,000l., and in August the Chairman and Deputy Chairman waited on the Minister to inform him that nothing short of a loan of at least one million from the public could save the Company from ruin. The whole system of Indian government had thus for a time broken down. The division between the Directors and a large part of the proprietors, and between the authorities of the Company in England and those in India, the private and selfish interests of its servants in India, and of its proprietors at home, the continual oscillation between a policy of conquest and a policy of trade, and the great want in the whole organisation of any adequate power of command and of restraint, had fatally weakened the great corporation. In England the conviction was rapidly growing that the whole system of governing a great country by a commercial company was radically and incurably false. . . . The subject was discussed in Parliament, in 1772, at great length, and with much acrimony. Several propositions were put forward by the Directors, but rejected by the Parliament; and Parliament, under the influence of Lord North, and in spite of the strenuous and passionate opposition of Burke, asserted in unequivocal terms its right to the territorial revenues of the Company. A Select Committee,

consisting of thirty-one members, was appointed by Parliament to make a full inquiry into the affairs of the Company. It was not, however, till 1773 that decisive measures were taken. The Company was at this time absolutely helpless. Lord North commanded an overwhelming majority in both Houses, and on Indian questions he was supported by a portion of the Opposition. The Company was on the brink of ruin, unable to pay its tribute to the government, unable to meet the bills which were becoming due in Bengal. The publication, in 1773, of the report of the Select Committee, revealed a scene of maladministration, oppression, and fraud which aroused a widespread indignation through England; and the Government was able without difficulty, in spite of the provisions of the charter, to exercise a complete controlling and regulating power over the affairs of the Company. . . . By enormous majorities two measures [North's Regulating Acts] were passed through Parliament in 1773, which mark the commencement of a new epoch in the history of the East India Company. By one Act, the ministers met its financial embarrassments by a loan of 1,400,000l. at an interest of 4 per cent., and agreed to forego the claim of 400,000l. till this loan had been discharged. The Company was restricted from declaring any dividend above 6 per cent. till the new loan had been discharged, and above 7 per cent. till its bond-debt was reduced to 1,500,000l. It was obliged to submit its accounts every half-year to the Lords of the Treasury; it was restricted from accepting bills drawn by its servants in India for above 300,000l. a year, and it was obliged to export to the British settlements within its limits British goods of a specified value. By another Act, the whole constitution of the Company was changed, and the great centre of authority and power was transferred to the Crown. . . . All the more important matters of jurisdiction in India were to be submitted to a new court, consisting of a Chief Justice and three puisne judges appointed by the Crown. A Governor-General of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, was to be appointed at a salary of 25,000l. a year, with four Councillors, at salaries of 8,000l. a year, and other presidencies were made subordinate to Bengal. The first Governor-General and Councillors were to be nominated, not by the East India Company, but by Parliament; they were to be named in the Act, and to hold their offices for five years; after that period the appointments reverted to the Directors, but were subject to the approbation of the Crown. Everything in the Company's correspondence with India relating to civil and military affairs was to be laid before the Government. No person in the service of the King or of the Company might receive presents, and the Governor-General, the Councillors, and the judges were excluded from all commercial profits and pursuits. By this memorable Act the charter of the East India Company was completely subverted, and the government of India passed mainly into the hands of the ministers of the Crown. The chief management of affairs was vested in persons in whose appointment or removal the Company had no voice or share, who might govern without its approbation or sanction, but who nevertheless drew, by authority of an Act of Parliament, large salaries from its exchequer. Such a measure could be justified only by extreme necessity and by brilliant success, and it was obviously open to the gravest objections from many sides. . . . Warren Hastings was the first Governor-General: Barwell, Clavering, Monson,

and Philip Francis were the four Councillors."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the eighteenth century*, v. 3, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: J. Mill, *History of British India*, v. 3, bk. 4, ch. 9.

1773-1785.—Administration of Warren Hastings, first governor-general of India.—Execution of Nuncomar.—Rohilla War.—Quarrel with Chait Singh and annexation of Benares.—The Begums of Oudh.—“The Governor-General was not at once the potential personage he has since become. The necessity of ruling by a Dictator (a dictator on the spot, though responsible to superiors at home) had not yet become obvious; and the Governor-General had no superiority in council, except the casting vote in case of an equal division. Whether he could govern or not depended chiefly on whether he had a party of two in the council. Two out of the four, with his own casting vote, were enough; and without it, he was not really governor. This is not the place in which to follow the history of the first general council and its factions, apart from the consequences to British interests. It must suffice to say that at the outset, three out of four of the council (and those the new officials from England) were opposed to Hastings. . . . The internal administration of Bengal under Clive’s ‘double system’ was managed by the Nabob’s prime-minister. This functionary had a salary of 100,000. a year, and enjoyed a high dignity and immense power. One man who aspired to hold the office in Clive’s time was the great Hindoo, Nuncomar, . . . eminent in English eyes for his wealth, and his abilities, and much more in native estimation for his sanctity as a Brahmin, and his almost unbounded social power. . . . The Maharajah Nuncomar was a great scoundrel—there is no doubt of that; and his intrigues, supported by forgeries, were so flagrant as to prevent his appointment to the premiership under the Nabob. Such vices were less odious in Bengal than almost anywhere else; but they were inconvenient, as well as disgusting, to the British; and this was the reason why Clive set aside Nuncomar, and appointed his rival competitor, Mohammed Reza Khan, though he was highly reluctant to place the highest office in Bengal in the hands of a Mussulman. This Mussulman administered affairs for seven years before Hastings became Governor-General; and he also had the charge of the infant Nabob, after Surajah Dowla died. . . . [The Directors had for some time been dissatisfied] with the proceeds of their Bengal dominions. Nuncomar planted his agents everywhere; and in London especially; and these agents persuaded the Directors that Mohammed Reza Khan was to blame for their difficulties and their scanty revenues. Confident in this information, they sent secret orders to Hastings to arrest the great Mussulman, and everybody who belonged to him, and to hear what Nuncomar had to say against him. [The governor-general obeyed the order and made the arrests,] but the Mussulman minister was not punished, and Nuncomar hated Hastings accordingly. He hid his time, storing up materials of accusation with which to overwhelm the Governor at the first turn of his fortunes. That turn was when the majority of the Council were opposed to the Governor-General, and rendered him helpless in his office; and Nuncomar then presented himself, with offers of evidence to prove all manner of treasons and corruptions against Hastings. Hastings was haughty; the councils were tempestuous. Hastings prepared to resign, though he was aware that

the opinion of the English in Bengal was with him; and Nuncomar was the greatest native in the country, visited by the Council, and resorted to by all his countrymen who ventured to approach him. Foiled in the Council, Hastings had recourse to the Supreme Court [of which Sir Elijah Impey was the chief justice]. He caused Nuncomar to be arrested on a charge brought ostensibly by a native of having forged a bond six years before. After a long trial for an offence which appeared very slight to Bengalee natives in those days, the culprit was found guilty by a jury of Englishmen, and condemned to death by the judges.”—H. Martineau, *British rule in India*, ch. 9.—“It may perhaps be said that no trial has been so often tried over again by such diverse authorities, or in so many different ways, as this celebrated proceeding. During the course of a century it has been made the theme of historical, political, and biographical discussion; all the points have been argued and debated by great orators and great lawyers; it has formed the avowed basis of a motion in Parliament to impeach the Chief-Justice, and it must have weighed heavily, though indirectly, with those who decided to impeach the Governor-General. It gave rise to rumours of a dark and nefarious conspiracy which, whether authentic or not, exactly suited the humour and the rhetoric of some contemporary English politicians. . . . Very recently Sir James Stephen, after subjecting the whole case to exact scrutiny and the most skilful analysis, after examining every document and every fact bearing upon this matter with anxious attention, has pronounced judgment declaring, that Nuncomar’s trial was perfectly fair, that Hastings had nothing to do with the prosecution, and that at the time there was no sort of conspiracy or understanding between Hastings and Impey in relation to it. Nothing can be more masterly or more effective than the method employed by Sir James Stephen to explode and demolish, by the force of a carefully-laid train of proofs, the loose fabric of assertions, invectives, and ill-woven demonstrations upon which the enemies of Hastings and Impey based and pushed forward their attacks, and which have never before been so vigorously battered in reply. . . . It may be accepted, upon Sir James Stephen’s authority, that no evidence can be produced to justify conclusions adverse to the innocence of Hastings upon a charge that has from its nature affected the popular tradition regarding him far more deeply than the accusations of high-handed oppressive political transactions, which are little understood and leniently condemned by the English at large. There is really nothing to prove that he had anything to do with the prosecution, or that he influenced the sentence. . . . Nevertheless when Sir James Stephen undertakes to establish, by argument drawn from the general motives of human action, the moral certainty that Hastings was totally unconnected with the business, and that the popular impression against him is utterly wrong, his demonstration is necessarily less conclusive. . . . On the whole there is no reason whatever to dissent from Pitt’s view, who treated the accusation of a conspiracy between Impey and Hastings for the purpose of destroying Nuncomar, as destitute of any shadow of solid proof. Whether Hastings, when Nuncomar openly tried to ruin him by false and malignant accusations, became aware and made use in self-defence of the fact that his accuser had rendered himself liable to a prosecution for forgery, is a different question, upon which also no evidence exists or is likely to be forthcoming.”—A. Lyall, *Warren Hast-*



ings, ch. 3.—“James Mill says, ‘No transaction perhaps of his whole administration more deeply tainted the reputation of Hastings than the tragedy of Nuncomar.’ A similar remark was made by William Wilberforce. The most prominent part too in Nuncomar’s story is played by Sir Elijah Impey. . . . Impey, in the present day, is known to English people in general only by the terrible attack made upon him by Lord Macaulay, in his essay on Warren Hastings. It stigmatises him as one of the vilest of mankind. ‘No other such judge has dishonoured the English ermine since Jeffries drank himself to death in the Tower.’ ‘Impey, sitting as a judge, put a man unjustly to death, in order to serve a political purpose.’ ‘The time had come when he was to be stripped of that robe which he had so foully dishonoured.’ These dreadful accusations I, upon the fullest consideration of the whole subject, and, in particular, of much evidence which Macaulay seems to me never to have seen, believe to be wholly unjust. For Macaulay himself I have an affectionate admiration. He was my own friend, and my father’s, and my grandfather’s friend also, and there are few injunctions which I am more disposed to observe than the one which bids us not to forget such persons. I was, moreover, his successor in office, and am better able than most persons to appreciate the splendour of the services which he rendered to India. These considerations make me anxious if I can to repair a wrong done by him, not intentionally, for there never was a kinder-hearted man, but because he adopted on insufficient grounds the traditional hatred which the Whigs bore to Impey, and also because his marvellous power of style blinded him to the effect which his language produced. He did not know his own strength, and was probably not aware that a few sentences which came from him with little effort were enough to brand a man’s name with almost indelible infamy. . . . My own opinion is that no man ever had, or could have, a fairer trial than Nuncomar, and that Impey in particular behaved with absolute fairness and as much indulgence as was compatible with his duty. In his defence at the bar of the House of Commons, he said, ‘Conscious as I am how much it was my intention to favour the prisoner in everything that was consistent with justice; wishing as I did that the facts might turn out favourable for an acquittal; it has appeared most wonderful to me that the execution of my purpose has so far differed from my intentions that any ingenuity could form an objection to my personal conduct as bearing hard on the prisoner.’ My own earnest study of the trial has led me to the conviction that every word of this is absolutely true and just. Indeed, the first matter which directed my attention to the subject was the glaring contrast between Impey’s conduct as described in the State Trials and his character as described by Lord Macaulay. There is not a word in his summing-up of which I should have been ashamed had I said it myself, and all my study of the case has not suggested to me a single observation in Nuncomar’s favour which is not noticed by Impey. As to the verdict, I think that there was ample evidence to support it. Whether it was in fact correct is a point on which it is impossible for me to give an unqualified opinion, as it is of course impossible now to judge decidedly of the credit due to the witnesses, and as I do not understand some part of the exhibits.”—J. F. Stephen, *Story of Nuncomar*, pp. 2-3, 186-187.—Sir John Strachey, in his work on “Hastings and the Rohilla War,” examines in detail one of the chief charges made

against the conduct of Warren Hastings while Governor-General. The Rohilla charge was dropped by Burke and the managers, and was therefore not one of the issues tried at the impeachment; but it was, in spite of this fact, one of the main accusations urged against the Governor-General in Macaulay’s famous essay. Macaulay, following James Mill, accuses Warren Hastings of having hired out an English army to exterminate what Burke called “the bravest, the most honourable and generous nation on earth.” According to Macaulay, the Vizier of Oudh coveted the Rohilla country, but was not strong enough to take it for himself. Accordingly, he paid down forty lakhs of rupees to Hastings, on condition that the latter should help to strike down and seize his prey. Sir John Strachey shows beyond a shadow of doubt that the whole story is a delusion. “The English army was not hired out by Hastings for the destruction of the Rohillas; the Rohillas, described by Burke as belonging to the bravest, the most honourable and generous nation on earth, were no nation at all, but a comparatively small body of cruel and rapacious Afghan adventurers, who had imposed their foreign rule on an unwilling Hindoo population; and the story of their destruction is fictitious.” The northwest angle of the great strip of plain which follows the course of the Ganges was possessed by a clan which fifty years before had been a mere band of Afghan mercenaries, but which was now beginning to settle down as a dominant governing class, living among a vastly more numerous subject-population of Hindoos. This country was Rohilkhand, the warrior-horde the Rohillas. It must never be forgotten that the Rohillas were no more the inhabitants of Rohilkhand than were the Normans fifty years after the Conquest the inhabitants of England. But the fact that the corner of what geographically was a barrier-State for the Company was held by the Rohillas, made it necessary to keep Rohilkhand as well as Oudh free from the Mahrattas. Hence it became the key-note of Warren Hastings’ policy to help both the Rohillas and the Vizier of Oudh to maintain their independence against the Mahrattas. In the year 1772, however, the Mahrattas succeeded in crossing the Ganges, in getting into Rohilkhand, and in threatening the Province of Oudh. Hastings encouraged the Vizier and the Rohilla chiefs to make an alliance, under which the Rohillas were to be reinstated in their country by aid of the Vizier, the Vizier obtaining for such assistance forty lakhs,—that is, he coupled the Rohillas and the Vizier, for defence purposes, into one barrier-State. If the Rohillas had observed this treaty, all might have been well. Unhappily for them, they could not resist the temptation to break faith. They joined the Mahrattas against Oudh, and it was after this had occurred twice that Hastings lent assistance to the vizier in expelling them from Rohilkhand. Instead of exterminating the Rohillas, he helped make a warrior-clan, but one generation removed from a “free company,” recross the Ganges and release from their grip the land they had conquered.

ALSO IN: H. G. Keene, *History of India*, v. 1.—A. D. Innes, *History of England and the British empire*.

“The year 1781 opened for Hastings on a troubled sea of dangers, difficulties, and distress. Haidar Ali was raging in the Carnatic, Goddard and Camac were still fighting the Marathas, and French fleets were cruising in the Bay of Bengal. [See below: 1780-1783.] . . . It was no time for standing upon trifles. Money must be raised

somehow, if British India was to be saved. Among other sources of supply, he turned to the Rajah of Banaras [or Benares]. Chait Singh was the grandson of an adventurer, who had ousted his own patron and protector from the lordship of the district so named. In 1775, his fief had been transferred by treaty from the Nawab of Oudh to the Company. As a vassal of the Company he was bound to aid them with men and money in times of special need. Five lakhs of rupees—£50,000—and two thousand horse was the quota which Hastings had demanded of him in 1780. In spite of the revenue of half-a-million, of the great wealth stored up in his private coffers, and of the splendid show which he always made in public, the Rajah pleaded poverty, and put off compliance with the demands of his liege lord. . . . Chait Singh had repeatedly delayed the payment of his ordinary tribute; his body-guard alone was larger than the force which Hastings required of him; he was enrolling troops for some warlike purpose, and Hastings' agents accused him of secret plottings with the Oudh Begums at Faizabad. . . . The Rajah, in fact, like a shrewd, self-seeking Hindu, was waiting upon circumstances, which at that time boded ill for his English neighbours. The Marathas, the French, or some other power might yet relieve him from the yoke of a ruler who restrained his ambition, and lectured him on the duty of preserving law and order among his own subjects. . . . It has often been argued that, in his stern dealings with the Rajah of Banaras, Hastings was impelled by malice and a desire for revenge. But the subsequent verdict of the House of Lords on this point, justifies itself to all who have carefully followed the facts of his life. . . . As a matter of policy, he determined to make an example of a contumacious vassal, whose conduct in that hour of need added a new danger to those which surrounded the English in India. A heavy fine would teach the Rajah to obey orders, and help betimes to fill his own treasury with the sinews of war. . . . Chait Singh had already tried upon the Governor-General those arts which in Eastern countries people of all classes employ against each other without a blush. He had sent Hastings a peace-offering of two lakhs—£20,000. Hastings took the money, but reserved it for the Company's use. Presently he received an offer of twenty lakhs for the public service. But Hastings was in no mood for further compromise in evasion of his former demand. He would be satisfied with nothing less than half a million in quittance of all dues. In July, 1781, he set out, with Wheeler's concurrence, for the Rajah's capital. . . . Traveling, as he preferred to do, with a small escort and as little parade as possible, he arrived on the 16th August at the populous and stately city. . . . On his way thither, at Baxar, the recusant Rajah had come to meet him, with a large retinue, in the hope of softening the heart of the great Lord Sahib. He even laid his turban on Hastings' lap. . . . With the haughtiness of an ancient Roman, Hastings declined his prayer for a private interview. On the day after his arrival at Banaras, the Governor-General forwarded to Chait Singh a paper stating the grounds of complaint against him, and demanding an explanation on each point. The Rajah's answer seemed to Hastings 'so offensive in style and unsatisfactory in substance'; it was full, in fact, of such transparent, or, as Lord Thurlow afterwards called them, 'impudent' falsehoods, that the Governor-General issued orders for placing the Rajah under arrest. Early the next morning, Chait Singh was quietly arrested

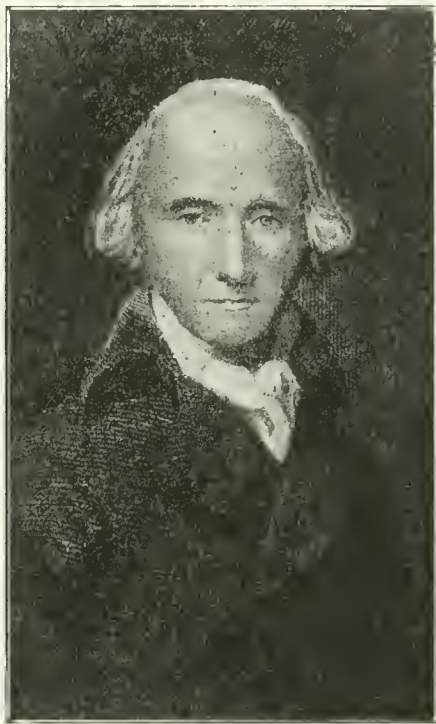
in his own palace. . . . Meanwhile his armed retainers were flocking into the city from his strong castle of Ramnagar, on the opposite bank. Mixing with the populace, they provoked a tumult, in which the two companies of Sepoys guarding the prisoner were cut to pieces. With unloaded muskets and empty pouches—for the ammunition had been forgotten—the poor men fell like sheep before their butchers. Two more companies, in marching to their aid through the narrow streets, were nearly annihilated. During the tumult Chait Singh quietly slipped out of the palace, dropped by a rope of turbans into a boat beneath, and crossed in safety to Ramnagar. . . . If Chait Singh's followers had not shared betimes their master's flight across the river, Hastings, with his band of thirty Englishmen and fifty Sepoys, might have paid very dearly for the sudden miscarriage of his plans. But the rabble of Banaras had no leader, and troops from the nearest garrisons were already marching to the rescue. . . . Among the first who reached him was the gallant Popham, bringing with him several hundred of his own Sepoys. . . . The beginning of September found Popham strong enough to open a campaign, which speedily avenged the slaughters at Banaras and Ramnagar, and carried Hastings back into the full stream of richly-earned success. . . . The capture of Bijgarh on the 10th November, closed the brief but brilliant campaign. The booty, amounting to £400,000, was at once divided among the captors; and Hastings lost his only chance of replenishing his treasury at the expense of Chait Singh. He consoled himself and improved the Company's finances, by bestowing the rebel's forfeit lordship on his nephew, and doubling the tribute hitherto exacted. He was more successful in accomplishing another object of his journey up the country."—L. J. Trotter, *Warren Hastings*, ch. 6.—"It is certain . . . that Chait Singh's rebellion was largely aided by the Begums or Princesses of Faizabad. On this point the evidence contained in Mr. Forrest's volumes ["Selections from Letters, Despatches and other State Papers in the Foreign Department of the Government of India," edited by G. W. Forrest] leaves no shadow of reasonable doubt. In plain truth, the Begums, through their Ministers, the eunuchs, had levied war both against the Company and their own kinsmen and master, the new Wazir of Oudh. Some years before, when the Francis faction ruled in Calcutta, these ladies, the widow and the mother of Shuja, had joined with the British Agent in robbing the new Wazir, Asaf-ud-daula, of nearly all the rich treasure which his father had stored up in Faizabad. Hastings solemnly protested against a transaction which he was powerless to prevent. The Begums kept their hold upon the treasure, and their Jaghirs, or military fiefs, which ought by rights to have lapsed to the new Wazir. Meanwhile Asaf-ud-daula had to govern as he best could, with an empty treasury, and an army mutinous for arrears of pay. At last, with the suppression of the Benares revolt, it seemed to Hastings and the Wazir that the time had come for resuming the Jaghirs, and making the Begums disgorge their ill-gotten wealth. In accordance with the Treaty of Chunar, both these objects were carried out by the Wazir's orders, with just enough of compulsion to give Hastings' enemies a handle for the slanders and misrepresentations which lent so cruel a point to Sheridan's dazzling oratory, and to one of the most scathing passages in Macaulay's most popular essay. There are some points, no doubt, in Hastings' character and career about which honest men may still

hold different opinions. But on all the weightier issues here mentioned there ought to be no room for further controversy. It is no longer possible to contend, for instance, that Hastings agreed, for a handsome bribe, to help in exterminating the innocent people of Rohilkhand; that he prompted Impey to murder Nand-Kumar; that any desire for plunder led him to fasten a quarrel upon Chait Singh; or that he engaged with the Oudh Wazir in a plot to rob the Wazir's own mother of vast property secured to her under a solemn compact, 'formally guaranteed by the Government of Bengal.'—L. J. Trotter, *Warren Hastings and his libellers* (*Westminster Review*, Mar., 1801).

ALSO IN: W. M. Torrens, *Empire in Asia: How we came by it*, ch. 7-11.—H. E. Busteed, *Echoes from old Calcutta*.—G. W. Forrest, *Administration of Warren Hastings*.—G. R. Gleig, *Memoirs of Warren Hastings*, v. 1, ch. 8-14, v. 2.

1780-1783.—Second war with Hyder Ali (Second Mysore War).—British position in India jeopardized.—Decisive action by Warren Hastings.—“The brilliant successes obtained by the English over the French in Hindostan at the beginning of the war had made all direct competition between the two nations in that country impossible, but it was still in the power of the French to stimulate the hostility of the native princes, and the ablest of all these, Hyder Ali, the great ruler of Mysore, was once more in the field. Since his triumph over the English, in 1760, he had acquired much additional territory from the Mahrattas. He had immensely strengthened his military forces, both in numbers and discipline. . . . For some years he showed no wish to quarrel with the English, but when a Mahratta chief invaded his territory they refused to give him the assistance they were bound by the express terms of the treaty of 1760 to afford, they rejected or evaded more than one subsequent proposal of alliance, and they pursued a native policy in some instances hostile to his interest. As a great native sovereign, too, he had no wish to see the balance of power established by the rivalry between the British and French destroyed. . . . Mysore was swarming with French adventurers. The condition of Europe made it scarcely possible that England could send any fresh forces, and Hyder Ali had acquired a strength which appeared irresistible. Ominous rumours passed over the land towards the close of 1779, but they were little heeded, and no serious preparations had been made, when in July, 1780, the storm suddenly burst. At the head of an army of at least 90,000 men, including 30,000 horsemen, 100 cannon, many European officers and soldiers, and crowds of desperate adventurers from all parts of India, Hyder Ali descended upon the Carnatic and devastated a vast tract of country round Madras. Many forts and towns were invested, captured, or surrendered. The Nabob and some of his principal officers acted with gross treachery or cowardice, and in spite of the devastations native sympathies were strongly with the invaders. . . . Madras was for a time in imminent danger. A few forts commanded by British officers held out valiantly, but the English had only two considerable bodies of men, commanded respectively by Colonel Baillie and by Sir Hector Munro, in the field. They endeavoured to effect a junction, but Hyder succeeded in attacking separately the small army of Colonel Baillie, consisting of rather more than 3,700 men, and it was totally defeated [September 10], 2,000 men being left on the field. Munro only saved himself from a similar fate by a rapid retreat,

abandoning his baggage, and much of his ammunition. Arcot, which was the capital of the Nabob, and which contained vast military stores, was besieged for six weeks, and surrendered in the beginning of November. Velore, Wandewash, Permacoil, and Chingliput, four of the chief strongholds in the Carnatic, were invested. A French fleet with French troops was daily expected, and it appeared almost certain that the British power would be extinguished in Madras, if not in the whole of Hindostan. It was saved



WARREN HASTINGS

by the energy of the Governor-General, Warren Hastings, who, by extraordinary efforts, collected a large body of Sepoys and a few Europeans in Bengal, and sent them with great rapidity to Madras, under the command of Sir Eyre Coote, who had proved himself twenty years before scarcely second in military genius to Clive himself. I do not propose to relate in detail the long and tangled story of the war that followed. . . . It is sufficient to say that Coote soon found himself at the head of about 7,200 men, of whom 1,400 were Europeans; that he succeeded in relieving Wandewash, and obliging Hyder Ali to abandon for the present the siege of Velore; that the French fleet, which arrived off the coast in January, 1781, was found to contain no troops, and that on July 1, 1781, Coote, with an army of about 8,000 men, totally defeated forces at least eight times as numerous, commanded by Hyder himself, in the great battle of Porto Novo. . . . The war raged over the Carnatic, over Tanjore, in the Dutch settlements to the south of Tanjore, on the opposite Malabar coast, and on the coast of Ceylon, while at the same time another and independent struggle was proceeding with the Mahrattas. . . . The coffers at Calcutta were nearly empty, and it was in order to re-

plenish them that Hastings committed some of the acts which were afterwards the subjects of his impeachment. . . . By the skill and daring of a few able men, of whom Hastings, Coote, Munro, and Lord Macartney were the most prominent, the storm was weathered. Hyder Ali died in December, 1782, about four months before Sir Eyre Coote. The peace of 1782 withdrew France and Holland from the contest, and towards the close of 1783, Tippoo, the son of Hyder Ali, consented to negotiate a peace, which was signed in the following March. Its terms were a mutual restoration of all conquests, and in this, as in so many other great wars, neither of the contending parties gained a single advantage by all the bloodshed, the expenditure, the desolation, and the misery of a struggle of nearly four years."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the 18th century*, v. 5, ch. 14.—"The centre and heart of the English power lay in Bengal, which the war never reached at all, and which was governed by a man of rare talent and organizing capacity. No Anglo-Indian government of that time could carry on a campaign by war loans, as in Europe; the cost had to be provided out of revenue, or by requiring subsidies from allied native rulers; and it was Bengal that furnished not only the money and the men, but also the chief political direction and military leadership which surmounted the difficulties and repaired the calamities of the English in the western and southern Presidencies. And when at last the Marathas made peace, when Hyder Ali died, and Suffren [the French admiral], with all his courage and genius, could not master the English fleet in the Bay of Bengal, there could be no doubt that the war had proved the strength of the English position in India, had tested the firmness of its foundation. . . . With the termination of this war ended the only period in the long contest between England and the native powers, during which our position in India was for a time seriously jeopardized. That the English dominion emerged from this prolonged struggle uninjured, though not unshaken, is a result due to the political intrepidity of Warren Hastings. . . . Hastings had no aristocratic connexions or parliamentary influence at a time when the great families and the House of Commons held immense power; he was surrounded by enemies in his own Council; and his immediate masters, the East India Company, gave him very fluctuating support. Fiercely opposed by his own colleagues, and very ill obeyed by the subordinate Presidencies, he had to maintain the Company's commercial establishments, and at the same time to find money for carrying on distant and impolitic wars in which he had been involved by blunders at Madras or Bombay. These funds he had been expected to provide out of current revenues, after buying and despatching the merchandise on which the company's home dividends depended; for the resource of raising public loans, so freely used in England, was not available to him. He was thus inevitably driven to the financial transactions, at Benares and Lucknow, that were now so bitterly stigmatized as crimes by men who made no allowance for a perilous situation in a distant land, or for the weight of enormous national interests committed to the charge of the one man capable of sustaining them. When the storm had blown over in India, and he had piloted his vessel into calm water, he was sacrificed with little or no hesitation to party exigencies in England; the Ministry would have recalled him; they consented to his impeachment; they left him to be baited by the Opposition and to be ruined

by the law's delay, by the incredible procrastination and the obsolete formalities of a seven years' trial before the House of Lords."—A. Lyall, *Rise of the British dominion in India*, ch. 11, sect. 2.

ALSO IN: Mir Hussein Ali Khan Kirmani, *History of Hydur Naik*, ch. 27-31.—G. B. Malleson, *Decisive battles of India*, ch. 8.—L. B. Bowring, *Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan*, ch. 14-15.

1784.—Pitt's India Act.—In England, the East India Company had become a bone of contention. There had always been intense jealousy of its trade monopoly; numerous complaints were still justly made of its administration; the conscience of the country was roused by the large fortunes accumulated by officials of the company, and questions were asked about the methods used in making them. On all sides it began to be realized that the government of so great an empire should not be left to a trading company, which must always be tempted to put payment of dividends before good government, and that at least some change of system needed to be made. Two bills introduced by Fox failed in 1783, and caused his downfall. (See ENGLAND: 1783-1787.) He was followed by William Pitt the Younger, who was more successful. In 1784, Pitt brought in a bill for the regulation and management of the Company's affairs, which was passed, and which, with an explanatory Act passed in 1786, provided for the government of India until 1853 when the East India Company was finally deprived of all political power. The Act of 1784 created a commission or board of control in England, composed of six privy councillors, including a secretary of state, and the chancellor of the exchequer. This board had the superintendence and control over all the British territorial possessions in the East Indies, and was fully authorized to "superintend, direct and control, all acts, operations and concerns" relating to the government, civil or military, in India. Copies of all papers "relating to the civil or military government, or revenues" were to be forwarded to the board, and the court of directors was required to pay "due obedience to such orders and directions as they shall receive from the Board, touching the civil or military government and revenues of the British territorial possessions in the East Indies." The chief government of India was to consist of the governor of Bengal, who was appointed governor-general, and three councillors, and each of the other presidencies was likewise to be governed by a governor and three councillors, of whom the commander-in-chief of the presidency was to be one, unless the commander-in-chief of the company's forces in India could be present. The governor-general and governors had the casting vote in their respective councils, so that no governor could again be flouted by his council as Warren Hastings had been. The company had the right of appointment, but the king had the right to recall any of these officials, and no resignation was valid unless made in writing. The right to make war or peace, without the consent of the governor-general and council was taken from the other presidencies. Courts of justice, either in India or Great Britain were declared competent to try offences committed by subjects in native territories, in other words, native territories were not out of the jurisdiction of the British courts, when an offence was committed by a British subject. The receipt of "presents" was declared to be extortion. Elaborate precautions were taken to prevent the amassing of great private fortunes by servants of the Company, which was directed to introduce economy, and was required

to present a list of the civil and military establishments to Parliament within fourteen days of the opening of every session. The power of the governors was increased in 1793 by an amending Act, which gave to both the governor-general and the governors the right in extraordinary cases to act against the written advice of their councils. The Act of 1784 placed the control of the government of India in the hands of Parliament, while the charter trading rights of the company were not interfered with, beyond placing it out of the powers of their servants and agents to oppress. On the other hand the responsibility of the governor-general was enlarged, and his power enhanced, while the power of his council to thwart him was taken away.

ALSO IN: R. Muir, *Making of British India*.—J. Malcolm, *History of India*, v. 1.

1785-1793.—Extent of British rule at close of Hastings' administration.—Decline of Mogul empire.—Rise of Mysore.—Cornwallis's administration.—Third Mysore War (Tippu Sahib) "Permanent Land settlement" in Bengal.—"When Warren Hastings left India, the Mogul Empire was simply the phantom of a name. The warlike tribes of the north-west, Sikhs, Rajpoots, Jats, were henceforth independent; but the Rohillas of the north-east had been subdued and almost exterminated. Of the three greatest Soobahs or vice-royalties of the Mogul empire, at one time practically independent, that of Bengal had wholly disappeared, those of Oude and the Deccan had sunk into dependence on a foreign power, were maintained by the aid of foreign mercenaries. The only two native powers that remained were, the Mahrattas, and the newly-risen Mussulman dynasty of Mysore. The former were still divided between the great chieftaincies of the Peshwa, Scindia, Holkar, the Guicowar, and the Boslas of Berar. But the supremacy of the Peshwa was on the wane; that of Scindia, on the contrary, in the ascendant. Scindia ruled in the north; he had possession of the emperor's person, of Delhi, the old Mussulman capital. In the south, Hyder Ali and Tippoo [son of Hyder Ali, whom he had succeeded in 1782], Sultan of Mysore, had attained to remarkable power. They were dangerous to the Mahrattas, dangerous to the Nizam, dangerous, lastly, to the English. But the rise of the last-named power was the great event of the period. . . . They had won for themselves the three great provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, besides Benares,—forming a large compact mass of territory to the north-east. They had, farther down the east coast, the province of the Northern Circars, and farther still, the jagheer [land grant], of Madras; on the west, again, a large stretch of territory at the southern extremity of the peninsula. The two Mussulman sovereigns of Oude and Hyderabad were their dependent allies; they administered the country of the Nawab of the Carnatic, besides having hosts of smaller potentates under their protection. . . . The appointed successor to Hastings was Lord Macartney [governor of Madras]. . . . He lost his office, however, by hesitating to accept it, and going to England to urge conditions. [Lord Cornwallis, so well known in the history of the United States, was appointed in his place.] . . . The great military event of Lord Cornwallis's government was the third Mysore war. It began with some disputes about the petty Raja of Cherika, from whom the English had farmed the customs of Tellicherry, and taken, in security for advances, a district called Randaterra, and by Tippoo's attack upon the lines of the Raja of Travancore, an ally

of the English, consisting of a ditch, wall, and other defences, on an extent of about thirty miles. Tippoo was, however, repelled with great slaughter in an attack on the town (1789). Hearing this, Lord Cornwallis at once entered into treaties with the Nizam and the Peshwa for a joint war upon Mysore; all new conquests to be equally divided, all Tippoo's own conquests from the contracting powers to be restored. After a first inconclusive campaign, in which, notwithstanding the skill of General Meadows, the advantage rather remained to Tippoo, who, amongst other things, gave a decided check to Colonel Floyd (1790), Lord Cornwallis took the command in person, and carried Bangalore by assault, with great loss to both parties, but a tremendous carnage of the besieged. However, so wretched had been the English preparations, that, the cattle being 'reduced to skeletons, and scarcely able to move their own weight,' Lord Cornwallis, after advancing to besiege Seringapatam, was forced to retreat and to destroy the whole of his battering-train and other equipments; whilst General Abercrombie, who was advancing in the same direction from the Malabar coast, had to do the same (1791). A force of Mahrattas came in, well appointed and well provided, but too late to avert these disasters. The next campaign was more successful. It began by the taking of several of the hill-forts forming the western barrier of Mysore. . . . On the 5th Feb., 1792, however, Lord Cornwallis appeared before Seringapatam, situated in an island formed by the Cauvery: the fort and outworks were provided with 300 pieces of cannon; the fortified camp, outside the river, by six redoubts, with more than 100 pieces of heavy artillery. Tippoo's army consisted of 6,000 cavalry and 50,000 infantry, himself commanding. This first siege, which is celebrated in Indian warfare, continued with complete success on the English side till the 24th. 10,000 subjects of Coorg, whom Tippoo had enlisted by force, deserted. At last, when the whole island was carried and all preparations made for the siege, Tippoo made peace. The English allies had such confidence in Lord Cornwallis, that they left him entire discretion as to the terms. They were,—that Tippoo should give up half of his territory, pay a large sum for war expenses, and give up two of his sons as hostages. The ceded territory was divided between the allies, the Company obtaining a large strip of the Malabar coast, extending eastward to the Carnatic. . . . Meanwhile, on the breaking out of war between England and the French Republic, the French settlements in India were all again annexed (1792). Lord Cornwallis now applied himself to questions of internal government. Properly speaking, there was no English Government as yet. Mr. Kaye, the brilliant apologist of the East India Company, says, of Lord Cornwallis, that 'he gathered up the scattered fragments of government which he found, and reduced them to one comprehensive system.' He organized the administration of criminal justice, reorganized the police. He separated the collection of the revenues from the administration of justice, organizing civil justice in turn. . . . He next proceeded to organize the financial system of the Company's government. . . . Hence the famous 'Permanent Settlement' of Lord Cornwallis (22nd March, 1793)."—J. M. Ludlow, *British India*, v. 1, lect. 9.—"In 1793 the so-called Permanent Settlement of the Land Revenue was introduced. We found in Bengal, when we succeeded to the Government, a class of middle-men, called Zemindars [Zamindars—see also TALUKDARS], who collected the land revenue and the

taxes, and we continued to employ them. As a matter of convenience and expediency, but not of right, the office of zemindar was often hereditary. The zemindars had never been in any sense the owners of the land, but it was supposed by Lord Cornwallis and the English rulers of the time that it would be an excellent thing for Bengal to have a class of landlords something like those of England; the zemindars were the only people that seemed available for the purpose, and they were declared to be the proprietors of the land. It was by no means intended that injustice should thus be done to others. Excepting the State, there was only one great class, that of the ryots or actual cultivators, which, according to immemorial custom, could be held to possess permanent rights in the land. The existence of those rights was recognised, and, as it was supposed, guarded by the law. . . . There has been much dispute as to the exact nature of the rights given to the zemindars, but every one agrees that it was not the intention of the authors of the Permanent Settlement to confiscate anything which, according to the customs of the country, had belonged to the cultivators. The right of property given to the zemindars was a portion of those rights which had always been exercised by the State, and of which the State was at liberty to dispose; it was not intended that they should receive anything else. The land revenue, representing the share of the produce or rental to which the State was entitled, was fixed in perpetuity. The ryots were to continue to hold their lands permanently at the 'rates established in the purgannah'; when the amount of these rates was disputed it was to be settled by the courts; so long as rents at those rates were paid, the ryot could not be evicted. The intention was to secure to the ryot fixity of tenure and fixity of rent. Unfortunately, these rights were only secured upon paper. . . . The consequences at the present time are these:—Even if it be assumed that the share of the rent which the State can wisely take is smaller than the share which any Government, Native or English, has ever taken or proposed to take in India, the amount now received by the State from the land in Bengal must be held to fall short of what it might be by a sum that can hardly be less than 5,000,000. a year; this is a moderate computation; probably the loss is much more. This is given away in return for no service to the State or to the public; the zemindars are merely the receivers of rent; with exceptions so rare as to deserve no consideration, they take no part in the improvement of the land, and, until a very few years ago, they bore virtually no share of the public burdens. The result of these proceedings of the last century, to the maintenance of which for ever the faith of the British Government is said to have been pledged, is that the poorer classes in poorer provinces have to make good to the State the millions which have been thrown away in Bengal. If this were all, it would be bad enough, but worse remains to be told. . . . 'The original intention of the framers of the Permanent Settlement (I am quoting from Sir George Campbell) was to record all rights. The Canoongoes (District Registrars) and Putwarees (Village Accountants) were to register all holdings, all transfers, all rent-rolls, and all receipts and payments; and every five years there was to be filed in the public offices a complete register of all land tenures. But the task was a difficult one; there was delay in carrying it out. . . . The Putwarees fell into disuse or became the mere servants of the zemindars;

the Canoongoes were abolished. No record of the rights of the ryots and inferior holders was ever made, and even the quinquennial register of superior rights, which was maintained for a time, fell into disuse.' . . . The consequences of the Permanent Settlement did not become immediately prominent. . . . But, as time went on, and population and wealth increased, as cultivators were more readily found, and custom began to give way to competition, the position of the ryots became worse and that of the zemindars became stronger. Other circumstances helped the process of confiscation of the rights of the peasantry. . . . The confiscation of the rights of the ryots has reached vast proportions. In 1793 the rental left to the zemindars under the Permanent Settlement, after payment of the land revenue, is supposed not to have exceeded 400,000.; according to some estimates it was less. If the intentions of the Government had been carried out, it was to the ryots that the greater portion of any future increase in the annual value of the land would have belonged, in those parts at least of the province which were at that time well cultivated. It is not possible to state with confidence the present gross annual rental of the landlords of Bengal. An imperfect valuation made some years ago showed it to be 13,000,000. It is now called 17,000,000., but there can be little doubt that it is much more. Thus, after deducting the land revenue, which is about 3,800,000., the net rental has risen from 400,000. in the last century to more than 13,000,000. at the present time. No portion of this increase has been due to the action of the zemindars. It has been due to the industry of the ryots, to whom the greater part of it rightfully belonged, to the peaceful progress of the country, and to the expenditure of the State, an expenditure mainly defrayed from the taxation of poorer provinces. If ever there was an 'unearned increment,' it is this."—J. Strachey, *India, lect. 12.*

ALSO IN: J. W. Kaye, *Administration of the East India Company, pt. 2, ch. 2.*—J. Mill, *History of British India, v. 5, bk. 6, ch. 4.*—W. S. Seton-Karr, *Marquess Cornwallis, ch. 2.*—R. Temple, *James Thomason, ch. 9.*—V. Chirol, *Indian unrest.*—J. Strachey, *India, its administration and progress.*

1785-1795.—Impeachment and trial of Warren Hastings.—"On his return to England [in 1785], Warren Hastings was impeached by the House of Commons for the [Rohilla War, fines imposed on Chait Singh, and the Begum of Oudh] and other alleged acts of oppression. He was solemnly tried by the House of Lords, and the proceedings dragged themselves out for seven years from the date when Edmund Burke made his great opening speech (1788-1795). They form one of the most celebrated State trials in English history, and ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. Meanwhile the cost of the defence had ruined Warren Hastings, and left him dependent upon the generosity of the Court of Directors,—a generosity which never failed."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples, p. 190.*—"The trial had several beneficial results. It cleared off a cloud of misconceptions, calumnies, exaggerations, and false notions generally on both sides; it fixed and promulgated the standard which the English people would in future insist upon maintaining in their Indian administration; it bound down the East India Company to better behaviour; it served as an example and a salutary warning, and it relieved the national conscience. But the attempt to make Hastings a sacrifice and a burnt-offering for the sins of the people; the

process of loading him with curses and driving him away into the wilderness; of stoning him with every epithet and metaphor that the English language could supply for heaping ignominy on his head; of keeping him seven years under an impeachment that menaced him with ruin and infamy—these were blots upon the prosecution and wide aberrations from the true course of justice which disfigured the aspect of the trial, distorted its aim, and had much to do with bringing it to the lame and impotent conclusion that Burke so bitterly denounced.”—A. Lyall, *Warren Hastings*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: *E. Burke, Works* (E. A. Bond, ed.), v. 8-12.—Lord Macaulay, *Warren Hastings* (*Essays*).—*Speeches of managers and counsel in the trial of Warren Hastings*.

1798-1805.—Administration of Marquis Wellesley.—First formulation of an imperial policy in India.—Steps in making British power supreme among native rulers.—Treaty with the nizam.—Overthrow and death of Tippu, sultan of Mysore.—War with the Mahrattas.—Assaye and Laswari.—Territorial acquisitions.—“The period of Sir John Shore's rule as Governor-General, from 1793 [when he succeeded Cornwallis] to 1798 [after which he became Lord Teignmouth], was uneventful. In 1798, Lord Mornington, better known as the Marquis of Wellesley, arrived in India, already inspired with imperial projects which were destined to change the map of the country. Mornington was the friend and favourite of Pitt, from whom he is thought to have derived his far-reaching political vision, and his antipathy to the French name. From the first he laid down as his guiding principle, that the English must be the one paramount power in the peninsula, and that Native princes could only retain the insignia of sovereignty by surrendering their political independence. The history of India since his time has been but the gradual development of this policy, which received its finishing touch when Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India on the 1st of January, 1877. To frustrate the possibility of a French invasion of India, led by Napoleon in person, was the governing idea of Wellesley's foreign policy. France at this time, and for many years later, filled the place afterwards occupied by Russia in the minds of Indian statesmen. Nor was the danger so remote as might now be thought. French regiments guarded and overawed the Nizam of Haidarabad. The soldiers of Sindhia, the military head of the Marhatta Confederacy, were disciplined and led by French adventurers. Tipu Sultan of Mysore carried on a secret correspondence with the French Directorate, allowed a tree of liberty to be planted in his dominions, and enrolled himself in a republican club as ‘Citizen Tipu.’ The islands of Mauritius and Bourbon afforded a convenient half-way rendezvous for French intrigue and for the assembling of a hostile expedition. Above all, Napoleon Buonaparte was then in Egypt, dreaming of the conquests of Alexander, and no man knew in what direction he might turn his hitherto unconquered legions. Wellesley conceived the scheme of crushing for ever the French hopes in Asia, by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. In Lower Bengal, the sword of Clive and the policy of Warren Hastings had made the English paramount. Before the end of the century [British] power was consolidated from the seaboard to Benares, high up the Gangetic valley. . . . In 1801, the treaty of Lucknow made over to the British the Doab, or fertile tract between the

Ganges and the Jumna, together with Rohilkhand. In Southern India, . . . [the British] possessions were chiefly confined, before Lord Wellesley, to the coast Districts of Madras and Bombay. Wellesley resolved to make the British supreme as far as Delhi in Northern India, and to compel the great powers of the south to enter into subordinate relations to the Company's government. The intrigues of the Native princes gave him his opportunity for carrying out this plan without breach of faith. The time had arrived when the English must either become supreme in India, or be driven out of it. The Mughal Empire was completely broken up; and the sway had to pass either to the local Muhammadan governors of that empire, or to the Hindu Confederacy represented by the Marhattas, or to the British. Lord Wellesley determined that it should pass to the British. His work in Northern India was at first easy. The treaty of Lucknow in 1801 made . . . [the British] territorial rulers as far as the heart of the present North-Western Provinces, and established [their] . . . political influence in Oudh. Beyond those limits, the northern branches of the Marhattas practically held sway, with the puppet emperor in their hands. Lord Wellesley left them untouched for a few years, until the second Marhatta war (1802-1804) gave him an opportunity for dealing effectively with their nation as a whole. In Southern India, he saw that the Nizam at Haidarabad stood in need of his protection, and he converted him into a useful follower throughout the succeeding struggle. The other Muhammadan power of the south, Tipu Sultan of Mysore, could not be so easily handled. Lord Wellesley resolved to crush him, and had ample provocation for so doing. The third power of Southern India—namely, the Marhatta Confederacy—was so loosely organized, that Lord Wellesley seems at first to have hoped to live on terms with it. When several years of fitful alliance had convinced him that he had to choose between the supremacy of the Marhattas or of the British in Southern India, he did not hesitate to decide. Lord Wellesley first addressed himself to the weakest of the three southern powers, the Nizam of Haidarabad. Here he won a diplomatic success, which turned a possible rival into a subservient ally. The French battalions at Haidarabad were disbanded, and the Nizam bound himself by treaty not to take any European into his service without the consent of the English Government,—a clause since inserted in every engagement entered into with Native powers. Wellesley next turned the whole weight of his resources against Tipu, whom Cornwallis had defeated, but not subdued. Tipu's intrigues with the French were laid bare, and he was given an opportunity of adhering to the new subsidiary system. On his refusal, war was declared, and Wellesley came down in viceregal state to Madras to organize the expedition in person, and to watch over the course of events. One English army marched into Mysore from Madras, accompanied by a contingent from the Nizam. Another advanced from the western coast. Tipu, after a feeble resistance in the field retired into Seringapatam, and, when his capital was stormed, died fighting bravely in the breach (1799). Since the battle of Plassey, no event so greatly impressed the Native imagination as the capture of Seringapatam, which won for General Harris a peerage, and for Wellesley an Irish marquissate. In dealing with the territories of Tipu, Wellesley acted with moderation. The central portion, forming the old state of Mysore, was restored to an infant representative of the Hindu Rajas,

whom Haidar Ali had dethroned; the rest of Tipu's dominion was partitioned between the Nizam, the Marhattas, and the English. At about the same time, the Karnatic, or the part of South-Eastern India ruled by the Nawab of Arcot, and also the principality of Tanjore, were placed under direct British administration, thus constituting the Madras Presidency almost as it has existed to the present day. . . . The Marhattas had been the nominal allies of the English in both their wars with Tipu. But they had not rendered active assistance, nor were they secured to the English side as the Nizam now was. The Marhatta powers at this time were five in number. The recognised head of the confederacy was the Peshwa of Poona, who ruled the hill country of the Western Ghats, the cradle of the Marhatta race. The fertile Province of Guzerat was annually harried by the horsemen of the Gaekwar of Baroda. In Central India, two military leaders, Sindhia of Gwalior and Holkar of Indore, alternately held the pre-eminence. Towards the east, the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur reigned from Berar to the coast of Orissa. Wellesley laboured to bring these several Marhatta powers within the net of his subsidiary system. In 1802, the necessities of the Peshwa, who had been defeated by Holkar, and driven as a fugitive into British territory, induced him to sign the treaty of Bassein. By this he pledged himself to the British to hold communications with no other power, European or Native, and granted . . . districts for the maintenance of a subsidiary force. This greatly extended the English territorial influence in the Bombay Presidency. But it led to the second Marhatta war, as neither Sindhia nor the Raja of Nagpur would tolerate the Peshwa's betrayal of the Marhatta independence. The campaigns which followed are perhaps the most glorious in the history of the British arms in India. The general plan, and the adequate provision of resources, were due to the Marquis of Wellesley, as also the indomitable spirit which refused to admit of defeat. The armies were led by Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington) and General (afterwards Lord) Lake. Wellesley operated in the Deccan, where in a few short months, he won the decisive victories of Assaye [September 23, 1803] and Argaum [November 28], and captured Ahmednagar. Lake's campaign in Hindustan was equally brilliant, although it has received less notice from historians. He won pitched battles at Aligarh [August 20] and Laswari [November 1, 1803], and took the cities of Delhi and Agra. He scattered the French troops of Sindhia, and at the same time stood forward as the champion of the Mughal Emperor in his hereditary capital. Before the end of 1803, both Sindhia and the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur sued for peace. Sindhia ceded all claims to the territory north of the Jumna, and left the blind old Emperor Shah Alam once more under British protection. The Bhonsla forfeited Orissa to the English, who had already occupied it with a flying column in 1803, and Berar to the Nizam, who gained fresh territory by every act of complaisance to the British Government. . . . The concluding years of Wellesley's rule were occupied with a series of operations against Holkar, which brought little credit on the British name. The disastrous retreat of Colonel Monson through Central India (1804) recalled memories of the convention of Wargaum, and of the destruction of Colonel Baillie's force by Haidar Ali. The repulse of Lake in person at the siege of Bhartpur (Bhurlpore) is memorable as an instance of a British

army in India having to turn back with its object unaccomplished (1805). Bhartpur was not finally taken till 1827. Lord Wellesley during his six years of office carried out almost every part of his territorial scheme. In Northern India, Lord Lake's campaigns brought the North-Western provinces (the ancient Madhyadesa) under British rule, together with the custody of the puppet emperor. The new Districts were amalgamated with those previously acquired from the Nawab Wazir of Oudh into the 'Ceded and Conquered Provinces.' This partition of Northern India remained till the Sikh wars of 1844 and 1847 gave us the Punjab."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, ch. 13.

ALSO IN: W. H. Maxwell, *Life of the duke of Wellington*, v. 1, ch. 2-12.—J. M. Wilson, *Memoir of Wellington*, v. 1, ch. 2-9.—G. B. Malleson, *Decisive battles of India*, ch. 9-10.—W. H. Hutton, *Marquess Wellesley*.—J. S. Cotton, *Mountstuart Elphinstone*, ch. 4.

1805-1816.—Reversal of Lord Wellesley's imperial policy.—Sepoy revolt at Vellore.—Strengthening northwestern frontier.—Influence established with Ranji Singh and the Sikhs.—Conquest of the Mauritius.—Gurkha War.—"The retreat of Monson was not only a disastrous blow to British prestige, but ruined for a while the reputation of Lord Wellesley. Because a Mahratta freebooter had broken loose in Hindustan, the Home authorities imagined that all the Mahratta powers had risen against the imperial policy of the Governor-General. Lord Wellesley was recalled from his post, and Lord Cornwallis was sent out to take his place, to reverse the policy of his illustrious predecessor, to scuttle out of Western Hindustan, to restore all the ceded territories, to surrender all the captured fortresses, and to abandon large tracts of country to be plundered and devastated by the Mahrattas, as they had been from the days of Sivaji to those of Wellesley and Lake. Before Lord Cornwallis reached Bengal the political outlook had brightened. . . . But Lord Cornwallis was sixty-seven years of age, and had lost the nerve which he had displayed in his wars against Tippu; and he would have ignored the turn of the tide, and persisted in falling back on the old policy of conciliation and non-intervention, had not death cut short his career before he had been ten weeks in the country. Sir George Barlow, a Bengal civilian, succeeded for a while to the post of Governor-General, as a provisional arrangement. He had been a member of Council under both Wellesley and Cornwallis, and he halted between the two. He refused to restore the conquered territories to Sindia and the Bhonsla, but he gave back the Indore principality to Holkar, together with the captured fortresses. Worst of all, he annulled most of the protective treaties with the Rajput princes on the ground that they had deserted the British government during Monson's retreat from Jaswant Rao Holkar. For some years the policy of the British government was a half-hearted system of non-intervention. . . . The Mahratta princes were left to plunder and collect chout [a blackmail extortion, levied by the Mahrattas for a century] in Rajputana, and practically to make war on each other, so long as they respected the territories of the British government and its allies. . . . All this while an under-current of intrigue was at work between Indian courts, which served in the end to revive wild hopes of getting rid of British supremacy, and rekindling the old aspirations for war and rapine. In 1806 the peace of India was broken by an alarm from



a very different quarter. In those days India was so remote from the British Isles that the existence of the British government mainly depended on the loyalty of its sepoy armies. Suddenly it was discovered that the Madras army was on the brink of mutiny. The British authorities at Madras had introduced an obnoxious head-dress resembling a European hat, in the place of the old time-honoured turban, and had, moreover, forbidden the sepoys to appear on parade with earrings and caste marks. India was astounded by a revolt of the Madras sepoys at the fortress of Vellore, about eight miles to the westward of Arcot. . . . The garrison at Vellore consisted of about 400 Europeans and 1,500 sepoys. At midnight, without warning, the sepoys rose in mutiny. One body fired on the European barracks until half the soldiers were killed or wounded. Another body fired on the houses of the British officers, and shot them down as they rushed out to know the cause of the uproar. All this while provisions were distributed amongst the sepoys by the Mysore princes, and the flag of Mysore was hoisted over the fortress. Fortunately the news was carried to Arcot, where Colonel Gillespie commanded a British garrison. Gillespie at once galloped to Vellore with a troop of British dragoons and two field guns. The gates of Vellore were blown open; the soldiers rushed in; 400 mutineers were cut down, and the outbreak was over. . . . In 1807 Lord Minto succeeded Barlow as Governor-General. He broke the spell of non-intervention. . . . Lord Minto's main work was to keep Napoleon and the French out of India. The north-west frontier was still vulnerable, but the Afghans had retired from the Punjab, and the once famous Runjeet Singh had founded a Sikh kingdom between the Indus and the Sutlej. As far as the British were concerned, the Sikhs formed a barrier against the Afghans; and Runjeet Singh was apparently friendly, for he had refused to shelter Jaswant Rao Holkar in his flight from Lord Lake. But there was no knowing what Runjeet Singh might do if the French found their way to Lahore. To crown the perplexity, the Sikh princes on the British side of the river Sutlej, who had done homage to the British government during the campaigns of Lord Lake, were being conquered by Runjeet Singh, and were appealing to the British government for protection. In 1808-9 a young Bengal civilian, named Charles Metcalfe, was sent on a mission to Lahore. The work before him was difficult and complicated, and somewhat trying to the nerves. The object was to secure Runjeet Singh as a useful ally against the French and Afghans, whilst protecting the Sikh states on the British side of the Sutlej, namely, Jhind, Nabha, and Patiala. Runjeet Singh was naturally disgusted at being checked by British interference. It was unfair, he said, for the British to wait until he had conquered the three states, and then to demand possession. Metcalfe cleverly dropped the question of justice, and appealed to Runjeet Singh's self-interest. By giving up the three states, Runjeet Singh would secure an alliance with the British, a strong frontier on the Sutlej, and freedom to push his conquests on the north and west. Runjeet Singh took the hint. He withdrew his pretensions from the British side of the Sutlej, and professed a friendship which remained unbroken until his death in 1839; but he knew what he was about. He conquered Cashmere on the north, and he wrested Peshawar from the Afghans; but he refused to open his dominions to British trade, and he was jealous of the last of any attempt to enter his territories. . . . Mean-

while the war against France and Napoleon had extended to eastern waters. The island of the Mauritius had become a French depot for frigates and privateers, which swept the seas from Madagascar to Java, until the East India Company reckoned its losses by millions, and private traders were brought to the brink of ruin. Lord Minto sent one expedition [1810], which wrested the Mauritius from the French; and he conducted another expedition in person, which wrested the island of Java from the Dutch, who at that time were the allies of France. The Mauritius has remained a British possession until this day, but Java was restored to Holland at the conclusion of the war. [See also JAVA: 1795-1816; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.] . . . Meanwhile war clouds were gathering on the southern slopes of the Himalayas. Down to the middle of the 18th century, the territory of Nipal had been peopled by a peaceful and industrious race of Buddhists known as Newars, but about the year 1767, when the British had taken over the Bengal provinces, the Newars were conquered by a Rajput tribe from Cashmere, known as Ghorkas [Gurkhas]. The Ghorka conquest of Nipal was as complete as the Norman conquest of England. The Ghorkas established a military despotism with Brahmanical institutions, and parcelled out the country amongst feudal nobles known as Bharadars. . . . During the early years of the 19th century the Ghorkas began to encroach on British territory, annexing villages and revenues from Darjeeling to Simla without right or reason. They were obviously bent on extending their dominion southward to the Ganges, and for a long time aggressions were overlooked for the sake of peace. At last two districts were appropriated to which the Ghorkas had not a shadow of a claim, and it was absolutely necessary to make a stand against their pretensions. Accordingly, Lord Minto sent an ultimatum to Khatmandu, declaring that unless the districts were restored they would be recovered by force of arms. Before the answer arrived, Lord Minto was succeeded in the post of Governor-General by Lord Moira, better known by his later title of Marquis of Hastings. Lord Moira landed at Calcutta in 1813. Shortly after his arrival an answer was received from the Ghorka government, that the disputed districts belonged to Nipal, and would not be surrendered. Lord Moira at once fixed a day on which the districts were to be restored; and when the day had passed without any action being taken by the Ghorkas, a British detachment entered the districts and set up police stations. . . . The council of Bharadars resolved on war, but they did not declare it in European fashion. A Ghorka army suddenly entered the disputed districts, surrounded the police stations, and murdered many of the constables, and then returned to Khatmandu to await the action of the British government in the way of reprisals. The war against the Ghorkas was more remote and more serious than the wars against the Marhattas. . . . Those who have ascended the Himalayas to Darjeeling or Simla may realise something of the difficulties of an invasion of Nipal. The British army advanced in four divisions by four different routes. . . . General David Ochterlony, who advanced his division along the valley of the Sutlej, gained the most brilliant successes. He was one of the half-forgotten heroes of the East India Company. . . . For five months in the worst season of the year he carried one fortress after another, until the enemy made a final stand at Maloun on a shelf of the Himalayas. The Ghorkas made a desperate attack on the British

works, but the attempt failed; and when the British batteries were about to open fire, the Ghorka garrison came to terms, and were permitted to march out with the honours of war. The fall of Maloun shook the faith of the Ghorka government in their heaven-built fortresses. Commissioners were sent to conclude a peace. Nipal agreed to cede Kumaon in the west, and the southern belt of forest and jungle known as the Terai. It also agreed to receive a British Resident at Khatmandu. Lord Moira had actually signed the treaty, when the Ghorkas raised the question of whether the Terai included the forest or only the swamp. War was renewed. Ochterlony advanced an army within fifty miles of Khatmandu, and then the Ghorkas concluded the treaty [1816], and the British army withdrew from Nipal. The Terai, however, was a bone of contention for many years afterwards. Nothing was said about a subsidiary army, and to this day Nipal is outside the pale of subsidiary alliances; but Nipal is bound over not to take any European into her service without the consent of the British government."—J. T. Wheeler, *India under British rule*, ch. 3.—Gurkha volunteers soon began to enter the Company's army. Since then they have been among the most trusted of the Indian soldiers, and did notable service in the World War.

ALSO IN: J. D. Cunningham, *History of the Sikhs*, ch. 5-6.—E. Thornton, *History of British empire in India*, v. 4, ch. 21-24.

1813-1835.—Development of education.—Before 1813 "only a few spasmodic efforts had been made to provide facilities for the education of the people. The Calcutta Madrasa had been started in 1781 for the teaching of Muhammadans, and in 1792 the Sanskrit College at Benares had been founded by Jonathan Duncan. The chief object of these institutions was to train up a number of Indians sufficiently versed in Hindu and Muhammadan law to satisfy the requirements of the judicial administration; and therefore the courses of study were strictly Oriental. At the beginning of the nineteenth century a few of the rulers began to realise the duty of educating the people entrusted to their care. . . . [In 1813] when the Company's charter was renewed, a lakh of rupees (£10,000) was set apart 'for the revival and promotion of literature, and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories.' But it was not until 1823 that the Governor-General in Council resolved that 'there should be constituted a general committee of public instruction for the purpose of ascertaining the state of public education. . . . As a result of this resolution committees were formed in the large centres of population, whose policy apparently was to publish Sanskrit and Arabic books rather than to encourage and supervise the establishment of schools and colleges. . . . Certain events then occurred which rendered necessary a reconsideration of its educational policy by the British Government in India. In the first place, Christian missionaries had settled in some numbers in the Madras Presidency and, to a lesser extent, in Bengal and elsewhere. These men introduced into the country a study of the English language and of Western learning. Perhaps the most remarkable of these was Alexander Duff . . . [who] in no way neglected the vernaculars, . . . for no boy in his school was allowed to begin English until he could read with ease his own vernacular. Success was immediate; and by his experiment Duff proved both the possibility and the wisdom of using the English lan-

guage as a medium of instruction."—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Development of Indian policy*, v. 2, pp. 103, 104.

1815-1922.—Religious and moral development.—Hindu reform societies.—Effect on nationalism.—The modern theistic movement, which may be described as an attempt to reform Hinduism from within, was begun in 1815 by Ram Mohun Roy, who also supported the beginning of modern education in India. He was a Bengal Brahmin, who studied Greek and Hebrew, in order that he might compare the Christian religion with Hinduism. In 1815 he founded the Brahmo Somaj, and in 1819 wrote a tract on the "Precepts of Jesus the Guide to Peace and Happiness." He devoted himself to the movement, and even crossed the sea to England in protest against the Brahmanical prohibition against "crossing the dark water." Since that time the fear of sea voyages has disappeared, and many high caste Hindus travel every year to Europe and America. Ram Mohun Roy died in England in 1833, and after his death the reform movement almost fell into desuetude. In 1843, however, another society sprang up under the guidance of Debendra Nath Tagore, and with this society the Brahmo Somaj united. Reorganization was effected by Chesub Chunder Sen, who was looked upon as so holy a man by his followers that after his death a section of the society elevated him into a Mahatma. The other section followed Protap Chunder Mozumdar, who raised the trend of thought current in the society to a very high standard. While the membership of the Brahmo Somaj is small, not greatly exceeding 5,000, its influence is very great. It is sympathetic to western thought and to Christianity, and seeks to modify caste prejudice and drive out the grosser forms of superstition. Opposed to the western trend of thought, which is so apparent in the ideals of the Brahmo Somaj, the Arya Somaj, which was founded in 1875 by Doyanand Saraswati, is also devoted to the reform of Hinduism. It seeks to overthrow the caste system, is opposed to child marriage, to the rule which prohibits the re-marriage of widows, and is much in favor of general education, including the education of women. It also opposes the pantheism of Hinduism, and upholds the doctrine of theism, which it declares is found in its purity in the Vedas, and needs no borrowing from the Christian faith. Nevertheless, the Arya Somaj, like the Brahmo Somaj has been profoundly affected by Christian principles, which are very gradually, but none the less surely spreading their influence over every shade of Indian thought. Theosophy, a form of philosophy which was founded in 1875, in the United States by Madame H. P. Blavatsky, a Russian, and Colonel Olcott, an American, was transferred to India in 1879 and has gained a great hold there. It is of great importance in the history of the last few years because of the influence exerted by Annie Besant, an Englishwoman who succeeded Colonel Olcott in the leadership of the society, and who started the cry of Home Rule, or India for the Indians. The theosophic society, like the Arya Somaj owes much of its expansion to the stress which it lays on the early history and literature of Hindustan. Both societies are greatly in favor with the nationalist party, especially with the wing known as the Extremes, who belong to either in large numbers. The theosophic society professes psychism very strongly. Politically, all three societies are important out of all proportion to their numbers, especially the Arya Somaj and in a measure the Theosophic Society, because of the food which they provide

for national aspirations, and national pride in the achievements of a long past age.

1816-1819.—Alliances with native princes.—Suppression of the Pindaris.—Overthrow of Mahrattas.—Last of the Peshwas.—“For some time past the Pindaris, a vast brotherhood of mounted freebooters, who were ready to fight under any standard for the chance of unbounded plunder, had been playing a more and more prominent part in the wars of native princes. As Free Lances, they had fought for the Peshwa at Panipat, had shared in the frequent struggles of the Sindhias and Holkars in Hindustan and Southern India, and made war on their own account with every native prince whose weakness at any moment seemed to invite attack. . . . From the hills and glens of Central India thousands of armed ruffians sallied forth year after year in quest of plunder, sparing no cruelty to gain their ends, and widening the circle of their ravages with each new raid, until in 1811 the smoke of their camp-fires could be seen from Gaya and Mirzapur. . . . To thwart Maratha intrigues and punish Pindari aggressions was the Governor-General's next aim. In spite of hindrances offered by his own council and the Court of Directors, he set himself to revive and extend Lord Wellesley's policy of securing peace and order throughout India by means of treaties, which placed one native prince after another in a kind of vassalage to the paramount power that ruled from Fort William. . . . By means of a little timely compulsion, the able and accomplished Elphinstone baffled for a while the plots which the Peshwa, Baji Rao, and his villainous accomplice, Trimbakji Danglia, had woven against their English allies. The treaty of June, 1817, left Lord Hastings master of Sagar and Bundalkhand, while it hound the Peshwa to renounce his friend Trimbakji, his own claims to the headship of the Maratha League, to make no treaties with any other native prince, and to accept in all things the counsel and control of the Company's Government. Hard as these terms may seem, there was no choice, averred Lord Hastings, between thus crippling a secret foe and depriving him of the crown he had fairly forfeited. Meanwhile Lord Hastings' fearless energy had already saved the Rajputs of Jaipur from further suffering at the hands of their Pathan oppressor, Amir Khan, and forced from Sindia himself a reluctant promise to aid in suppressing the Pindari hordes, whose fearful ravages had at length been felt by the peaceful villagers in the Northern Sarkars [and who destroyed what they could not carry away]. In the autumn of 1817 Hastings took the field at the head of an army which, counting native contingents, mustered nearly 120,000 strong, with some 300 guns. From east, west, north, and south, a dozen columns set forth to hunt down the merciless ruffians who had so long been allowed to harry the fairest provinces of India. In spite of the havoc wrought among . . . [the] troops by the great cholera outbreak of that year, and of a sudden rising among the Maratha princes for one last struggle with their former conquerors, . . . [British] arms were everywhere successful against Marathas and Pindaris alike. The latter, hunted into the hills and jungles of Central India, found no safety anywhere except in small bodies and constant flight . . . and the famous robber-league passed into a tale of yore. Not less swift and sure was the punishment dealt upon the Maratha leaders who joined the Peshwa in his sudden uprising against the British power. His late submission had been nothing but a mask for renewed plottings. Elphinstone, however, saw through the

mask which had taken in the confiding Malcolm. Before the end of October an English regiment, summoned in hot haste from Bombay, pitched its camp at Kirki, about two miles from Puna, beside the small Sepoy brigade already quartered there. In the first days of November Baji Rao began to assume a bolder tone as his plans grew ripe for instant execution. On the 5th, a body of Marathas attacked and destroyed the Residency, which Elphinstone had quitted in the nick of time. A great Maratha army then marched forth to overwhelm the little garrison at Kirki, before fresh troops could come up to its aid from Sirur. Elphinstone, however, who knew his foe, had no idea of awaiting the attack. Colonel Burr at once led out his men, not 3,000 all told. A brilliant charge of Maratha horse was heavily repulsed by a Sepoy regiment, and the English steadily advancing drove the enemy from the field. A few days later General Smith, at the head of a larger force, advanced on Puna, occupied the city, and pursued the frightened Peshwa from place to place. The heroic defence of Karigaum, a small village on the Bhima, by Captain Staunton and 800 Sepoys, with only two light guns, against 25,000 Marathas during a whole day, proved once more how nobly native troops could fight under English leading. Happily for Staunton's weary and diminished band, Smith came up the next morning, and the desponding Peshwa continued his retreat. Turn where he would, there was no rest for his jaded soldiers. Munro with a weak force, partly of his own raising, headed him on his way to the Carnatic, took several of his strong places, and drove him northwards within reach of General Smith. On the 10th February, 1818, that officer overtook and routed the flying foe at the village of Ashti. Babu Gokla, the Peshwa's staunchest and ablest follower, perished in the field, while covering the retreat of his cowardly master. For some weeks longer Baji Rao fled hither and thither before his resolute pursuers. But at length all hope forsook him as the circle of escape grew daily narrower; and in the middle of May the great-grandson of Balaji Vishwanath yielded himself to Sir John Malcolm at Indor, on terms far more liberal than he had any reason to expect. Even for the faithful few who still shared his fortunes due provision was made at his request. He himself spent the rest of his days a princely pensioner at Bithur, near Cawnpore; but the sceptre which he and his sires had wielded for a hundred years passed into English hands, while the Rajah of Satara, the long-neglected heir of the house of Sivaji, was restored to the nominal headship of the Maratha power. Meanwhile Appa Sahib, the usurping Rajah of Berar, had no sooner heard of the outbreak at Puna, than he, too, like the Peshwa, threw off his mask. On the evening of the 24th November, 1817, his troops, to the number of 18,000, suddenly attacked the weak English and Sepoy force of 1,400 men with four guns, posted on the Sitabaldi Hills, outside Nagpur. A terrible fight for eighteen hours ended in the repulse of the assailants, with a loss to the victors of more than 300 men and twelve officers. A few weeks later Nagpur itself was occupied after another fight. Even then the Rajah might have kept his throne, for his conquerors were merciful and hoped for the best. But they hoped in vain. It was not long before Appa Sahib, caught out in fresh intrigues, was sent off a prisoner towards Allahabad. Escaping from his captors, he wandered about the country for several years, and died at Lahor a pensioner on the bounty of Ranjit Singh. The house of Holkar had also paid the penalty of its rash resistance to

our arms. . . . On the 6th January, 1818, the young Holkar was glad to sign a treaty which placed him and his heirs under English protection at the cost of his independence and of some part of his realm. Luckily for himself, Sindia had remained quiet, if not quite loyal, throughout this last struggle between the English and his Maratha kinsfolk. Thus in one short and decisive campaign, the great Maratha power, which had survived the slaughter of Panipat, fell shattered to pieces by the same blow which crushed the Pindaris, and raised an English merchant-company to the paramount lordship of all India. The last of the Peshwas had ceased to reign, the Rajah of Berar was a discredited fugitive, the Rajah of Satara a king only in name, while Sindia, Holkar, and the Nizam were dependent princes who reigned only by sufferance of an English Governor-General at Calcutta. The Moghal Empire lingered only in the Palace of Delhi; its former viceroy, the Nawab of Audh, was our obedient vassal; the haughty princes of Rajputana bowed their necks, more or less cheerfully, to the yoke of masters merciful as Akbar and mightier than Aurangzib. Ranjit Singh himself cultivated the goodwill of those powerful neighbours who had sheltered the Sikhs of Sirhind from his ambitious inroads. With the final overthrow of the Marathas a new reign of peace, order, and general progress began for peoples who, during a hundred and fifty years, had lived in a ceaseless whirl of anarchy and armed strife. With the capture of Asirgarh in April, 1810, the fighting in Southern India came to an end."—L. J. Trotter, *History of India*, bk. 5, ch. 2-3.

ALSO IN: W. M. Torrens, *Empire in Asia: How we came by it*, ch. 19-20.—J. G. Duff, *History of the Marhattas*, v. 3, ch. 17-20.—Major Ross-of-Bladensburg, *Marquess of Hastings*, ch. 4-7.

1818-1845.—Development of British policy.—"It was not until the long struggle between the Mahratta and the British powers came to an end in 1818 that there was any real opportunity of evolving an Indian policy. Hitherto, the British in India had been employed for the most part in defending their territory against attacks from outside and in establishing the rule of law and order without which progress of any kind was impossible. But, after the battle of Kirkee, a long period of peace ensued such as had not been known in India for centuries, and which was not seriously interrupted until the outbreak of the first Sikh war in 1845. . . . It was during this period that the British rulers in India applied themselves to the formulation of an Indian policy, which was remarkable not only for its insight but also as being the work of a number of men who combined the gifts of statecraft and scholarship. . . . It happened that there were also in England statesmen who were anxious to bring forward measures of reform which had long been delayed by years of warfare. The similarity between the history of the two countries has been emphasised by Mr. Romesh Chander Dutt in the following words: . . . 'Never was there any period when Europe and India made more real progress within the lifetime of one generation than during the twenty years which succeeded the Napoleonic wars and the last Mahratta wars. Castlereagh . . . was succeeded as leader in the House of Commons by the noble-minded Canning, . . . [whose appointment] . . . marks a turning-point in English history, and is the first official recognition of that Liberalism which was growing in England. . . . The same spirit of reform, and the same desire to promote the happiness of the people, marked the policy of England and of India during this progressive

age. . . . To try to read Indian history apart from English history would be an endeavour to understand a result without knowing the cause. The same moving force determined events in both countries; the extension of privileges to the people of India during this period is the counterpart of the Reform Act in England; and Munro, Elphinstone, and Bentinck were inspired by the same reforming spirit as Canning, Grey, and Lord John Russell. It was during this period of peace that British rulers applied themselves to the arduous task of beneficent government and to the formation of what may be called an Indian policy. The great figures of that age were men such as Bentinck and Munro, Mountstuart Elphinstone and Metcalfe, who . . . discarded at once all ideas of denationalising India by the imposition of Western conceptions of religion and social polity. Even in the maintenance of law and order and in the general administration of the country they proceeded slowly and cautiously. They refrained as far as possible from abrupt innovations, but sought rather to establish a system which departed little from Indian traditions and under which the Indians would be able to develop in accordance with their past history and to maintain their own customs and religious beliefs. The path which they determined to tread was perilous indeed. There was the danger, on the one hand, of internal discontent and, on the other, of censure by the Court of Directors in London or by the English inhabitants of Calcutta. The British rulers of those days, however, rose above the difficulties which surrounded them and reached a very high level of statesmanship. They maintained peace; they established a workable system of orderly government; they cared for the material needs of the country; but at the same time they kept almost intact the old social and religious organisation of the people. On the other hand, they were quite prepared to eradicate customs which were manifestly evil and inhuman. When the happiness of the people was at stake, they did not shrink from bold measures. . . . Patience and forbearance on the one hand and courage and determination on the other were the leading characteristics of their policy. M. Chailley, an astute critic of British rule in India, has explained the nature of that policy as it appeared to him. . . . 'The Government [he said] must have the will and the power to free itself from European prejudices, and to repudiate, if found to be mistaken, administrative and political doctrines which it has hitherto accepted. It must discard commonplace solutions, and must be prepared to abandon what seems to be a straight road in favour of untried paths . . . to abandon the habit of continual intervention; to wait, it may be for long, until it can intervene expeditiously. It must keep silent while men act and events occur, must remain apparently inactive, and must let itself be suspected and attacked. . . . It must know that a law is faulty, and yet resist the temptation to alter it; it must bear for a time with untrustworthy or incapable officials. And yet it must not allow non-intervention to become a fixed rule; it must seize the fitting opportunity for inaugurating desirable changes. It will realise that the subject peoples are firmly attached to their old customs and institutions; that they find our civilisation cold and repellent, and that they must be led to it very gradually, gently, and patiently by evolution from their own traditions. Their eyes cannot be opened forcibly; they must be persuaded to see for themselves. I do not say that the English have been the first or the only people to see the necessity for a native policy of this

description; nor, again, that they have made no mistakes in treading this perilous ground—their history abounds with such. But they have practised as well as theorised; they have carried out a definite native policy, as I understand the term, at intervals for over a century, and continuously during the last fifty years.”—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Development of an Indian policy*, v. 2, pp. 1-5, 9.

1822.—William Carey and the Calcutta Christian Juvenile Society. See *Y. M. C. A.*: 1625-1844.

1823-1833.—First Burmese War.—English acquisition of Assam and Arakan.—Beginning of British control of Burma.—Abolition of *Suttee* and *Thuggee*.—Abolition of trade monopoly of East India Company.—Changes in administration.—“On Hastings’ retirement, in 1823, the choice of the authorities fell upon Lord Amherst. The new Governor-General reached India at a time when the authorities in London had a right to expect a long period of peace. In fact, both in Hindostan and in the Deccan, the victories of Hastings had left the Company no more enemies to conquer. Unfortunately, however, for the prospects of peace, nature, which had given India an impenetrable boundary on the north, had left her with an undefined and open frontier on the east. On the shores of the Bay of Bengal, opposite Calcutta, a struggle had raged during the eighteenth century between the inhabitants of Ava and Pegu. The former, known as Burmans or Burmese, had the good fortune to find a capable leader, who rapidly ensured their own victory and founded a Burmese Empire. The successful competitors were not satisfied with their own predominance in Pegu—they conquered Aracan, they overran Asam, and they wrested from Siam a considerable territory on the Tenasserim coast. The conquest of Aracan brought the Burmese to the confines of the Company’s dominions in Chittagong. The conquered people disliking the severe rule of the conquerors, crossed the frontier and settled in British territory. Many of them used their new home as a secure basis for hostile raids on the Burmese. . . . The river Naf ran for a portion of its course between the possessions of the British in Chittagong and those of the Burmese in Aracan. With the object of preventing the repetition of outrages, which had occurred on the river, a small British guard was stationed on a little island, called Shaporee, near its mouth. The Burmese, claiming the island as their own, attacked the guard and drove it from the post. It was impossible to ignore such a challenge. The island was reoccupied; but the Governor-General, still anxious for peace, offered to treat its occupation by the Burmese as an action unauthorised by the Burmese Government. The Burmese Court, however, instead of accepting this offer sent an army to reoccupy the island; collisions almost simultaneously occurred between the British and the Burmese on other parts of the frontier, and in February 1824 the first Burmese war began. . . . If the war of 1824 may be excused as inevitable, its conduct must be condemned as careless. No pains were taken to ascertain the nature of the country which it was requisite to invade, or the strength of the enemy whom it was decided to encounter. . . . Burma is watered by two great rivers, the Irawaddy and the Salwen. . . . In its upper waters the Irawaddy is a rapid stream; in its lower waters it flows through alluvial plains, and finds its way through a delta with nine mouths into the Bay of Bengal. On one of its western mouths is the town of Bassein, on one of its east-

ern mouths the great commercial port of Rangoon. The banks of the river are clothed with jungle and with forest; and malaria, the curse of all low-lying tropical lands, always lingers in the marshes. The authorities decided on invading Burma through the Rangoon branch of the river. They gave Sir Archibald Campbell, an officer who had won distinction in the Peninsula, the command of the expedition, and as a preliminary measure, they determined to seize Rangoon. Its capture was accomplished with ease, and the Burmese retired from the town. But the victory was the precursor of difficulty. The troops dared not advance in an unhealthy season; the supplies which they had brought with them proved insufficient for their support; and the men perished by scores during their period of forced inaction. . . . When more favourable weather returned with the autumn, Campbell was again able to advance. Burma was then attacked from three separate bases. A force under Colonel Richards, moving along the valley of the Bramaputra, conquered Assam; an expedition under General Morrison, marching from Chittagong, occupied Aracan; while Campbell himself, dividing his army into two divisions, one moving by water, the other by land, passed up the Irawaddy and captured Donabue and Prome. The climate improved as the troops ascended the river, and the hot weather of 1825 proved less injurious than the summer of 1824. . . . The operations in 1825-6 drove home the lesson which the campaign of 1824-5 had already taught. The Burmese realised their impotence to resist, and consented to accept the terms which the British were still ready to offer them. Assam, Aracan, and the Tenasserim Coast were ceded to the Company; the King of Burma consented to receive a Resident at his capital, and to pay a very large sum of money—1,000,000l.—towards the expenses of the war. . . . The increasing credit which the Company thus acquired did not add to the reputation of the Governor-General. . . . The Company complained of the vast additions which his rule had made to expenditure, and they doubted the expediency of acquiring new and unnecessary territory beyond the confines of India itself. The ministry thought that these acquisitions were opposed to the policy which Parliament had laid down, and to the true interests of the empire. It decided on his recall. . . . William Bentinck, whom Canning selected as Amherst’s successor, was no stranger to Indian soil. More than twenty years before he had served as Governor of Madras. . . . Bentinck arrived in Calcutta in difficult times. Amherst’s war had saddled the Government with a debt, and his successor with a deficit. . . . Retrenchment in the opinion of every one qualified to judge, was absolutely indispensable, and Bentinck, as a matter of fact, brought out specific instructions to retrench. . . . In two other matters . . . Bentinck effected a change which deserves to be recollected with gratitude. He had the courage to abolish flogging in the native Indian army; he had the still higher courage to abolish *suttee*. . . . In Bengal the *suttee*, or ‘the pure and virtuous woman,’ who became a widow, was required to show her devotion to her husband by sacrificing herself on his funeral pile. . . . Successive Governors-General, whose attention had been directed to this barbarous practice, had feared to incur the unpopularity of abolishing it. . . . Cornwallis and Wellesley, Hastings and Amherst, were all afraid to prohibit murder which was identified with religion, and it was accordingly reserved to Bentinck to remove the reproach of its existence. With the consent of his Council, *suttee* was declared illegal. The

danger which others had apprehended from its prohibition proved a mere phantom. The Hindoos complied with the order without attempting to resist it, and the horrible rite which had disgraced the soil of India for centuries became entirely unknown. For these humane regulations Bentinck deserves to be remembered with gratitude. Yet it should not be forgotten that these reforms were as much the work of his age as of himself. . . . One other great abuse was terminated under Bentinck. In Central India life was made unsafe and travelling dangerous by the establishment of a secret band of robbers known as Thugs. The Thugs mingled with any travellers whom they met, disarmed them by their conversation and courtesy, and availed themselves of the first convenient spot in their journey to strangle them with a rope and to rob them of their money. The burial of the victim usually concealed all traces of the crime; the secrecy of the confederates made its revelation unlikely; and, to make treachery more improbable, the Thugs usually consecrated their murders with religious rites, and claimed their god as the patron of their misdoings. Bentinck selected an active officer, Major Sleeman, whom he charged to put down Thuggee. Sleeman's exertions were rewarded by a gratifying success. The Thugs, like all secret societies, were assailable in one way. The first discovery of crime always produces an approver. The timid conspirator, conscious of his guilt, is glad to purchase his own safety by sacrificing his associates, and when one man turns traitor every member of the band is anxious to secure the rewards and immunity of treachery. Hence the first clue towards the practices of the Thugs led to the unveiling of the whole organisation; and the same statesman, who had the merit of forbidding suttee, succeeded in extirpating Thuggee from the dominions over which he ruled. Social reforms of this character occupy the greater portion of the history of Bentinck's government. In politics he almost always pursued a policy of non-intervention. The British during his rule made few additions to their possessions; they rarely interfered in the affairs of Native states. . . .

"The privileges which the East India Company enjoyed had from time to time been renewed by the British Parliament. The charter of the Company had been extended for a period of twenty years in 1773, in 1793, and in 1813. But the conditions on which it was continued in 1813 were very different from those on which it had been originally granted. Instead of maintaining its exclusive right of trade, Parliament decided on throwing open the trade with India to all British subjects. It left the Company a monopoly of the China trade alone. The Act of 1813 of course excited the strenuous opposition of the Company. The highest authorities were brought forward to prove that the trade with India would not be increased by a termination of the monopoly. Their views, however, were proved false by the result, and the stern logic of facts consequently pointed in 1833 to the further extension of the policy of 1813."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 5, ch. 25.—"The Charter Act of 1833 like that of 1813, was preceded by careful inquiries into the administration of India. It introduced important changes into the constitution of the East India Company and the system of Indian administration. The territorial possessions of the Company were allowed to remain under their government for another term of twenty years; but were to be held by the Company 'in trust for His Majesty, his heirs and successors, for the service of the Government of India.' The Company's

monopoly of the China trade and the tea trade was finally taken away. The Company was required to close up their commercial business and to wind up their affairs with all convenient speed. Their territorial and other debts were charged on the revenues of India, and they were to receive out of those revenues an annual dividend at the rate of £10, 10s. per cent on the whole amount of their capital stock (i.e., £630,000 a year), but this dividend was to be subject to redemption by Parliament on payment of £200 sterling for every £100 stock, and for the purpose of this redemption a sum of £2,000,000 was to be paid by the Company to the National Debt commissioners and accumulated with compound interest until it reached a sum of £12,000,000. The Company while deprived of their commercial functions retained their administrative and political powers under the system of double government instituted by previous Acts, and in particular continued to exercise their rights of patronage over Indian appointments. The constitution of the Board of Control was modified, but as the powers of the Board were executed by its president, the modifications had no practical effect. . . . The superintendence, direction, and control of the whole civil and military government were expressly vested in a governor-general and councillors who were to be styled 'the Governor-General of India in Council.' This Council was increased by the addition of a fourth ordinary member, who was not to be one of the Company's servants and was not to be entitled to act as member of Council except for legislative purposes. It need hardly be stated that the fourth member was Macaulay. . . . Hitherto, the Governor-General in Council could issue regulations which, subject to registration by the Supreme Court, were binding on Bengal; and the Governments of Madras and Bombay had similar powers for those presidencies respectively. Lord William Bentinck stated his opinion officially that there should be one legislative authority for the whole of India. Moreover, the free admission of Europeans into the country—and especially beyond the limits of the Presidency towns into the Mufassal—which was contemplated under the Act was incompatible with the old system of conflicting regulations. It seemed necessary, therefore, to unite all the functions of legislation in one central government, [and] the Governor-General in Council . . . became the sole legislative authority in India."—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Development of an Indian policy*, v. 2, pp. 25, 26, 27, 28.—See also ENGLAND: 1832-1833.

ALSO IN: J. W. Kaye, *Administration of the East India Company*, pt. 3-4.—C. Trevelyan, *Thugs (Edinburgh Review, Jan., 1837)*.—*Illustrations of the history of the Thugs*.—M. Taylor, *Confessions of a Thug (Introduction)*.—D. C. Boulger, *Lord William Bentinck*, ch. 4-6.

1830.—Governor-general of India in council controls legislation for Straits settlements. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1830.—Wahhabi movement. See WAHHABIS.

1835-1922.—Educational policy.—Introduction of English as medium of instruction in secondary schools.—Primary schools.—Lord William Bentinck's administration was marked by a decision, on the subject of education, which has had a far-reaching effect on the history of India. Since 1813, when provision had been made for some form of education, a controversy had been going on over the means of instruction to be used. On the one hand, those who favored oriental scholarship desired Sanscrit and Arabic to be taught; on the other it was argued that English would be

the best and most useful medium, because it would enable the natives of the country to share in its administration. Lord William Bentinck and Macaulay, (who was at that time a member of the council) threw all their influence on the side of English; Macaulay's famous Minute carried the day, and a resolution in Council, dated March, 1835, gave instructions for the use of the English language in the schools for the education of the better classes, which were to receive aid from the government. "It was, indeed, a hazardous experiment, fraught with dangerous possibilities. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate its importance. Lord Morley has given his opinion that the establishment of universities was a far more momentous event and one almost deeper than the transfer to the Crown. There is no department to-day in Indian administration which causes more discussion and arouses such feelings of controversy as the subject of education."—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Development of an Indian policy*, v. 2, pp. 125, 126.—For many years, very few Moslems availed themselves of the new system, but continued to patronize the Muhammedan schools where the Koran was the chief subject of study and this also has had an effect on history which can scarcely be estimated since it shut them out of official life. It was not until they awoke, very tardily, to the fact that the Hindus had obtained a strong hold on the official life of the country that they availed themselves in any number of modern educational advantages. In 1844, Lord Hardinge issued a resolution announcing that in making first appointments preference would be given to men who had been educated in government schools, and of this provision the Bengalis took full advantage. "Very little was done [at first] for the improvement of elementary education. The authorities shrank before the magnitude and difficulty of the task, and declared that education must be left to filter downwards to the great mass of the population. Indigenous rural schools or *pathshalas* [already] existed in large numbers, but the teachers were incompetent and miserably paid, and the instruction was of the rudest description. In the North-Western Provinces, . . . a government school was established in each *tahsil*, and from that centre surrounding indigenous schools were supervised. . . . [In Bombay] a number of vernacular schools, supported partly by the state and partly by the people, grew up under the control of a Board of Education, and indigenous schools were inspected and encouraged. . . . [In 1854 a dispatch gave instructions for the establishment of provincial departments of public instruction for] the institution of Universities at the Presidency towns: the establishment of training institutions for teachers; the maintenance and increase of the existing Government colleges and high schools, . . . the establishment of new schools between the elementary and high schools; the multiplication and improvement of vernacular schools, indigenous and other, for elementary education; and the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid of schools maintained by private persons or bodies. . . . [In 1857, in pursuance of the instructions contained in this dispatch, the universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay were founded.] By 1861 the new system was in general working order. . . . [Although it made considerable progress, for a long time, it had little effect on the national life. Primary education did not keep pace with the extension of what may be called secondary education.] In 1871 there were in all India about 518,000 pupils in primary schools, while the pupils in secondary schools num-

bered 206,000. . . . Between 1781 and 1882 a remarkable development took place. In the latter year more than 2¼ million pupils were receiving instruction in 90,000 public institutions. The number of primary pupils had more than quadrupled, as against an increase of 8 per cent. among pupils in the secondary stage. . . . A commission was appointed in 1882 to review the [system]. . . . Shortly after this the management of Government schools was, in large measure, made over to municipalities and District boards under Lord Ripon's scheme of local self-government. The progress since 1881-2 has been considerable; but the rate of development in primary education, which occurred in the preceding decade has not been maintained. . . . [In the early years of this century the work was greatly hindered by plague and famine. Yet in 1901-1902] compared with 1881-2 the number of pupils in primary schools had increased by 40 per cent., and of pupils in secondary schools by 180 per cent., the rate of progress of primary education having again fallen below that of higher instruction. . . . Since 1882 the condition and progress of the education system have been passed under periodic review. . . . [The review of 1898 led to an enquiry, which was followed by a conference with Indian educationalists and administrators, and vigorous measures of reform were instituted. A director-general of education was sent out from England; a commission was instituted to report on the state of university education] and an expert committee travelled through India to investigate and advise on the system of technical education. . . . [The report made by the committee is of great political importance, for Lord Curzon's instructions to carry its recommendations into effect was followed by an outburst of nationalist feeling.] The special obligation of the Government towards the vernacular education of the masses, which was declared by the Court of Directors in 1854 . . . [was endorsed in 1882 and reaffirmed with each review]. But practice has fallen behind the precept. At the end of 1901-2 only about one-sixth of the boys of school-going age (calculated at 15 per cent. of the total male population) were following the primary course in public institutions. The percentage . . . [varied] from 23 and 22 in Bengal and Bombay to 9 and 8 in the United Provinces and the Punjab. Several causes have contributed to the slow growth of primary instruction. [The fact must be faced that while the higher castes were, almost from the first, awake to the advantages of the new education, the mass of the agriculturists were not ready to demand it. Furthermore, the idea of the importance of educating the mass of the "common people" was a plant of slow growth, especially in India, where the "common people" are represented by the poorer agriculturists, the lower castes and the out castes, who not only had not hitherto been offered instruction at any time throughout the ages, but who, as a body, are only just beginning to see why it should be thrust upon them. In addition to this, a large proportion of the funds available for education has been applied to secondary and higher education. Moreover, the education of the lower castes has been until quite recently, and in most cases still is, a matter of great difficulty. It is only of late years that the presence of low caste children began to be tolerated in schools attended by, or taught by members of the higher castes. Their presence there was a contamination, and where they were received, they sat on a verandah or on a lower level of the floor, and laid their books and exercises at the feet of the instructor. Special

schools have been maintained in some places for their benefit; much has been done in Christian missionary schools to raise the status of these unfortunates, and lately the prejudice against the admission of low caste children to public schools has begun to wear away, and their presence is more frequent. Only a small proportion of the primary schools is under the direct management of the government. By far the larger number are native schools, belonging to private individuals. They are, however, obliged to conform to certain regulations and requirements of the department of education, in order to receive government aid. The salaries paid to the teachers in these schools are miserably small, and consequently the best men are not attracted to the teaching profession. In 1913, J. Bampfylde Fuller stated that in Bengal, Madras and Bombay almost a third of the boys of school-going age were being instructed, in Burma about a fourth, and in the Punjab and the United Provinces less than a fifth. Primary education is of course most developed in towns.] . . . The mass of the peasantry are still utterly illiterate. In Upper India one frequently comes across villages with only one or two men who can sign their names; in Bengal and in Southern and Western India matters are better, but everywhere ignorance is a prominent characteristic of the cultivating class. During recent years considerable improvements have been made in the character of the village schools, and the subjects and methods of instruction have been brought into greater harmony with the conditions and requirements of peasant life. . . . Female education in India has to encounter peculiar difficulties. The demand for school instruction for girls is of recent origin, and social customs in regard to child-marriage and the seclusion of women of the well-to-do classes hinder its growth. The Government did not take up the subject until 1840, when Lord Dalhousie informed the Bengal Council of Education that henceforth its functions were to embrace female education, and the first girls' school recognized by Government was founded shortly afterwards by a committee of native gentlemen. The dispatch of 1854 directed that female education should receive the frank and cordial support of Government, as by 'this means a far greater proportional impulse is imparted to the educational and moral tone of the people than by the education of men.' The Education Commission of 1882 advised that female education should receive special encouragement and be treated with special liberality. The Government accepted this view; and state funds are more freely used, and state management more largely resorted to, for this object than is considered desirable in the case of the education of boys. The adoption of this attitude has resulted in a considerable development of the public instruction of girls, although it still lags far behind that of their brothers. . . . When the state assumed the responsibility for the education of the people of India, it had to face a position to which no European country can furnish a parallel. The population was as large as that of all the European states that had then adopted an educational system; it presented at least as many differences of creed, language, race, and custom; and it was to receive an instruction essentially foreign in its higher branches."—*Imperial Gazetteer of India*, v. 4, pp. 412, 413-417, 420, 422, 424, 431-432, 447.—"The total number of literate persons has risen during the decade [1911-1921] from 15.7 to 18.6 millions or by 18 per cent. The number of literate males has increased by 15 and that of literate females by 61 per cent. The propor-

tion who are literate per thousand males has risen from 98 to 106 and the corresponding proportion for females from 7 to 10. If persons under 15 years of age be excluded, the proportions are 138 and 149 for male and 8 and 13 for females. The great improvement in the proportion of literate females is most encouraging. . . . The total number of females over 15 years of age who can read and write is now a million and a quarter compared with less than half a million twenty years ago. . . . In recent years, legislation has been approved by certain of the provincial legislative councils whereby municipalities are empowered to impose a system of compulsory primary education within their areas. Primary Education Acts have now been passed in Bombay, Bengal, Madras, the United Provinces, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces. The main characteristic of these bills is that the adoption of compulsion is left to the local bodies. Compulsory education is to be free in Bombay, the United Provinces and the Punjab, but in other provinces remission of fees is provided for under certain conditions. Parents and employers preventing children from complying with the Acts are liable to be fined, but provision is made for the exemption from the operation of the Acts of particular classes or communities. Additional taxation is also provided for. The Bengal Act goes somewhat further than the other Acts in requiring all municipalities to undertake at once a survey of the condition of primary education in municipal areas. . . . In 1917, the Government of India made a recurring grant of 30 lakhs [of rupees] for the improvement of training facilities and for increased pay to teachers. . . . The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject, and is, in each Province, under the charge of a 'Minister.' There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, *i.e.*, it is not within the charge of the Minister of Education; and to the Government of India is still reserved . . . university legislation generally."—*Indian Year Book*, 1922, pp. 449, 457.—See also ASIA: European influences, etc.

1836-1845.—First Afghan War and its catastrophe.—Conquest and annexation of Sind.—Threatened trouble with the Sikhs.—"With the accession of Lord Auckland, Bentinck's successor, began a new era in Anglo-Indian history, in which the long-sown seeds of fresh political complications . . . began to put forth fruit. All danger from French ambition had passed away; but Russian intrigue was busy against us. We had brought the danger on ourselves. False to an alliance with Persia, which dated from the beginning of the century, we had turned a deaf ear to her entreaties for help against Russian aggression, and had allowed her to fall under the power of her tyrant, who thenceforth used her as an instrument of his ambition. The result of our selfish indifference appeared in 1837, when Persia, acting under Russian influence, laid siege to Herat, which was then under Afghan rule. While Herat was still holding out, the Shah was at last threatened with war, and raised the siege. Then was the time for Auckland to destroy the Russian danger once for all, by making a friend of the power which seemed to be the natural barrier against invasion from the north-west. After a long series of revolutions, Dost Mahomed, the representative of the now famous tribe of Baruckzyes, had established himself upon the throne, with the warm approval of the majority of the people; while Shah Sooja,



the leader of the rival Suddozyes, was an exile. [See also AFGHANISTAN: 1803-1838.] The ruling prince did not wait for Auckland to seek his friendship. He treated the Russian advances with contempt, and desired nothing better than to be an ally of the English. Auckland was urged to seize the opportunity. It was in his power to deal Russia a crushing blow, and to avert those troubles which . . . [later harassed] British statesmen. He did not let slip the opportunity. He flung it from him, and clutched at a policy that was to bring misery to thousands of families in England, in India, and in Afghanistan, and to prove disastrous to the political interests of all three countries. . . . Those who are least interested in Indian history are not likely to forget how the Afghan mob murdered the British Envoy and his associates; how the British commander, putting faith in the chiefs of a people whom no treaties can bind, began that retreat from which but one man escaped to tell how 16,000 had perished; how poor Auckland, unmanned by the disaster, lacked the energy to retrieve it; how the heroic Sale held out at Jellalabad till Pollock relieved him; how Auckland's successor, Lord Ellenborough, dreading fresh disasters, hesitated to allow his generals to act till, yielding to their indignant zeal, he threw upon them the responsibility of that advance to Cabul which retrieved the lost prestige of . . . arms [see AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842; [the British] 1842-1869]. Thus closed the first act of a still unfinished drama. After celebrating the triumph of the victorious army, Ellenborough sent Charles Napier to punish the Ameers of Scinde, who, emboldened by the retreat from Cabul, had violated a treaty which they had concluded with the British Government. The result of the war was the annexation of the country [see SIND]: but the whole series of transactions is only remembered now as having given rise to the dispute on the question of the guilt of the Ameers between Napier and James Outram. Less talked of at the time, but historically more important, was Ellenborough's reconstitution of the British relations with the Sindia of the day. Political disturbances had for some time agitated that prince's court, while his army had swollen to a dangerous size, and, like the Sikh army since Runjeet Singh's death, which had taken place a few years before, had passed beyond the control of the civil power. In these two armies Ellenborough saw a danger which might disturb the peace of Hindostan. He foresaw that the Sikh soldiers, released from the stern discipline of Runjeet Singh, would soon force a government which they despised to let them cross the Sutlej in quest of plunder. Two years later his character as a prophet was vindicated; and, if he had not now, in anticipation of the invasion which then took place, disbanded the greater part of Sindia's army, and over-awed the remainder by a native contingent under the command of British officers, the Sikhs would probably have joined their forces with the Mahrattas. . . . But the Directors took a different view of their Governor-General's conduct of affairs. In June, 1844, all India was astonished by the news that Ellenborough had been recalled. He had helped to bring about his own downfall, for in the controversies with his masters in which he, like some of the ablest of his predecessors, had found himself involved, he had shown an unfortunate want of discretion; but, though by bombastic proclamations and a theatrical love of display he had sometimes exposed himself to ridicule, many of his subordinates felt that in him they had lost a vigorous and able ruler. Sir Henry

Hardinge, who was raised to the peerage before the close of his administration, succeeded to the office of Governor-General, and waited anxiously for the breaking of the storm which his predecessor had seen gathering. The Sikhs, the Puritans of India [see SIKHS], who were not strictly speaking a nation, but a religious brotherhood of warriors called the Khalsa, were animated by two passions equally dangerous to the peace of those around them, a fierce enthusiasm, half military, half religious, for the glory of their order, and an insatiable desire for plunder. By giving them full scope for the indulgence of these passions, and by punishing all disobedience with merciless severity, Runjeet Singh had governed his turbulent subjects for forty years: but, when he died, they broke loose from all control; and the weak Government of Lahore found that they could only save their own capital from being plundered by the Khalsa army by sending it to seek plunder in British territory. Thus began the first Sikh war."—T. R. E. Holmes, *History of the Indian mutiny*, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: L. Griffin, *Ranjit Singh*.—L. J. Trotter, *Earl of Auckland*, ch. 4-13.

1845-1849.—Sikh wars.—Conquest and annexation of the Punjab.—"Until his death, in 1839, Ranjit Singh was ever loyal to the engagements which he had entered into with Metcalfe in 1809. But he left no son capable of wielding his sceptre. Lahore was torn by dissensions between rival generals, ministers, and queens. The only strong power was the army of the Central Committee of Generals or *khalsa*, which, since our disaster in Afghanistan, burned to measure its strength with the British Sepoys. Ranjit Singh's European generals, Avitabile and Court, were foolishly ousted by the Sikh commanders, and the supreme military command was vested in a series of *panchayats* or elective committees of five. In 1845, the Sikh army, numbering 60,000 men, with 150 guns, crossed the Sutlej and invaded British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, together with the Governor-General, hurried up to the frontier. Within three weeks, four pitched battles were fought, at Mudki, Ferozshah, Aliwal, and Sohraon. The British loss on each occasion was heavy; but by the last victory, the Sikhs were fairly driven back into the Sutlej, and Lahore surrendered to the British. The British, however, declined to annex the prostrate province; but appointed a Sikh Protectorate. By the terms of peace . . . then dictated, the infant son of Ranjit, Dhulip Singh, was recognised as Raja; the Jalandhar Doab, or tract between the Sutlej and the Beas, was added to the British territory; the Sikh army was limited to a specified number; Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident, to assist the Sikh Council of Regency, at Lahore; and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child-Raja. The Governor-General, Sir H. Hardinge, received a peerage, and returned to England in 1848."—W. W. Hunter, *Indian empire*, pp. 481-482.—"Shortly afterwards the Punjab was again in commotion. Sikh government under British protection had failed to keep the peace. The army of the Khalsa had disappeared, but the old love of license and plunder was burning in the hearts of the disbanded soldiery. The Sikh governor of Multan revolted; two Englishmen were murdered. A British force besieged the rebels in Multan. It was joined by a Sikh force in the service of the Council of Regency commanded by Shere Singh. So far the revolt at Multan was regarded as a single outbreak which would be soon suppressed by the capture of the fortress. In reality it was the beginning of a general insurrec-

tion. Shere Singh, who commanded the Sikh force in the besieging army, suddenly deserted the British force and joined his father Chutter Singh, who was already in open rebellion. The revolt was secretly promoted by the queen mother, and spread over the Punjab like wildfire. The old soldiers of the Khalsa rallied round Shere Singh and his father. The half-and-half government set up by Lord Hardinge was unable to cope with a revolution which was restoring the old anarchy. In November, 1848, Lord Gough advanced against the rebel army. Then followed the famous campaign between the Chenab and Jhelum rivers about 100 miles to the north of Lahore. In January, 1849, Lord Gough fought the dubious battle of Chillianwallah, near the spot where Alexander the Great crossed the Jhelum and defeated the army of Porus. Meanwhile Multan surrendered, and the besieging force joined Lord Gough. In February the Sikh army was utterly defeated at Gujerat."—J. T. Wheeler, *Indian history*, ch. 11.—"Gujrat was essentially a forenoon battle, with the whole day before the combatants to finish their work. It commenced with a magnificent duel of artillery; the British infantry occupying post after post as they were abandoned by the enemy; and the British cavalry breaking up the Sikh masses and scattering them by pursuit. Of the sixty Sikh guns engaged, fifty-three were taken. Lord Dalhousie resolved to make the victory a final one. 'The war,' he declared, 'must be prosecuted now to the entire defeat and dispersion of all who are in arms against us, whether Sikhs or Afghans.' General Gilbert hurried out with a pursuing force of 12,000, horse, foot and artillery, the day after the battle. In the breathless chase which followed across the plains of the Punjab to the frontier mountain-wall, the Sikh military power was destroyed for ever. On the 12th of March, 1849, General Gilbert received the submission of the entire Sikh army at Rawal Pindi, together with the last forty-one of the 160 Sikh cannon captured by the British during the war. While the Sikh army heaped up their swords and shields and matchlocks in submissive piles, and salaamed one by one as they passed disarmed along the British line, their Afghan allies were chased relentlessly westwards, and reached the safety of the Khaibar Pass panting, and barely twenty miles in front of the English hunters. The horsemen of Afghanistan, it was said, 'had ridden down through the hills like lions and ran back into them like dogs.' The question remained what to do with the Punjab. The victory of Sobraon in 1846 gave to Lord Hardinge the right of conquest: the victory at Gujerat in 1849 compelled Lord Dalhousie to assert that right. Lord Hardinge at the end of the first Punjab war in 1846, tried . . . an intermediate method of ruling the province by British officers for the benefit of the infant prince [Maharajah Dhalip Singh]. This method had failed. . . . In determining the future arrangements for the Punjab, Lord Dalhousie had as his advisers the two Lawrences. Sir Henry Lawrence, the former Resident at Lahore, hurried back from his sick-leave in England on the breaking out of the war. He was of opinion that the annexation of the Punjab might perhaps be just, but that it would be inexpedient. His brother John, afterwards Lord Lawrence, who had also acted as Resident, although as much averse in general principle to annexation as Henry, was convinced that, in this case, annexation was not only just, but that its expediency was 'both undeniable and pressing.' Lord Dalhousie, after a full review of the efforts which had been made to convert the Sikh nation into a friendly power without annexation, decided that

no course now remained to the British Government but to annex. . . . The annexation of the Punjab was deliberately approved of by the Court of Directors, by Parliament, and by the English nation."—W. W. Hunter, *Marquess of Dalhousie*, ch. 3.—Maharaja Dhalip Singh, who was given a pension of £40,000 a year became an adherent of the Christian religion, and lived in England as a country gentleman for many years. After his marriage, however, he went heavily into debt, and when the India office refused to make further advances he repudiated his faith and attempted to return to the Punjab. He was prevented from doing this and after some time made his peace. He died in Paris in 1893.—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 33.

ALSO IN: H. B. Edwardes and H. Merivale, *Life of Sir Henry Lawrence*.—R. B. Smith, *Life of Lord Lawrence*, v. 1, ch. 7-11.—E. Arnold, *Marquis of Dalhousie's administration of British India*, v. 1, ch. 1-7.—H. B. Edwardes, *Year on the Punjab frontier*.—R. Temple, *Men and events of my time in India*, ch. 3-4.—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Expansion of British empire*.

1848-1856.—Lord Dalhousie's minor annexations.—Lapse of dependent native states.—Case of Nana Sahib.—"In applying the doctrine of lapse to the Hindu chieftoms, on default of natural successors or of an heir legally adopted with the sanction of the Ruling Power, Lord Dalhousie merely carried out the declared law of the case, and the deliberately formulated policy of the Government of India, years before he arrived in the country. In so doing, however, Lord Dalhousie became the unconscious but effective instrument by which the old India of Lord Wellesley at the beginning of the century was prepared for its conversion, in 1858, into the new India of the Queen. . . . The fundamental question was whether . . . the government of a dependent State, in absence of natural heirs, should be allowed to pass like mere private property to an adopted son. The Court of Directors had at one time permitted the adoption of a successor in special cases to a principality on failure of natural heirs. It declared, however, in 1834, that such an 'indulgence should be the exception, not the rule.' . . . As the evils of the old system of government by sham royalties further developed themselves, the Government of India determined in 1841 to enforce a more uniform policy. . . . What Lord Dalhousie did, therefore, was not to invent a new principle of Indian law, but to steadily apply an old principle. . . . The first case in which this principle came to be applied, shortly after Lord Dalhousie's arrival, was the Native State of Satara. That Maratha principality had been constituted by the British Government on the general break up of the Maratha power in 1818, and confirmed to the 'sons and heirs, and successors' of the recipient in 1819. In 1839 the reigning prince was deposed for misconduct by the British Government in the exercise of its Suzerain rights. By the same rights the British Government then set up the brother of the deposed prince on the throne. . . . [This Raja] applied for permission to adopt a son. The British Government deliberately withheld the permission; and in the last hours of his life the Raja, in 1848, hastily adopted a son without the consent of the Government. Lord Dalhousie [one of the greatest of the governors-general] with the advice of the Court of Directors, declared in this case that the territory of Satara had lapsed, on the death of the raja, by failure of heirs, to the power which deposed, and it was annexed, accordingly, to the British dominions. Under kindred circumstances the native states of Sambalpur, on the south-western frontier of lower Bengal, and Jhansi,

a fragment of the Maratha dominions in Northern India, were absorbed.] The same principle of lapse on failure of heirs was applied by Lord Dalhousie to several other dependent States. Jaitpur in Bundelkhand, Baghat a petty hill Chiefdom of 36 square miles in the Punjab, Udaipur on the Western frontier of Lower Bengal, and Budawal in Khandesh, passed under direct British rule from this cause. The fort and military fief of Tanjore were annexed after Lord Dalhousie's departure from India, but practically on the grounds set forth by his government. . . . By far the largest accession of territory made during Lord Dalhousie's rule, to the British dominions on the failure of heirs, was the great central tract of India known as Nagpur. This Maratha principality as now constituted into the Central Provinces, and after various rectifications of frontier, has an area of 113,279 square miles. . . . The territories annexed by Lord Dalhousie in 1854 make nearly four-fifths of the present Central Provinces. . . . It is difficult to find any ground for the charge which Mr. Kaye brought in 1865 against Lord Dalhousie, for 'harshness' towards the man afterwards known as the infamous Nana Sahib [see below: 1857 (May-August)]. As this charge, however, is still occasionally repeated, and as it has even been suggested that Lord Dalhousie was to some extent responsible for the Mutiny of 1857, in consequence of his action towards Nana Sahib in 1851, I must briefly state the facts. In 1781, the Peshwa of the Marathas, completely beaten in the field, threw himself on the generosity of the British. Sir John Malcolm, then the Governor-General's Agent in the Deccan, assured him of his protection, and engaged that he should receive an allowance of £80,000 a year for his support. . . . There could not be the slightest pretension that it was ever anything more than a personal annuity; and from first to last all mention of heirs is carefully excluded. The records show that the ex-Peshwa, Baji Rao, was well aware of this. Baji Rao lived until 1851, leaving to his adopted son, Nana Sahib, an immense fortune admitted to amount to £280,000 and believed by the Government of the North-western Provinces to greatly exceed that sum. The Government of India at once acknowledged the adopted son's title to this splendid heritage, and out of its own beneficence added to it the Jaghir, or grant of land, on which his father had resided in the North-Western Provinces. But the pension, paid out of the tax-payers' pockets, lapsed upon the death of the annuitant.—W. W. Hunter, *Marquess of Dalhousie*, ch. 6-7.—Duke of Argyll, *India under Dalhousie and Canning*.

1852.—Second Burmese War.—Annexation of Pegu.—“While Lord Dalhousie was laying out the Punjab like a Scotch estate, on the most approved principles of planting, road-making, culture, and general management, the chance of another conquest at the opposite extremity of his vice-kingdom summoned him to Calcutta. The master of a trading barque from Chittagong, who was charged unjustly with cruelty to a pilot, had been fined £100 by the authorities of Rangoon, and the captain of a brig had in like manner been amerced for alleged ill-treatment of his crew. To support a claim for restitution, two English ships of war had been sent to the mouth of the Irrawadi. . . . Mis-understandings arose on some inexplicable point of etiquette; [the British commodore seized a royal yacht which lay in the river; the angry Burmese opened fire on his ships from their forts; and,] with an unprecedented economy of time and trouble in the discovery or making of plausible pretexts, a second war with Burmah was thus begun. A long catalogue of affronts, wrongs, and

injuries, now for the first time poured in. . . . The subjects of the 'Golden Foot'. . . must make an official apology for their misbehaviour, pay ten lacs compensation, and receive a permanent Resident at Rangoon. If these demands were not met within five weeks, further reparation would be exacted otherwise, and as there was no fear that they would, preparations were made for an expedition. . . . The Governor-General threw himself with enthusiasm into an undertaking which promised him another chance of gratifying, as his biographer says, his 'passion for imperial symmetry.' He resolved 'to take in kingdoms wherever they made a gap in the red line running round his dominions or broke its internal continuity.' There was a gap in the ring-fence between Arracan and Moulmein, which Pegu would fill. The logical inference was clear, the duty of appropriation obvious. Let us have Pegu. Ten millions of silver happening just then to lie in the coffers of Fort William, how could they be better invested than in a jungle on the sea coast, inhabited by quadrupeds and bipeds after their various kinds, alike unworthy of being consulted as to their future destiny? . . . In April, Martaban and Rangoon were taken with trifling loss. Operations being suspended during the rainy season, the city of Prome was not attacked till October, and after a few hours' struggle it fell, with the loss of a single sepoy on the side of the victors. There was in fact no serious danger to encounter, save from the climate; but that unflinching ally fought with terrible effect upon the side of Ava. . . . On the 20th December, 1852, a proclamation was issued, which, after reciting undisputedly the ineffably inadequate pretext for the war, informed the inhabitants that the Governor in Council had resolved that the maritime province of Pegu should henceforth form a portion of the British territories in the East, and warning the King of Ava, 'should he fail to renew his former relations of friendship with the British Government, and seek to dispute its quiet possession of the province, the Governor-General would again put forth the power he held, which would lead to the total subversion of the Burman State, and to the ruin and exile of the King and his race.' But no depth of humiliation could bring the Sovereign or his Ministers to acknowledge the hopelessness of defeat or the permanency of dismemberment. . . . Twenty years have passed, and no treaty recognising the alienation of Pegu has yet [in 1872] been signed.—W. M. Torrens, *Empire in Asia: How we came by it*, ch. 24.

Also in: E. Arnold, *Marquiss of Dalhousie's administration of British India*, v. 2, ch. 15-16.

1853.—Last charter of the Company.—“The last of the Charter Acts was passed in 1853 during the rule of Lord Dalhousie. It was fairly clear that the days of the Company were numbered in that the Charter was not renewed, as had been the case in the past, for a period of twenty years, but 'only until Parliament shall otherwise provide.' The power of the Crown was increased by the provision that six of the Directors should be appointed by the Crown and that 'the right of patronage to Indian appointments was taken away from the Court of Directors and directed to be exercised in accordance with regulations framed by the Board of Control. These regulations threw the Covenanted Civil Service open to general competition.' The Government of India was relieved from the direct control over Bengal by the appointment of a Lieutenant-Governor for that province, who was to exercise powers similar to those of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. The most important departure introduced by the Act

of 1853 was the extension of the Council of the Governor-General for the purpose of making laws and regulations. . . . The Law Member, originally had not the right to sit and to vote at ordinary meetings of the Council, but only at meetings which were concerned with matters of legislation. This principle was now extended by the inclusion of the Chief Justice of Bengal, a puisne judge, and a member nominated by each of the local governments of Bengal, Madras, Bombay and the North-Western Provinces. A very considerable degree of independence was allowed in the direction of asking questions and criticising the actions of the Executive, of which the new members took full advantage, with the result that these privileges were curtailed by the Act of 1861. . . . The full privileges were given to the Law Member in the Act of 1853."—G. Anderson and M. Subedar, *Development of an Indian policy*, v. 2, pp. 147, 148, and footnote.—See also CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: Great Britain: 1832-1855.

1855-1915.—Construction of railroad lines from Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.—Later development. See RAILROADS: 1855-1915.

1856.—Annexation of Oude. See OUDE.

1856-1921.—Forestry administration. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1805-1921.

1857.—Outbreak of the Sepoy Rebellion or "Indian Mutiny."—Relation of India to British government.—Causes of outbreak.—By 1857 the East India Company found a vast empire upon its hands. The possessions of the Company had assumed very nearly the present bounds of British India, and a tradition and technique of Anglo-Indian government had been established. But plainly the responsibility had become too great for a mercantile corporation to handle. How soon the British government would have found it possible to abrogate the rights of the Company it is hard to say. The outbreak of the Sepoy Rebellion hastened the end of the Company's rule, and brought about the assumption of full authority by the crown. "The introduction of the Enfield rifle in place of the old-fashioned musket provided the spark which fired the powder and caused the actual explosion of the Mutiny. Certain of the sepoys, many of whom were high-caste Brahmmins, believed that in biting the cartridges they would lose caste, and that this was part of a deliberate plan engineered by the British Government to convert them forcibly to Christianity. . . . [Sir William Hunter states that as a matter of fact beef tallow had been used in "culpable ignorance" of the religion of the sepoys. Immediate measures were taken to prevent the greased cartridge paper from reaching the Indians; but rumors had gone abroad, and no assurance could quiet their disturbed minds.] For months past there had been rumblings of the impending storm. Fires were taking place in cantonments all over northern India; vague prophecies foretelling the downfall of British power after the completion of a hundred years' supremacy were retold; a proclamation speaking of a restored Muhammadan Empire was found on the walls of the Jumma Masjid at Delhi; and chapátis were being carried from village to village, for reasons unknown to any Englishman. With the authorities there was a general feeling of uneasiness; with the sepoys a strange moodiness alternating with uncontrollable excitement. . . . The actual outbreak of mutiny took place at Meerut, where a policy of unnecessary irritation was combined with a complete lack of decision. . . . In the days immediately subsequent to the capture of Delhi there was an ominous calm, characterised by incendiary outbreaks

and restless uneasiness on the part of the sepoys, and by ill-timed apathy in some and vigorous action in other places on the part of the British. Unfortunately, Lord Canning had not the means as yet of sending any considerable relief from Calcutta, and, owing to transport and other difficulties, it was some time before the army from the north-west could start on its march to Delhi. In consequence, during the early days of June, the position became well-nigh desperate. In the north-west provinces and Oudh outbreaks became of so serious a nature that, with the exception of fortresses such as Agra, Allahabad and Lucknow, if the latter could be termed a fortress, the whole country was lost for a while. In the Punjab, however, the position was reversed to some extent, there being only sporadic outbreaks, as at Nowsheera, Jullundur, and Sialkot, which were vigorously suppressed."—G. Anderson and M. Subedar *Expansion of British India*, v. 1, pp. 103, 116-117, 121, 157.

"The various motives assigned for the Mutiny appear inadequate to the European mind. The truth seems to be that Native opinion throughout India was in a ferment, predisposing men to believe the wildest stories, and to rush into action in a paroxysm of terror. Panic acts on an Oriental population like drink upon a European mob. The annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie, although dictated by the most enlightened considerations, was distasteful to the Native mind. The spread of education, the appearance at the same moment of the steam-engine and the telegraph wire, seemed to reveal a deep plan for substituting an English for an Indian civilisation. The Bengal sepoys especially thought that they could see further than the rest of their countrymen. Most of them were Hindus of high caste; many of them were recruited from Oudh. They regarded . . . reforms on Western lines as attacks on their own nationality, and they knew at first hand what annexation meant. They believed it was by their prowess that the Punjab had been conquered, and that all India was held. The numerous dethroned princes, or their heirs and widows, were the first to learn and to take advantage of this spirit of disaffection and panic. They had heard of the Crimean war, and were told that Russia was the perpetual enemy of England. . . . Munificent pensions had supplied the funds with which they could buy the aid of skilful intriguers. They had much to gain, and little to lose, by a revolution. In this critical state of affairs, of which the Government had no official knowledge, a rumour ran through the cantonments that the cartridges of the Bengal army had been greased with the fat of pigs,—animals unclean alike to Hindu and Muhammadan. No assurances could quiet the minds of the sepoys. Fires occurred nightly in the Native lines; officers were insulted by their men; confidence was gone, and only the form of discipline remained. In addition, the outbreak of the storm found the Native regiments denuded of many of their best officers. The administration of the great empire to which Dalhousie put the corner-stone, required a larger staff than the civil service could supply. The practice of selecting able military men for civil posts, which had long existed, received a sudden and vast development. Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, British Burma, were administered to a large extent by picked officers from the Company's regiments. Good and skilful commanders remained; but the Native army had nevertheless been drained of many of its brightest intellects and firmest wills at the very crisis of its fate."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, ch. 15.—"The annexation of Oudh had nothing to do with the Mutiny in the first place, though that

measure certainly did add to the number of our enemies after the Mutiny commenced. The old government of Oudh was extremely obnoxious to the mass of . . . native soldiers of the regular army, who came from Oudh and the adjacent province of Behar, and with whom the Mutiny originated. These men were the sons and kinsmen of the Hindu yeomen of the country, all of whom benefited more or less by annexation; while Oudh was ruled by a Muhammadan family which had never identified itself with the people, and whose government was extremely oppressive to all classes except its immediate creatures and followers. But when the introduction of the greased cartridges had excited the Native Army to revolt, when the mutineers saw nothing before them short of escape on the one hand or destruction on the other, they, and all who sympathised with them, were driven to the most desperate measures. All who could be influenced by love or fear rallied round them. All who had little or nothing to lose joined their ranks. All that dangerous class of religious fanatics and devotees who abound in India, all the political intriguers, who in peaceful times can do no mischief, swelled the numbers of the enemy, and gave spirit and direction to their measures. India is full of races of men, who, from time immemorial, have lived by service or by plunder, and who are ready to join in any disturbance which may promise them employment. Oudh was full of disbanded soldiers who had not had time to settle down. Gaols furnished thousands of desperate men let loose on society. The cry throughout the country, as cantonment after cantonment became the scene of triumphant mutiny was, 'The English rule is at an end. Let us plunder and enjoy ourselves.' The industrious classes throughout India were on . . . side, but for a long time feared to act. On the one side they saw the few English in the country shot down or flying for their lives, or at the best standing on the defensive, sorely pressed; on the other side they saw summary punishment, in the shape of the plunder and destruction of their houses, dealt out to those who aided. . . . But when we evinced signs of vigour, when we began to assume the offensive and vindicate our authority, many of these people came forward and identified themselves with our cause."—Lord Lawrence, *Speech at Glasgow, 1860* (quoted by Sir O. T. Burne, in "*Clyde and Strathmairn*," ch. 1).—"The India of the East India Company's days ended with the Mutiny. Lord Roberts has pointed out that this was a military revolt, but that the revolt would not have taken place had there not been considerable discontent through that part of the country from which the Hindustani sepoy chiefly came, and had not powerful persons borne the British a grudge. He states that the discontent was largely due to the antagonism of the Brahmans to our innovations and to Western education, which was sapping their influence. He points out that . . . [the British] had spread among the ruling chiefs uncertainty and discontent; that . . . [they] had recently annexed Oudh and Jhansi, and had informed the titular King of Delhi that on his death his title would cease and his court would be removed from the Imperial city. It is also important to notice that for various reasons, the more sensitive Hindu and Muhammadan classes had conceived the idea that their religions were losing their exclusive privileges and were being steadily undermined. The proclamations issued from Delhi and Lucknow appealed to the multitude with the cry of religion in peril. The arena of the Mutiny was the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, which then included Delhi, and a large part of Central India. There was little

fighting anywhere else, and no popular trouble in Bengal proper, although there was some fighting in Bihar. Unlike the Punjab, neither Agra nor Oudh had been disarmed. In the Agra Province there were very few British troops, and those few either were drawn off to the siege of Delhi or were themselves for the first four or five months hopelessly beleaguered. At Agra itself the Lieutenant-Governor was, until after the fall of Delhi, supported against 42,000 rebel soldiers by one company's regiment of 655 effectives and one battery of six guns manned by Indian drivers. . . . Here is a contemporary description of ordinary district occurrences away from the great centres of population: 'The villages and towns generally side with some neighbouring potentate, or more generally they side with no one at all. They are delighted at being relieved from all government whatsoever, and instantly set to work fighting among themselves. Every man of enterprise and a little influence collects his clan and plunders all the weaker villages round him.'—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, pp. 12-14.

ALSO IN: T. Chaillly, *Administrative problems of upper India*.—J. W. Kaye, *History of the Sepoy War in India*, v. 1, bk. 2.—G. B. Malleson, *Indian Mutiny of 1857*, ch. 1-5.—Lord Roberts, *Forty-one years in India*.

1857 (May).—Outbreak at Meerut.—Seizure of Delhi by mutineers.—Massacre of Europeans.—Explosion of magazine.—"The station of Meerut, some 40 miles north-east of Delhi, was one of the very few in India where adequate means existed for quelling an outbreak of native troops. There was a regiment of English Dragoons, a battalion of the 60th Rifles, and a strong force of Horse and Foot Artillery, far more than sufficient to deal with the three native regiments who were also quartered in the cantonment. . . . Eighty-five men of the 3rd N. C., who had refused to take their cartridges, had . . . [been court-martialed and] sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. The sentence was carried out with impressive solemnity. On a morning [May 9] presently to become historical—the heavens sombre with rolling clouds—the brigade assembled to hear their comrades' doom—to see them stripped of their uniform and secured with felons' manacles. The scene produced intense emotion. Resistance was impossible. There were entreaties, tears, imprecations, as the prisoners were marched away to jail. Discipline had been vindicated by a terrible example. The next day was Sunday. In the evening, as the European Rifle-men were gathering for Church, a sudden movement took place in the native quarters. The Cavalry dashed off to the jail to rescue their imprisoned companions. The two Infantry regiments, after a moment's wavering, threw in their lot with the mutineers. Then ensued a scene such as, unhappily, became too familiar in Upper India within the next few weeks. Officers were shot, houses fired, Europeans—men, women, and children, wherever found, were put to the sword. A crowd of miscreants from the jail, suddenly set free, made a long night of pillage. Meanwhile, paralysed by the sudden catastrophe, the English General of the Division and the Brigadier of the Station forebore to act, refused to let their subordinates act, and the Sepoys who had fled, a disorganised mob, in different directions, soon found themselves gathering on the march for Delhi. In the early morning at Delhi, where courts and offices had already begun the day's work, a line of horsemen were descried galloping on the Meerut road. They found their way into the city, into the presence of the King; cut down the European officials, and, as they were

gradually reinforced by the arrival of fresh companions, commenced a general massacre of the Christian population. A brave telegraph clerk, as the mutineers burst in upon him, had just time to flash the dreadful tidings to Lahore. Before evening, the native regiments fired upon their officers and joined the mutineers. After weary hours of hope for the help from Meerut which never came, the British officers in command were compelled to recognise that the only chance of safety lay in flight. Ere the day closed, every European who had risen that morning in Delhi, was dead, or awaiting death, or wandering about the country in the desperate endeavor to reach a place of safety. A day dark with disaster was, however, illumined by the first of those heroic acts which will make the siege of Delhi immortal. The insurgents had their first taste of the quality of the race whose ascendancy they had elected to assail. Lieutenant Willoughby, the officer in charge of the Magazine, and eight gallant companions, resolved, early in the day, that, if they could not defend their invaluable supply of ammunition, they would destroy it, though its destruction would almost certainly involve their own. For hours they defended their stronghold against an overpowering crowd of assailants. The train was laid; the sergeant who was to fire it stood ready; Willoughby took a last look out upon the Meerut road; the assailants were swarming on the walls. The word was spoken: a vast column of flame and smoke shot upward. Two thousand of the assailants were blown into the air [and five of the defenders perished, while Willoughby and three of his companions escaped]. The thunder of that explosion announced to the mutineers that one great object in the seizure of Delhi had escaped their grasp."—H. S. Cunningham, *Earl Canning*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: J. W. Kaye, *History of the Sepoy War in India*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1-3.—W. W. Hunter, *Indian empire*.

1857 (May-August).—**Situation at Delhi.—Siege of English at Cawnpore.—Surrender and massacre.—Siege of Lucknow.**—"A few days of inactivity allowed the flame to blaze up beyond possibility of immediate extinction. The unchallenged occupation of the Mughal capital by rebel sepoys and badmashes [worthless fellow] was followed by risings and massacres in almost every station within range of the example; and from Ferozpur, Bareilly, Moradabad, Shahjahanpur, Cawnpur, and numerous other places came harrowing tales of massacre, suffering, and heroism. When this terrible news reached army head-quarters, it was received with a perhaps natural incredulity. Nevertheless, a force was hastily assembled at Ambala; and with the troops thus mobilised, General Anson, then Commander-in-Chief, made preparations to march against the renowned city of the Mughal. The little force had hardly started, however, when its leader died of cholera (May 27th). It was not until the 1st of June that General Barnard, who had succeeded temporarily to the chief command, advanced in earnest against the now jubilant rebels. Meanwhile, a small body of troops under Brigadier Archdale Wilson marched out from Meerut, after a disastrous delay; and the combined force, amounting to about 3,000 Europeans and one battalion of Gurkhas, fought its way onwards till it reached the outskirts of the city on the 8th of June, 1857. We may now refer to the three great points—Delhi, Cawnpur, and Lucknow, round which the Mutiny was, so to speak, centred during the earlier period of the revolt; namely, from May, 1857, till the arrival in India of Sir Colin Campbell in August of that year. The modern city of Delhi was

founded by the Emperor Jahangir in 1631. Situated on the right bank of a branch of the Jumna river it was, as it still is, surrounded by a high wall some seven miles in extent, strengthened by bastions and by a capacious dry ditch. The British force held the elevated ground known as the Ridge, which extends two miles along the northern and western faces of the city—a position taken up some centuries before by Timur Shab and his Tartar hordes when advancing to attack old Delhi. At intervals along the Ridge stood the Flagstaff Tower, the Observatory, a large mansion called Hindu Rao's house, and other defensible buildings. The space between the city and the Ridge was thickly planted, for the most part with trees and shrubs; in the midst of which might be seen numerous mosques and large houses, and the ruins of older buildings. It soon became evident that the position held by the British force on the Ridge was a false one; and the question arose whether the city might not be taken by a coup de main, seeing that it was impossible either to invest it or to attempt a regular siege with any chance of success. A plan of assault, to be carried out on the 12th of June, was drawn up by a young Engineer officer and sanctioned. Had this assault been delivered the city would in all likelihood have been taken and held. . . . But owing to a series of accidents, the plan fell through—a miscarriage the more to be regretted because the early recapture of the city would in all human probability have put a stop to further outbreaks. As matters stood, however, the gallant little force before Delhi could barely hold its own. It was an army of observation perpetually harassed by an active enemy. As time went on, therefore, the question of raising the siege in favour of a movement towards Agra was more than once seriously discussed, but was fortunately abandoned. On July 5th, 1857, General Barnard died, worn out with fatigue and anxiety. He was succeeded in command by General Archdale Wilson, an officer who, possessing no special force of character, did little more than secure the safe defence of the position until the arrival of Brigadier Nicholson from the Punjab, August 14th, 1857, with a moveable column of 2,500 men, Europeans and Sikhs. And here we may leave Delhi, for the moment, deferring till later any further details of the siege. The city of Cawnpur, situated on the south bank of the river Ganges, 42 miles south-west of Lucknow and 270 miles from Delhi, lies about a mile from the river in a large sandy plain. On the strip of land between the river and the town, a space broken by ravines, stretched the Civil Station and cantonments. A more difficult position to hold in an extremity cannot well be conceived, occupied as it was by four disaffected Sepoy regiments with but Sixty European artillerymen to overawe them. There was, moreover, an incompetent commander. Realising after the disasters at Meerut and Delhi that his native garrison was not to be trusted, Sir Hugh Wheeler threw up a make-shift entrenchment close to the Sepoy lines. Commanded on all sides, it was totally unfitted to stand a siege. But a worse mistake was to follow. Alarmed as time went on at his growing difficulties, Sir Hugh Wheeler at length asked the notorious Nana Sahib [see above: 1848-1856], who lived a few miles off at Bithur, to assist him with troops to guard the Treasury. For some months previously this arch-traitor's emissaries had been spreading discontent throughout India, but he himself had taken care to remain on good terms with his European neighbours. He now saw his opportunity. Cawnpur, delivered into his hands by the misplaced confi-

dence of its defenders, was virtually in his keeping. Of European succour there was no immediate hope. The place was doomed. The crash came three days before General Barnard's force reached Delhi. With the exception of a few devoted natives who remained faithful to their salt, the whole Sepoy force on the 5th of June rose in revolt, opened the doors of the jail, robbed the treasury, and made themselves masters of the magazine. The Nana cast aside all further pretence of friendship and, joined by the mutinous troops, laid siege to the entrenchment already mentioned, which with culpable military ignorance had been thrown up in one of the worst positions that could have been chosen. The besieging army numbered some 3,000 men. The besieged could only muster about 400 English soldiers, more than 70 of which number were invalids. For twenty-one days the little garrison suffered untold horrors from starvation, heat, and the onslaughts of the rebels; until the General in command listened to overtures for surrender, and the garrison marched out on the 27th of June, to the number of about 450 souls, provided with a promise of safeguard from the Nana, who would allow them, as they thought, to embark in country boats for Allahabad. Tantia Topi, who afterwards became notorious in Central India, superintended the embarkation. No sooner, however, were the Europeans placed in the boats, in apparent safety, than a battery of guns concealed on the river banks opened fire, while at the same time a deadly fusillade of musketry was poured on the luckless refugees. The Nana at length ordered the massacre to cease. He celebrated what he called his glorious victory by proclaiming himself Peshwa or Maratha Sovereign, and by rewarding his troops for their 'splendid achievements,' while the wretched survivors of his treachery, numbering about 5 men and 206 women and children, were taken back to Cawnpur and confined in a small building for further vengeance and insult. On the 15th of July came the last act of this tragedy. The Nana, having suffered a crushing defeat at the hands of Brigadier Havelock's force within a day's march of Cawnpur, as will presently be recorded, put the whole of his prisoners to death. The men were brought out and killed in his presence, while the women and children were hacked to pieces by Muhammadan butchers and others in their prison. Their bodies were thrown into what is now known as the 'Cawnpur Well.' Lucknow, at the time of the Mutiny, was in population, in extent, and in the number and importance of its principal buildings, one of the foremost cities of India. . . . The Residency stood on a hill gently sloping towards the river, and was an imposing edifice of three stories. Near it were the iron and stone bridges over the river. . . . At the outbreak of the Mutiny the Sepoy regiments were stationed in various localities within the city; while the 32nd Foot, the only European regiment on the spot, was quartered in a barrack about a mile or so from the Residency. As was the case elsewhere, so it happened at Lucknow. While the population and native garrison were seething with sedition, the British authorities were hampered by ignorance of popular feeling, by the want of European troops, and by divided counsels. So, by the end of May, 1857, the rebellion in Oudh became an accomplished fact, although matters went on with comparative smoothness in Lucknow itself. At length, after a serious disaster at Chinhat, the British garrison was forced to withdraw to the Residency and its adjacent buildings; and on the 1st of July commenced the famous investment of this position by the rebel forces. The position was ill adapted for defence; for the lofty windows

of the Residency itself not only allowed free access to the enemy's missiles, but its roof was wholly exposed. On the opposite side of the street, leading from the Bailey Guard Gate, was the house of the Residency Surgeon, Dr. (now Sir Joseph) Fayer. It was a large but not lofty building with a flat roof which, protected by sand bags, afforded a good cover for our riflemen, and with a tyekhana, or underground story, that afforded good shelter for the women and children. But as a whole, the defences of the Residency were more formidable in name than in reality, and were greatly weakened by the proximity of high buildings from which the rebels without danger to themselves poured an unceasing fire. The siege had an ominous commencement. On July 4th the much-beloved Sir Henry Lawrence, the Resident, died of a wound received two days before from an enemy's shell that had fallen into his room. Brigadier Inglis succeeded him in command; and for three months the heroic garrison of about 1,700 souls held their weak position, amid inconceivable hardships and dangers, against thousands of the rebels who were constantly reinforced by fresh levies. It was well said in a general order by Lord Canning that there could not be found in the annals of war an achievement more heroic than this defence."—O. T. Burne, *Clyde and Strathknairn*, ch. 2.

Also IN: J. W. Kaye, *History of the Sepoy War in India*, v. 3, bk. 9, ch. 1-3.—Lord Roberts, *Forty-one years in India*.—G. O. Trevelyan, *Cawnpore*.—T. R. E. Holmes, *History of the Indian mutiny*, ch. 8-10.—Lady Inglis, *Siege of Lucknow*.

1857 (June-September).—Siege, storming and capture of Delhi.—Murder of the Mogul princes.—During the four months that followed the revolt at Delhi on the 11th of May, all political interest was centred at the ancient capital of the sovereigns of Hindustan. The public mind was occasionally distracted by the current of events at Cawnpore and Lucknow, as well as at other stations which need not be particularised; but so long as Delhi remained in the hands of the rebels, the native princes were bewildered and alarmed; and its prompt recapture was deemed of vital importance to the prestige of the British government, and the re-establishment of British sovereignty in Hindustan. The Great Mogul had been little better than a mummy for more than half a century; and Bahadur Shah was a mere tool and puppet in the hands of rebel sepoys; but nevertheless the British government had to deal with the astounding fact that the rebels were fighting under his name and standard, just as Afghans and Mahrattas had done in the days of Ahmad Shah Durani and Mahadaji Sindai. To make matters worse, the roads to Delhi were open from the south and east; and nearly every outbreak in Hindustan was followed by a stampede of mutineers to the old capital of the Moghuls. Meanwhile, in the absence of railways, there were unfortunate delays in bringing up troops and guns to stamp out the fires of rebellion at the head centre. The highway from Calcutta to Delhi was blocked up by mutiny and insurrection; and every European soldier sent up from Calcutta was stopped for the relief of Benares, Allahabad, Cawnpore, or Lucknow. But the possession of the Punjab at this crisis proved to be the salvation of the empire. Sir John Lawrence, the Chief Commissioner, was called upon to perform almost superhuman work:—to maintain order in a newly conquered province; to suppress mutiny and disaffection amongst the very sepoy regiments from Bengal who were supposed to garrison the country; and to send reinforcements of troops and guns, and supplies of all descriptions, to the siege of

Delhi. Fortunately the Sikhs had been only a few short years under British administration; they had not forgotten the miseries that prevailed under the native government, and could appreciate the many blessings they enjoyed under British rule. They were staunch to the British government, and eager to be led against the rebels. In some cases terrible punishment was meted out to mutinous Bengal sepoy within the Punjab; but the imperial interests at stake were sufficient to justify every severity, although all must regret the painful necessity that called for such extreme measures. . . . The defences of Delhi covered an area of three square miles. The walls consisted of a series of bastions, about sixteen feet high, connected by long curtains, with occasional martello towers to aid the flanking fire. . . . There were seven gates to the city, namely, Lahore gate, Ajmir gate, Turkoman gate, Delhi gate, Mori gate, Kabul gate, and Kashmir gate. The principal street was the Chandni Chouk, which ran in a direct line from the Delhi gate to the palace of the Moghuls. . . . For many weeks the British army on the Ridge was unable to attempt siege operations. It was, in fact, the besieged, rather than the besiegers; for, although the bridges in the rear were blown up, the camp was exposed to continual assaults from all the other sides. On the 23rd of June, the hundredth anniversary of the battle of Plassy, the enemy made a greater effort than ever to carry the British position. The attack began on the right from the Subzi Mundi, its object being to capture the Mound battery. Finding it impossible to carry the battery, the rebels confined themselves to a hand to hand conflict in the Subzi Mundi. The deadly struggle continued for many hours; and as the rebels came up in overwhelming numbers, it was fortunate that the two bridges in the rear had been blown up the night before, or the assault might have had a different termination. It was not until after sunset that the enemy was compelled to retire with the loss of a thousand men. Similar actions were frequent during the month of August; but meanwhile reinforcements were coming up, and the end was drawing nigh. In the middle of August, Brigadier John Nicholson, one of the most distinguished officers of the time, came up from the Punjab with a brigade and siege train. On the 4th of September a heavy train of artillery was brought in from Ferozepore. The British force on the Ridge now exceeded 3,000 men. Hitherto the artillery had been too weak to attempt to breach the city walls; but now fifty-four heavy guns were brought into position and the siege began in earnest. From the 8th to the 12th of September four batteries poured in a constant storm of shot and shell; number one was directed against the Kashmir bastion, number two against the right flank of the Kashmir bastion, number three against the Water bastion, and number four against the Kashmir and Water gates and bastions. On the 13th of September the breaches were declared to be practicable, and the following morning was fixed for the final assault upon the doomed city. At three o'clock in the morning of the 14th September, three assaulting columns were formed in the trenches, whilst a fourth was kept in reserve. The first column was led by Brigadier Nicholson; the second by Brigadier Jones; the third by Colonel Campbell; and the fourth, or reserve, by Brigadier Longfield. The powder bags were laid at the Kashmir gate by Lieutenants Home and Salkeld. The explosion followed, and the third column rushed in, and pushed towards the Juma Musjid. Meanwhile the first column under Nicholson escalated the breaches near the Kashmir gate, and pushed along the ramparts

towards the Kabul gate, carrying the several bastions in the way. Here it was met by the second column under Brigadier Jones, who had escalated the breach at the Water bastion. The advancing columns were met by a ceaseless fire from terraced houses, mosques, and other buildings; and John Nicholson, the hero of the day, whilst attempting to storm a narrow street near the Kabul gate, was struck down by a shot and mortally wounded."—J. T. Wheeler, *Short history of India, pt. 3, ch. 25*.—"The long autumn day was over, and we were in Delhi. But Delhi was by no means, ours. Sixty-six officers and 1,100 men—nearly a third, that is, of the whole attacking force—had fallen; while, as yet, not a sixth part of the town was in our power. How many men, it might well be asked, would be left to us by the time that we had conquered the remainder? We held the line of ramparts which we had attacked and the portions of the city immediately adjoining, but nothing more. The Lahore Gate and the Magazine, the Jumma Musjid and the Palace, were still untouched, and were keeping up a heavy fire on our position. Worse than this, a large number of our troops had fallen victims to the temptation which, more formidable than themselves, our foes had left behind them, and were wallowing in a state of bestial intoxication. The enemy, meanwhile, had been able to maintain their position outside the town; and if only, at this supreme hour, a heaven-sent General had appeared amongst them, they might have attacked our camp, defended as it was mainly by the sick, and the maimed, and the halt. . . . Never, perhaps, in the history of the Mutiny were we in quite so perilous a position as on the night which followed our greatest military success. General Wilson, indeed, proposed, as might have been expected of a man in his enfeebled condition of mind and body, to withdraw the guns, to fall back on the camp and wait for reinforcements there; a step which, it is needless to point out, would have given us all the deadly work to do over again, even if our force should prove able to maintain itself on the Ridge till reinforcements came. But the urgent remonstrances of Baird Smith and others, by word of mouth; of Chamberlain, by letter; and, perhaps, also, the echoes which may have reached him from the tempest-tossed hero who lay chafing against his cruel destiny on his deathbed, and exclaimed in a wild paroxysm of passion, when he heard of the move which was in contemplation, 'Thank God, I have strength enough left to shoot that man,' turned the General once more for his purpose. On the following day, the 15th, vast quantities of the intoxicating drinks, which had wrought such havoc amongst our men, were destroyed by General Wilson's order, and the streets literally ran with rivers of beer, and wine, and brandy. Meanwhile, the troops were sleeping off their drunken debauch; and on the 16th active operations were resumed. On that day the Magazine was taken, and its vast stores of shot and shell, and of all the 'material' of war, fell once more into the hands of their proper owners. By sapping gradually from house to house we managed, for three days more, to avoid the street-fighting which, once and again, has proved so demoralising to Englishmen; and, slowly but surely, we pressed back the defenders into that ever-narrowing part of the city of which, fortunately for themselves, they still held the bolt-holes. Many of them had already begun, like rats, to quit the sinking vessel. And now the unarmed population of the city flocked in one continuous stream out of the open gates, hoping to save their lives, if nothing else, from our avenging swords. On the 19th, the palace



of the Moguls, which had witnessed the last expiring flicker of life in an effete dynasty, and the cruel murder of English men, and women, and children, fell into our hands; and by Sunday, the 20th, the whole of the city—in large part already a city of the dead—was at our mercy. But what of the King himself and the Princes of the royal house? They had slunk off to the tomb of Humayoun, a huge building, almost a city in itself, some miles from the modern Delhi, and there, swayed this way and that, now by the bolder spirits of his army who pressed him to put himself at their head and fight it out to the death, as became the descendant of Tamerlane and Baber, now by the entreaties of his young wife, who was anxious chiefly for her own safety and that of her son, the heir of the Moguls; and now, again, by the plausible suggestions of a double-dyed traitor of his own house who was in Hodson's pay, and who, approaching the head of his family with a kiss of peace, was endeavoring to detain him where he was till he could hand him over to his employer and receive the price of blood, the poor old monarch dozed or fooled away the few hours of his sovereignty which remained, the hours which might still make or mar him, in paroxysms of imbecile vacillation and despair. The traitor gained the day, and Hodson, who could play the game of force as well as of fraud, and was an equal adept at either, learning from his craven-hearted tool that the King was prepared to surrender on the promise of his life, went to Wilson and obtained leave, on that condition, to bring him into Delhi. The errand, with such a promise tacked on to it, was only half to Hodson's taste. 'If I get into the Palace,' he had written in cool blood some days before, 'the house of Timour will not be worth five minutes' purchase, I ween.' . . . After two hours of bargaining for his own life and that of his queen and favourite son, the poor old Priam tottered forth and was taken back, in a bullock-cart, a prisoner, to his own city and Palace, and was there handed over to the civil authorities. But there were other members of the royal family, as Hodson knew well from his informants, also lurking in Humayoun's tomb. . . . With a hundred of his famous horse Hodson started for Humayoun's tomb, and, after three hours of negotiation, the three princes, two of them the sons, the other the grandson of the King, surrendered unconditionally into his hands. . . . Their arms were taken from them, and, escorted by some of his horsemen, they too were despatched in bullock-carts towards Delhi. With the rest of his horse [100 sowars] Hodson stayed behind to disarm the large and nerveless crowd, who, as sheep having no shepherd, and unable, in their paralysed condition, to see what the brute weight even of a flock of sheep might do by a sudden rush, were overawed by his resolute bearing. This done, he galloped after his prey and caught them up just before the cavalcade reached the walls of Delhi. He ordered the princes roughly to get out of the cart and strip,—for, even in his thirst for their blood, he had, as it would seem, an eye to the value of their outer clothes,—he ordered them into the cart again, he seized a carbine from one of his troopers, and then and there, with his own hand, shot them down deliberately one after the other. It was a stupid, cold-blooded, three-fold murder. . . . Had they been put upon their trial, disclosures of great importance as to the origin of the Mutiny could hardly fail to have been elicited. Their punishment would have been proportioned to their offence, and would have been meted out to them with all the patient majesty of offended law."—R. B. Smith, *Life of Lord Lawrence*, v. 2, ch. 5.—

Hodson was mortally wounded at the re-taking of Lucknow in the following March.

ALSO IN: R. Temple, *Lord Lawrence*, ch. 7.—Idem, *Men and events of my time in India*, ch. 7.—J. Cave-Brown, *Punjab and Delhi in 1857*.—G. B. Malleon, *History of the Indian mutiny*, v. 2, bk. 10, ch. 1.—Major Hodson, *Twelve years of a soldier's life in India*, pt. 2: *Delhi campaign*.—Lord Roberts, *Forty-one years in India*.

1857-1858 (July-June).—General Havelock's campaign.—Sir Colin Campbell's campaign.—Relief of Lucknow.—Substantial suppression of mutiny.—"Meanwhile the greatest anxiety prevailed with regard to our countrymen and countrywomen at Lucknow and Cawnpore. The Indian government made every effort to relieve them; but the reinforcements which had been despatched from England and China came in slowly, and the demands made for assistance far exceeded the means at the disposal of the government. . . . The task of relieving the city was entrusted to the heroic General Havelock, who marched out with a mere handful of men, of whom only 1,400 were British soldiers, to encounter a large army and a whole country in rebellion. At Futtehpore, on the 12th of July, he defeated a vastly superior force, posted in a very strong position. After giving his men a day's rest, he advanced again on the 14th, and routed the enemy in two pitched battles. Next morning he renewed his advance, and with a force of less than 900 men attacked 5,000 strongly entrenched, and commanded by Nana Sahib. They were outmanœuvred, outflanked, beaten and dispersed. But for this signal defeat they wreaked their vengeance on the unfortunate women and children who still remained at Cawnpore. On the very day on which the battle occurred, they were massacred under circumstances of cruelty over which we must throw a veil. The well of Cawnpore, in which their hacked and mutilated bodies were flung, presented a spectacle from which soldiers who had regarded unmoved the carnage of numerous battle-fields shrank with horror. Of all the atrocities perpetrated during this war, so fruitful in horrors, this was the most awful; and it was followed by a terrible retribution. It steeled the hearts, and lent a furious and fearless energy to the arms, of the British soldiery. Wherever they came, they gave no quarter to the mutineers; a few men often frantically attacked hundreds, frantically but vainly defending themselves; and never ceased till all had been bayoneted, or shot, or hewn in pieces. All those who could be shown to have been accomplices in the perpetration of the murders that had been committed were hung, or blown from the cannon's mouth. Though the intrepid Havelock was unable to save the women and children who had been imprisoned in Cawnpore, he pressed forward to Lucknow. But the force under his command was too small to enable him to drive off the enemy. Meanwhile Sir J. Outram, who was now returning from the Persian war, which had been brought to a successful conclusion, was sent to Oude as chief commissioner, with full civil and military power. This appointment was fully deserved; but it had the effect, probably not thought of by those who made it, of superseding Havelock just as he was about to achieve the crowning success of his rapid and glorious career. Outram, however, with a generosity which did him more real honour than a thousand victories would have conferred, wrote to Havelock to inform him that he intended to join him with adequate reinforcements; adding: 'To you shall be left the glory of relieving Lucknow, for which you have already struggled so much: I shall accompany you only in my civil

capacity as commissioner, placing my military service at your disposal, should you please, and serving under you as a volunteer.' Thus Havelock, after gaining no fewer than twelve battles against forces far superior in numbers to the little band he originally led, was enabled at length, on the 25th of August, to preserve the civilians, the women, and children of Lucknow from the impending horrors of another massacre, which would no doubt have been as fearful as that of Cawnpore. The Highlanders were the first to enter, and were welcomed with grateful enthusiasm by those whom they had saved from a fate worse than death. However, the enemy, recovering from the panic which the arrival of Havelock and his troops had caused, renewed the siege. Sir Colin Campbell, who had assumed the command of the Indian army, had determined to march to the relief of Lucknow. He set out from Cawnpore on the 9th of November, but was obliged to wait till the 14th for reinforcements, which were on the way to join him, and which raised the force under his command to 5,000—a force numerically far inferior to that which it was to attack. On the 17th of November the relief of Lucknow was effected. The music of the Highland regiments, playing 'The Campbells are coming,' announced to their delighted countrymen inside the city that the commander-in-chief himself was with the relieving force. Little time, however, was allowed for congratulations and rejoicings. The ladies, the civilians, and the garrison were quietly withdrawn; the guns, which it was thought not desirable to remove, were burst; and a retreat effected, without affording the enemy the slightest suspicion of what was going on until some hours after the town had been evacuated by its defenders. The retreating force reached Dil-hasha on the 24th, without having sustained any serious molestation. There the gallant Havelock sank under the trials and hardships to which he had been exposed, and yielded up the life which was instrumental in preserving so many others from the most terrible of deaths. While Sir Colin Campbell was engaged in effecting the relief of Lucknow, intelligence reached Cawnpore that a large hostile army was making towards it. General Windham, who commanded there, unacquainted with the number or the position of the approaching force, marched forth to meet it, in the hope that he should be able to rout and cut up the advanced guard before the main body of the enemy could come to its assistance. But in this expectation he was disappointed. Instead of having to deal with the van, he engaged with the whole rebel army, and his little force, assailed on all sides, was obliged to retire. He at once despatched a letter to the commander-in-chief, requesting him to hasten to his assistance; but it was intercepted by the enemy. Fortunately Sir Colin Campbell though ignorant of the critical position of his subordinate, came up just at the moment when the danger was at its height. This was on the 28th of November. He was, however, in no haste to attack the foe, and was content for the present merely to hold them in check. His first care was for the safety of the civilians, the women, and the children, which was not secured till the 30th; and he continued to protect them till the 5th of December, when they were all safely lodged at Allahabad. The enemy, unaware of the motive of his seeming inaction, imputed it to fear, and became every day more confident and audacious. On the 6th he at length turned fiercely on them, completely defeated them, and seized their baggage; he then dispersed and drove away another large force, under the command of Nana Sahib, which was watching the en-

agement at a little distance. The army entered the residence of Nana Sahib at Bithoor, and took possession of much treasure, which had been concealed in a well. Nearly the whole of the enemy's artillery was captured; and the army, being overtaken as they were in the act of crossing into Oude, great numbers of them were destroyed. Of course, for the moment Lucknow, being no longer garrisoned, had fallen into the hands of the insurgents; but they were not long permitted to retain it. Strong reinforcements arrived, and the Indian government was enabled to send a force against Lucknow sufficient to overwhelm all resistance; and on the 15th of December this important city was in the undisputed possession of the British troops. This final recovery of the capital of Oude decided the reconquest of that country. A struggle was, indeed, maintained for some time longer; innumerable battles were fought; and the final subjugation of the country was effected in the month of June, 1858."—W. N. Molesworth, *History of England*, v. 3, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: A. Forbes, *Havelock*, ch. 5-7.—O. T. Burne, *Clyde and Strathnairn*.—L. Shadwell, *Life of Colin Campbell*, Lord Clyde, v. 1, ch. 11, v. 2, ch. 1-18.—T. Lowe, *Central India during 1857-8*.

1858-1863.—Governor-general's proclamation. —Termination of rule of East India Company. —Government transferred to crown.—"By a singular circumstance, when the mutiny was suppressed in 1858, the Governor-General, who in the previous year had been condemned for leniency which was thought ill-timed, was destined to receive censure for harshness which was declared unnecessary. On the eve of the fall of Lucknow, he drew up a proclamation confiscating the lands of all the great landowners in Oudh. Exceptions were, indeed, made to this sweeping decree. Landowners who could prove their loyalty were promised exemption from it, just as rebels who unconditionally surrendered, and whose hands were not stained with British blood, were offered pardon. There is no doubt that Canning, in drawing up this proclamation, relied on the exceptions which it contained, while there is equally no doubt that the critics who objected to it overlooked its parentheses. But its issue was made the basis of an attack which well-nigh proved fatal to the Governor-General's administration. The chances of party warfare had replaced Palmerston with Derby; and the Conservative minister had entrusted the Board of Control to the brilliant but erratic statesman who, fifteen years before, had astonished India with pageant and proclamation. . . . Ellenborough thought proper to condemn Canning's proclamation in a severe despatch, and to allow his censure to be made public. For a short time it seemed impossible that the Governor-General who had received such a despatch could continue his government. But the lapse of a few days showed that the minister who had framed the despatch, and not the Viceroy who had received it, was to suffer from the transaction. The public, recollecting the justice of Canning's rule, the mercy of his administration, almost unanimously considered that he should not have been hastily condemned for a document which, it was gradually evident, had only been imperfectly understood; and Ellenborough, to save his colleagues, volunteered to play the part of Jonah, and retired from the ministry. His retirement closes, in one sense, the history of the Indian Mutiny. But the transactions of the Mutiny had, almost for the first time, taught the public to consider the anomalies of Indian government. In the course of a hundred years a Company had been suffered to acquire

an empire nearly ten times as large and as populous as Great Britain. It was true that the rule of the Company was in many respects nominal. The President of the Board of Control was the true head of the Indian Government, and spoke and acted through the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors. But this very circumstance only accentuated the anomaly. If the President of the Board of Control was in fact Indian minister, it was far simpler to make him Indian minister by name, and to do away with the clumsy expedient which alone enabled him to exercise his authority. Hence it was generally decided that the rule of the Company should cease, and that India should thenceforward become one of the possessions of the crown. . . . A great danger thus led to the removal of a great anomaly, and the vast Indian empire which Englishmen had won was thenceforward taken into a nation's keeping."—S. Walpole, *History of England*, v. 5, ch. 27.—The act "for the better government of India," which was passed in the autumn of 1858, "provided that all the territories previously under the government of the East India Company were to be vested in her Majesty, and all the Company's powers to be exercised in her name. One of her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State was to have all the power previously exercised by the Company, or by the Board of Control. The Secretary was to be assisted by a Council of India, to consist of fifteen members, of whom seven were to be elected by the Court of Directors from their own body, and eight nominated by the Crown. The vacancies among the nominated were to be filled up by the Crown; those among the elected by the remaining members of the Council for a certain time, but afterward by the Secretary of State for India. The competitive principle for the Civil Service was extended in its application, and made thoroughly practical. The military and naval forces of the Company were to be deemed the forces of her Majesty. A clause was introduced declaring that, except for the purpose of preventing or repelling actual invasion of India, the Indian revenues should not, without the consent of both Houses of Parliament, be applicable to defray the expenses of any military operation carried on beyond the external frontiers of her Majesty's Indian possessions. Another clause enacted that whenever an order was sent to India directing the commencement of hostilities by her Majesty's forces there, the fact should be communicated to Parliament within three months, if Parliament were then sitting, or, if not, within one month after its next meeting. These clauses were heard of more than once in later days. The Viceroy and Governor-General was to be supreme in India, but was to be assisted by a Council. India now has nine provinces, each under its own civil government, and independent of the others, but all subordinate to the authority of the Viceroy. In accordance with this Act the government of the Company, the famed 'John Company,' formally ceased on September 1st, 1858; and the Queen was proclaimed throughout India in the following November, with Lord Canning for her first Viceroy."—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, v. 3, ch. 36.—"Queen Victoria's Proclamation of November 1st, 1858, which is frequently referred to by educated Indians as the Magna Charta of their liberties, declared that the rights, dignity, and honour of Indian ruling princes were to be preserved as Her Majesty's own, and that, so far as might be, all Her Majesty's subjects, of whatever race and creed, were to be freely and impartially admitted to offices in the public service, the

duties of which they might be qualified by their education, ability, and integrity duly to discharge. The peaceful industry of India was to be stimulated; works of public utility and improvement were to be promoted; and the Government was to be administered for the benefit of all Her Majesty's subjects resident in India. 'In their prosperity will be our strength, in their contentment our security, and in their gratitude our great reward.'"—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, p. 15.

ALSO IN: T. Chailly, *Administrative problems of upper India*.—H. S. Cunningham, *Earl Canning*, ch. 7-9.—Duke of Argyll, *India under Dalhousie and Canning*.

1864-1893.—Progress of British India under the crown.—Viceroys and their contributions to upbuilding of British India.—Famine relief.—Conquest of Burma.—Strengthening of northwestern frontier.—Material and political progress.—The transfer of the government from the East India Company to the crown marked the commencement of a new era in the history of India. It was the prelude of greater political unity than had hitherto been possible, and the growth of a stronger feeling of nationality than had existed for centuries. "In spite of a hundred checks and many errors, in spite of individual acts of harshness and injustice that no impartial student can deny, Britain raised India to the status of a great empire. As centuries of disorder and division had led to ultimate union under Akbar, so the generations of disaster and disintegration that followed the decay of the Mogul Empire led by imperceptible degrees to the union of India under Great Britain. [Progress in this respect, however, was at first slow, and in the first quarter of a century was almost imperceptible.]"—Aga Khan, *India in transition*, pp. 73-74.—The first viceroy, Lord Canning, was succeeded by Lord Elgin, in 1862 but Elgin only lived until November, 1863. Lord Elgin was succeeded in 1864 by Sir John Lawrence, "the saviour of the Punjab. The chief incidents of his rule were the Bhutan war, followed by the annexation of the Dwars (*Dooars*), a submontane strip on the North-Eastern frontier of Bengal, in 1864, and the terrible Orissa famine of 1866. In a later famine in Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan in 1868-1869, Lord Lawrence laid down the principle, for the first time in Indian history, that the officers of the Government would be held personally responsible for taking every possible means to avert death by starvation. An inquiry was conducted into the status of the peasantry of Oudh, and an Act was passed with a view to securing them in their customary rights. After a period of fratricidal war among the sons of Dost Muhammad, the Afghan territories were concentrated in the hands of Sher Ali, who was acknowledged as Amir by Lord Lawrence. A commercial crisis took place in 1866, which seriously threatened the young tea industry in Bengal, and caused widespread ruin at Bombay. Sir John Lawrence retired in January 1869. . . . Lord Mayo succeeded Lord Lawrence in 1869, and urged on the material progress of India. . . . Lord Mayo reformed several of the great branches of the administration, created an Agricultural Department, and introduced the system of Provincial Finance. The impulse to local self-government given by the last measure has done much, and will do more, to develop and husband the revenues of India, to quicken the sense of responsibility among the English administrators, and to awaken political life among the people. Lord Mayo also laid the foundation for

the reform of the salt duties. He thus enabled his successors to abolish the old pernicious customs-lines which had for long walled off Province from Province, and strangled the trade between British India and the Feudatory States. He developed the material resources of the country by an immense extension of roads, railways, and canals. He carried out the beneficent system of public works which Lord Dalhousie had inaugurated. Lord Mayo's splendid vigour defied alike climate and the vast tasks which he imposed on himself. He anxiously and laboriously studied with his own eyes the wants of the farthest Province of the empire. But his life . . . was cut short by the hand of an assassin, in the convict settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872. . . . His successor was Lord Northbrook, whose ability found prominent scope in the department of finance. During his viceroyalty, a famine which threatened Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully averted by a vast organization of State relief. The Maráthá Gáekwár of Baroda was dethroned in 1875 for misgovernment, and for his attempt to poison the British Resident at his Court. But his dominions were continued to a child of his race. . . . Lord Lytton followed Lord Northbrook in 1876. On January 1, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at a *darbár* [public ceremony] of unparalleled magnificence, held on the historic 'ridge' overlooking the ancient Mughal capital of Delhi. But while the princes and high officials of the country were flocking on this gorgeous scene, the shadow of famine was darkening over Southern India. The monsoons of 1876 had failed to bring their due supply of rain, and the season of 1877 was little better. This long-continued drought stretched from the Deccan to Cape Comorin, and subsequently invaded Northern India, causing a famine more widely spread than any similar calamity known in Indian history. Despite vast importations of grain by sea and rail, despite the most strenuous exertions of the Government, which incurred a total expenditure on this account of 11 millions sterling, the loss of life from actual starvation and its attendant train of diseases was lamentable. The deaths from want of food, and from the diseases incident to a famine-stricken population, were estimated at 5¼ millions. . . . The years 1882 and 1883 will be memorable for these great measures. By repealing the Vernacular Press Act, he set free the native journals from the last restraints on the free discussion of public questions. His scheme of Local Self-Government has opened a new era of political life to the natives of India. At the same time, by the appointment of an Education Commission, with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, he has sought to fit the people for the safe exercise of the rights which he has conferred. He also laid the foundations for the great measure of land-legislation for Bengal which was passed into law under his successor, Lord Dufferin. In 1882, Lord Ripon's Finance Minister, Sir Evelyn Baring, took off the import duties on cotton goods, and the whole Indian import duties were, with a few exceptions, abolished. . . . The Earl of Dufferin succeeded as Viceroy, 1884. . . . Towards the end of 1885 the persistent misconduct of King Thebau in Upper Burma, his ill-treatment of British subjects, and his rejection of all conciliatory offers, led to an army being sent against him, under General Prendergast. The King was dethroned and removed to India. On the 1st January, 1886, his territories were annexed, and soon afterwards were constituted a British province together with Lower Burma un-

der a Chief Commission. [See BURMA: 1824-1886.] . . . Under Lord Lansdowne's rule (with Sir Frederick, afterwards Lord, Roberts as his Commander-in-Chief) the defences of the North-western frontier of India were strengthened, and the Passes from Afghánistán secured against any possible invaders. At the same time, the Native chiefs were allowed to take a more important position than before in the armies of India. A number of them had come forward with offers of money and troops to aid in the defence of the country. Under Lord Lansdowne these offers were accepted. Many of the Feudatories now maintain regiments, carefully drilled and armed, which in time of war would serve with the troops of the British Government. These regiments, kept up free of cost to the British Government, are a free-will offering to it from the loyalty of the Native princes, who have greatly prospered under British rule. They served with distinction in China in 1900. The institution by Lord Curzon of the Imperial Cadet Corps for young Indian chiefs and nobles, without necessarily leading to a military career may give additional force and interest to the association of the British and Native troops. While the Native princes are thus zealous to aid the Sovereign Power, the people and races in the British provinces have been learning the first lessons of local self-government. Municipal Councils and District Boards have, during the past forty years, been gradually created throughout India. Their members consist chiefly of Native gentlemen, many of whom are elected by their fellow citizens. These Municipal Councils and District Boards now manage many branches of the Local Administration. Their legal powers and their practical ability to do good work are increasing. At the same time, a 'National Congress' of delegates from all parts of India has since 1886 been held each December in one of the provincial capitals, such as Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Allahábád. This Congress discusses plans for opening a larger share in the work of legislation and in the higher branches of the executive administration, to natives of India. In 1892 the British Parliament passed an Act which increased the number of the members of the Legislative Councils, and introduced a stronger non-official element. Under that Act the Local Governments in India worked out a system of electing members to the Legislative Councils in accordance with the needs and conditions of each province. The year 1893 will be memorable for the first general election of representative members to the Indian Legislative Councils. Side by side with this political movement, efforts (which to a partial extent were embodied into legislation by Lord Lansdowne) are being made to reform certain evils in the social and domestic life of the Hindus, arising out of the customs of child-marriage and of the enforced celibacy of Hindu widows. The whole tendency of these efforts, under the guidance of the social reformer Mr. Malabari, is to protect young Indian girls and to improve the status of Indian women."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, pp. 231-237.—See also BURMA: 1824-1886; 1886-1890.

1866.—Straits settlements made a separate crown colony. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1876-1913.—Development of irrigation.—Use of canals. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1876-1913.

1878-1881.—Relations with Afghanistan.—Pol-

icy of Lords Lawrence and Mayo. See **AFGHANISTAN**: 1869-1881.

1881.—**Represented at International Conference on Bimetallism.** See **MONEY AND BANKING**: Modern: 1867-1893.

1882.—**Status of postal savings banks.** See **POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS**: 1882.

1883.—**Quetta ceded to British on quit-rent basis.** See **QUETTA**.

1885-1922.—**National Congress.**—The National Congress was founded in 1885 by Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian civil service, who had been home secretary for the government of India. "The policy of Lord Lytton's Government (1876-80) had aroused discontent in the country. The imposition of the Vernacular Press Act, commonly known as the Black Act, and the . . . Second Afghan War were the subject of much adverse criticism. . . . It was recognised in all quarters that the people should organise themselves by way of a conference to ventilate their grievances." Correspondence was passing among the Indian leaders of thought in the different provinces as to the formation of such a conference on a sound and permanent footing. The viceroyalty of Lord Ripon (1880-84) gave the necessary stimulus and encouragement. . . . Progress was so far made as to formulate the programme of a first meeting in Poona which at the time was the seat of great political activity. The Christmas week of 1885 was resolved upon for the inauguration of the Conference, . . . [but owing to an outbreak of cholera the first assembly was held in Bombay under the auspices of the Bombay Presidency Association. . . . As to the fundamental principles of the Congress they are:—*Firstly*, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India; *Secondly*, the gradual regeneration along all lines, mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved; and *Thirdly* the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country. . . . [It was on these fundamental principles that the Congress carried out its work] till 1907 when an extreme faction of delegates deliberately chose to raise a split in the united camp. At the Congress held in Surat in that year the session had to be abandoned owing to the violent outbreak of the factional spirit of those who since have been known as 'Extremists,' in contrast with the overwhelming majority of those entertaining sober views who are called 'Moderates;' but if the proceedings were for the time abandoned, it was not without the leading men immediately organising themselves on the spot to take ways and means for the holding of future congresses and for the purpose of framing a written constitution of which the most important part was the creed of the Congress, . . . [which] may be repeated here: . . . 'The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members [of the empire]. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial resources of the country.' For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916. . . . But the union then effected was purely superficial; the difference between the Moderates

and the Extremists was fundamental; the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and . . . in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr. Gandhi. . . . In the hot weather following . . . the report of the Hunter Committee on the disturbances in the Punjab was published. This aroused very bitter hostility in India. In order to deal with these and other political questions which had developed, a special session of the Indian National Congress was held at Calcutta in September under the presidency of Lala Lajpat Rai. This Congress was dominated by the influence of Mr. G. K. Gandhi who launched his non-co-operation programme and received the assent of a majority of the delegates. . . . [The non-co-operation programme included surrender of titles and nominated posts, refusal to attend government functions, withdrawal of children from government schools and colleges, boycott of British law courts, of recruiting, and of foreign goods, refusal to run for seats on the councils, and Swadeshi. The Congress held in the following December affirmed these recommendations, changed the constitution to a claim for *Swarajya* or full independence, which it claimed within one year, and called for non-violence, non-co-operation and Hindu-Muslim unity.] The activities of the non-co-operators were directed for the first three months of the year mainly on the boycott of law courts and Government controlled schools. . . . [A large number of students left the schools and colleges. It is stated that about 900 lawyers suspended practice and about 2,600 arbitration courts were started.]—*Indian Year Book*, 1922, pp. 686-687, 689.

1887.—**Baluchistan made part of British India.** See **BALUCHISTAN**: 1876-1887.

1893-1914.—**Suspension of free coinage of silver.—Gold standard reserve.**—In June, 1893, the Indian government, with the approval of the British cabinet, stopped the free coinage of silver, with a view to the introduction of a gold standard. The government, it was announced, while stopping the coinage of the declining metal for private persons, would continue on its own account to coin rupees in exchange for gold at a ratio then fixed at sixteen pence sterling per rupee. "The closing of the mints of British India to the coinage of silver coins of full-debt-paying power is the most momentous event in the monetary history of the present century. It is the final and disastrous blow to the use of silver as a measure of value and as money of full-debt-paying power, and the relegation of it to the position of a subsidiary, or token metal. It is the culmination of the evolution from a silver to a gold standard which has been progressing with startling rapidity in recent years. . . . The remarkable series of events which have characterized, or made manifest, this evolution from a silver to a gold standard are nearly all condensed in the brief period of twenty years, and are probably without a parallel in ancient or modern monetary history. . . . With the single exception of England, all Europe forty years ago had the silver standard, not only legally but actually—silver coins constituting the great bulk of the money of actual transactions. To-day, not a mint in Europe is open to the coinage of full-debt-paying silver coins, and the gateways of the Orient have been closed against it. Twenty years ago one ounce of gold exchanged in the markets of the world for fifteen and one-half ounces of silver; to-day, one ounce of gold will buy nearly thirty ounces of silver. . . . There is a general

impression that silver has been the money of India from remote generations. This is a fallacy. It has not been a great many years since India adopted the silver standard. The ancient money of the Hindoo was gold, which in 1818 was supplemented by silver, but gold coins remained legal tender until 1835, when silver was made the sole standard of value and legal tender money in British India, and gold was demoted. . . . During the last fifty odd years, India has absorbed vast quantities of silver."—E. O. Leech, *Doom of silver* (*Forum*, Aug., 1893).—"A fund styled the *Gold Standard reserve* was created in 1900, when, after six years' inactivity since the closing of the mints, the coinage of new rupees began again on a large scale. It was decided that the net profits of coinage should not be spent as revenue but formed into this Reserve and held in England in the form of sterling securities. In 1906 the *silver branch* of the Gold Standard Reserve was created. It is held in India and consists of rupees, (maximum limit 6 crores), so that when a sudden demand for rupees arises through the needs of the export trade, the Government may issue rupees from this Reserve, while the sterling equivalent of the amount is added to the London portion of the Reserve. Thus any dangerous depletion of the Paper Currency Reserve and temporary shortage of rupees in India is avoided. In 1907 it was decided to invest half the net profit of future coinage in the capital expenditure on railways. This was done for two years only, and then forbidden till the sterling assets of the Reserve should exceed 25 millions. . . . In 1912 it was decided to hold a portion of this fund in the form of a 'very liquid' or *cash* gold Reserve in England not exceeding 5 millions sterling, because, during the monetary crisis of 1908 the Secretary of State had had to sell his securities in a hurry and at a loss in order to cash the Sterling bills. In 1914, in accordance with the recommendations of the Chamberlain Commission, the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve was abolished, by being converted into gold."—J. Sarkar, *Economics of British India*, pp. 296-297.

1894.—*Waziri War*.—A fierce attempt to interrupt the demarcation of the Afghan boundary was made by the Waziris. The escort of 5,000 troops, consisting mainly of Sikhs and Gurkhas, was desperately attacked in camp at Wano, November 3. The attack was repulsed, but with heavy loss on the British side. It became afterwards necessary to send three strong columns into the country, under Sir William Lockhart, in order to carry out the work.

1895 (March-September).—*Defense and relief of Chitral*.—*British frontier advanced*.—At the extreme northwestern limit of British-Indian dominion and semi-dominion, under the shadow of the lofty Hindu-Kush mountains, lies a group of quasi-independent tribal states over which the amir of Afghanistan claimed at least a "sphere of influence" until 1893. In that year the amir and the government of India agreed upon a line which defined the eastern and southern frontier of Afghanistan, "from Wakhan to the Persian border," and agreed further as follows: "The Government of India will at no time exercise interference in the territories lying beyond this line on the side of Afghanistan, and his Highness the Amir will at no time exercise interference in the territories lying beyond this line on the side of India. The British Government thus agrees to his Highness the Amir retaining Asmar and the valley above it, as far as Chanak. His Highness agrees, on the other hand, that he will at no

time exercise interference in Swat, Bajaur, or Chitral, including Arnawai or Bashgal valley." Under this agreement, the Indian government prepared itself to be watchful of Chitral affairs. The little state was notoriously a nest of turbulence and intrigue. Its rulers, who bore the Persian title of mehtar, signifying "Greater," can never have expected to live out their days. Changes of government were brought about commonly by assassination. The reigning prince, Nizam-ul-Mulk, owed his seat to the murder of his father, Aman-ul-Mulk, though not by himself. In turn, he fell, on New Year's day, 1895, slain at the instigation of his half-brother, Amir-ul-Mulk, who mounted the vacant chair of state. The usurper was then promptly assailed by two rivals, one of them his brother-in-law, Umra Khan, a mountain chieftain of Bajaur, the other an uncle, Sher Afzul, who had been a refugee at Kabul. On the news of these occurrences at Chitral, the government of India sent thither, from Gilgit, its political agent, Surgeon-Major Robertson, with a small escort, to learn the state of affairs. The result of Dr. Robertson's attempt to settle matters was an alliance of Umra Khan and Sher Afzul in a desperate attempt to destroy him and his small force of native troops, which had five English officers at its head. The latter took possession (March 1) of the fort at Chitral, a structure about eighty yards square, walled partly with wood, and so placed in a valley that it was commanded from neighboring hills. In this weak fortification the little garrison held off a savage swarm of the surrounding tribes during forty-six days of a siege that is as thrilling in the story of it as any found in recent history. The first reinforcements sent to Dr. Robertson, from near Gilgit, were disastrously beaten back, with the loss of the captain in command and fifty of his men. As speedily as possible, when the situation was known in India, an army of about 14,000 men was made ready at Peshawar, under the command of Major-General Sir Robert Low, and relieving columns were pushed with great difficulty through the Malakand pass, then filled deep with snow. A smaller force, of 600 men, under Colonel Kelly, fought its way from Gilgit, struggling through the snows of a pass 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Colonel Kelly was the first to reach Chitral, which he did on April 20. The besiegers had fled at his approach. The beleaguered garrison was found to have lost forty killed and seventy wounded, out of its fighting force of about 370 men. Sher Afzul was caught by the khan of Dir, who led 2,000 of his followers to the help of the British. Umra Khan escaped to Kabul, where he was imprisoned by the amir. Shuja-ul-Mulk, a younger brother of Amir-ul-Mulk was declared mehtar. The question whether British authority should be maintained in Chitral or withdrawn was now sharply debated in England; but Lord Salisbury and his party, coming into power at that moment, decided that the advanced frontier of Indian Empire must be held. The young mehtar was installed in the name of the maharaja of Kashmir as his suzerain, and the terms under which his government should be carried on were announced at his installation (Sept. 2, 1895) by the British agent, as follows:

"The general internal administration of the country will be left in the hands of the Mehtar and of his advisers. The Government of India do not intend to undertake themselves the management of the internal affairs of Chitral, their concern being with the foreign relations of the State, and with its general welfare. It, how-

ever, has to be remembered that Shuja-ul-Mulk is only a boy, and that, at an age when other boys are engaged in education and amusement, he has been called upon to hold the reins of State. Bearing this fact in mind, the Government of India recognise the necessity of his receiving some help during the time of his minority, and it has consequently been decided to leave at Chitral an experienced Political Officer upon whom the Mehtar may always call for advice and assistance, while it is proposed to appoint three persons, Raja Bahadur Khan, the Governor of Mastuj, Wazir Inayat Khan and Aksakal Fateh Ali Shah, to give him help, instruction and advice in the management of his State and in the laws and customs of the people. Ordinarily the entire country will be governed in accordance with their experience and judgment; but nevertheless the Assistant British Agent, if he thinks it necessary to do so, may, at any time, ask the Mehtar to delay action recommended by his three advisers, until the opinion of the British Agent at Gilgit has been obtained, whose decision shall be final and authoritative.

"The desirability of abolishing traffic in slaves is a matter to which the Government of India attach much importance, and that they have lately interested themselves with some success in procuring the release of Natives of Kashmir and her dependencies, including Chitralis, who are held in bondage in Chinese Turkistan. It is in accordance therefore with the general policy of the Government of India that in Chitral also all buying and selling of slaves, whether for disposal in the country or with the intention of sending them abroad, should be altogether prohibited. Any such selling of slaves is therefore from this time forward absolutely illegal."—Great Britain, *Parliamentary Publications: Papers by Command*, 1896 (C-8037).

ALSO IN: C. Lowe, *Story of Chitral* (*Century Magazine*, v. 55, p. 89).

1895 (April).—Report of opium commission.—"The long-deferred publication of the report of this commission was made in April, and the report was signed by eight out of nine members of the commission. The commissioners declared that it had not been shown to be necessary, or to be demanded by the people, that the growth of the poppy and the manufacture of opium in British India should be prohibited. Such a prohibition, if extended to the protected States, would be an unprecedented act of interference on the part of the paramount Power, and would be sure to be resisted by the chiefs and their people. The existing treaties with China in regard to the importation of Indian opium into that country had been admitted by the Chinese Government to contain all they desired. The evidence led the commissioners to the conclusion that the common use of opium in India is moderate, and its prohibition is strongly opposed by the great mass of native opinion."—*Annual Register*, 1895, pp. 337-338.

1897-1898.—Frontier wars.—From the early summer of 1897 until the close of the year the British troops were engaged in suppressing uprisings on the Afghan frontier, first among the Afghans, and then among the Afridis who had been subsidized by the government as guardians of the Khyber Pass. The final results of the campaign are thus summarized in the political reports: "British troops traversed the country of the tribes, inflicting severe loss on the tribesmen; who were ultimately reduced to submission; they paid large fines in money and arms, and friendly relations

have been restored."—Great Britain, *House of Commons Reports and Papers*, 1900, No. 13.

1899-1901.—Famine.—Lord Curzon's report.—Lord Curzon, who had been appointed in 1898 to succeed Lord Elgin, found himself faced with one of the worst famines in history, and for a time all the energies of the government were concentrated in an almost unparalleled system of famine relief. In reporting to the Legislative Council at Simla on the experience, in October 1900, Lord Curzon said: "In a greater or less degree, nearly one-fourth of the entire population of the Indian continent came within the range of the relief operations. The loss occasioned may be roughly put in this way. The annual agricultural production of India and Burma averages in value between 300 and 400 crores of rupees [the crore being ten millions, and the rupee equivalent to about one-third of a dollar]. On a very cautious estimate the production of 1899-1900 must have been at least one-quarter, if not one-third, below the average, or at normal prices 75 crores, or £50,000,000 sterling. If to this be added the value of some millions of cattle, some conception may be formed of the destruction of property which great drought occasions. There have been many great droughts in India, but no other of which such figures could be predicted as these. . . . If a special characteristic can be attributed to our campaign of famine relief in the past year, it has been its unprecedented liberality. There is no parallel in the history of India or any country of the world to the total of over 6,000,000 persons who, in British India and the native States for weeks on end, have been dependent upon the charity of the Government. The famine cost ten crores in direct expenditure, while 238 lakhs were given to landholders and cultivators on loans and advances, besides loans to native States. . . . There has never been a famine when the general mortality has been less, when the distress has been more amply or swiftly relieved, or when the Government and its officers have given themselves with more whole-hearted devotion to the saving of life and the service of the people. It is impossible to tell the actual mortality, but there has apparently been an excess of mortality over the normal of 750,000. Cholera and smallpox have accounted for 230,000, which is probably below the mark, so that the excess in British India has equalled 500,000 during the year. To say that the greater part of these died of starvation or even of destitution would be an unjustifiable exaggeration, since many other contributory causes have been at work."

1902-1907.—Military reforms of Lord Kitchener.—"When he reached India, Lord Kitchener [who was made commander-in-chief in 1902] found that the army united great merits with grave defects. It did not provide that offensive power that could properly have been expected from its numbers and its cost. It did not exploit all the martial races which were available for its services, and it used others, softer in texture and of little service in real war. The distribution of the army was defective, and . . . [not in] accord with railroad facilities and a changed strategic situation. It was not self-supporting in material of war, and the armament of the troops, though improving, was still much behind the times. There was scarcely a single military requisite that had been completely supplied to the four poorly organized divisions which formed the field army, and scarcely any preparations had been made for maintaining the army in the field. The content of the Indian army had not been assured

by adequate provision for its material well-being. Lastly, the higher administrations of the army was laborious in operation and inefficient in results owing to a system of dual control. . . . Lord Kitchener's plans for the redistribution and the reorganization of the Army received . . . [the unswerving support of the Viceroy until] unfortunate differences of opinion arose on the question of the Military Department which caused a grave crisis and arrested for long the execution of reforms. . . . [By] the settlement finally made, the question of the Military Department was . . . laid at rest. . . . [The Commander-in-chief in India was placed in charge of the] Army Department which was invested with all the powers and duties of the old Military Department, excepting only those relating to supply, which were confided to a separate department, whose chief became an ordinary member of the Governor-General's Council. . . . The compromise worked well. . . . [But the experience of three more years showed the lack of necessity for the Supply Department, which was] abolished, and its duties distributed among the Head-quarters Staff. . . . [Lord Kitchener's plan, which began to take shape in the autumn of 1904,] was to redistribute the troops according to the requirements of the defence of India, to train all arms together at suitable centres, and to give larger powers to division commanders. Decentralization of work and devolution of responsibility, were the keynotes of this as of all Lord Kitchener's reforms. . . . The idea was to secure complete and thorough training for war in recognized war formations, to enable the whole of the nine divisions in which he proposed to arrange the army to take the field in a high state of efficiency, while leaving behind them sufficient troops [three independent brigades] for the support of the civil power in the repression of rebellion. . . . The Sepoy . . . greatly benefited during Lord Kitchener's tenure of the command-in-chief. Thanks to the wise generosity of Lord Morley and his council, the pay of all the ranks has been much improved while a higher pension scale, [better clothing allowances, and other emoluments] increased the popularity of the service. . . . Grass and dairy farms have been established all over India, and the Medical service has been very successful in reducing the waste in the army from disease. It . . . [was] the object of Lord Kitchener, as it was the object of Lord Lawrence, not only to make the Indian army formidable, but to make it safe. The principle of maintaining the artillery mainly in the hands of Europeans has not been departed from, and there are now fewer native batteries in existence than when Lord Kitchener arrived in India. . . . It is recognized now that Lord Kitchener had no aim in view but that of military efficiency; that he wisely decentralized much work that was formerly congested; that he doubled the fighting power of the army and made it available in a shorter time; that he upset no cherished tradition that was worth cherishing; and that he left the Indian army stronger, better trained, better paid, and more contented than he found it."—Military correspondent of the Times, *Essays*, pp. 136-137, 140-141.

1903.—Lease of Nasrabad from Khan of Kalat. See BALUCHISTAN: 1903-1014.

1903 (January).—Durbar at Delhi.—"The Imperial durbar was held on the 1st of January, 1903, to proclaim formally the coronation of King Edward VII., Emperor of India, and Lord Curzon, with remarkable success, carried out his plan to make the occasion one of extraordinary splendor. It brought together for the first time

all of the native princes of India, who, in the presence of each other, renewed their pledges of loyalty and offered their homage to the throne. No spectacle of greater pomp and splendor has ever been witnessed in Europe or Asia or any other part of the world since the days of the Moguls. . . . Lord Curzon has been criticised severely in certain quarters for the 'barbaric splendor and barbaric extravagance of this celebration,' but people familiar with the political situation in India and the temper of the native princes have not doubted for a moment the wisdom which inspired it and the importance of its consequences. . . . The Emperor of India, by the durbar, recognized those racial peculiarities, and not only gratified them but made himself a real personality to the native chiefs instead of an abstract proposition. It swept away jealousies and brought together ruling princes who had never seen each other until then. It broke down what Lord Curzon calls 'the water-tight compartment system of India.' 'Each province,' he says, 'each native state, is more or less shut off by solid bulkheads from its neighbors. The spread of railways and the relaxation of social restrictions are tending to break them down, but they are still very strong. Princes who live in the south have rarely ever in their lives seen or visited the states of the north. Perhaps among the latter are chiefs who have rarely ever left their homes. It cannot but be a good thing that they should meet and get to know each other and exchange ideas. To the East there is nothing strange, but something familiar and even sacred,' continued Lord Curzon, 'in the practice that brings sovereigns together with their people in ceremonies of solemnity. Every sovereign in India did it in the old days; every chief in India does it now; and the community of interest between the sovereign and his people, to which such a function testifies and which it serves to keep alive, is most vital and most important.' And the durbar demonstrated the wisdom of those who planned it. The expense was quite large. The total disbursements by the government were about \$880,000, and it is probable that an equal amount was expended by the princes and other people who participated."—W. E. Curtis, *Modern India*, pp. 264-265.

1905.—Earthquakes in the Punjab and United Provinces.—One of the most terrific of earthquakes occurred in Northern India on the 4th of April, 1905. Its most violent and destructive effects were in the Kangra District of the Punjab, and its neighborhood; but the area of shock extended over several thousand square miles. The finally ascertained and estimated loss of human life was no less in number than 373,000. The villages destroyed numbered 400. As for the destruction of property, including houses, bridges, irrigation works, cattle, and crops, it was beyond computation.

1905-1910.—Growth of discontent.—Partition of Bengal.—Outbreak of political crime.—Discontent and unrest began to ferment in India long before the administration of Lord Curzon, which is generally given as the period when they first began to show themselves. In fact there were indications of their presence in the late nineties. "At Poona, the Peshwa's former capital, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, 'the father of Indian unrest,' became prominent in the nineties and carried on an increasingly violent anti-British campaign until his trial and imprisonment for sedition in 1908. His punishment was not an autocrat reprisal for an academic offence: his newspapers were directly responsible for assassina-



tion. The movement spread from the Deccan to Bengal, where Lord Curzon's educational reforms tended to remove university control from incompetent hands. The storm broke in the year following the Act for that purpose, and the projected partition of the province was made its pretext. . . . Here again a violent newspaper campaign produced a crop of shootings and bomb outrages. Constructively the agitation took two forms, a demand for 'swaraj' or self-government, and an advocacy of 'swadeshi' or the promotion of home industries by the boycott of British manufactures. Mingled with these political considerations was a great deal of religious fervour which leavened the whole."—J. A. Williamson, *Short history of British expansion*, p. 502.—"The so-called partition of Bengal was not originally planned by the Viceroy [Lord Curzon]. The discussion about the rearrangement of certain provincial boundaries had begun among his subordinates in 1901, but no definite proposal was made until two years later, in 1903, when the Lieutenant-governor of Bengal propounded a certain plan for lightening the intolerable burden resting upon his shoulders."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, p. 774.—"No one has ever seriously denied that the old province of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa was, by reason of its magnitude, an impossible and, because impossible, a sadly neglected charge. The Supreme Government had been slow to realise that times had altered since 1785, when Warren Hastings, reviewing his eventful administration, wrote that the submissive character of the people of this province, the fewness of their wants, 'the abundant sources of subsistence and of trafficable wealth which may be drawn from the natural productions, and from the manufactures, both of established usage and of new institutions, left little to the duty of the magistrate; in effect nothing but attention, protection, and forbearance.' No soldiers of the Indian Army had been drawn from Bengal, and Bengalis had taken no share in the rebellion of 1857. But as prosperity and population increased, as English education spread, administration became more complex, and the character of the educated classes stiffened and altered. The charge of 78,000,000 of people, including the inhabitants of the largest and most Europeanised city in the East, was far too onerous for one provincial administration; and, after considerable deliberation and consultation, [and public discussion] Lord Curzon decided to divide the old province and Assam into the new provinces of Western Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Eastern Bengal and Assam. Administratively, this was the best arrangement. It afforded most promise of opening up and developing the rich, difficult, and populous water districts of Eastern Bengal. But it split Bengal proper into two, and gave Muhammadans a decided majority in the Eastern Province. It was, therefore, strongly opposed by the Congress leaders at Calcutta, the centre of Hindu legal, educational, and political activities. They proclaimed that a foreign government wished to insult and efface Bengali nationality. When the partition was carried out, they enlisted ardent support from sympathisers all over India, proclaimed a boycott of European goods, to be effected by the aid of students and schoolboys, and organised a violent agitation on a widespread and elaborate scale. Many of them were moved by a new kind of sentiment. The achievements of Japan had profoundly affected Indian political thought. Their plans took time to develop, and were largely suspended during the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales, which passed off successfully in the cold season of 1905-6. Before the Congress of

1905 met at Benares, Lord Curzon had left India, and the Unionist Ministry in England had been followed by [a liberal government]. . . . No viceroy has ever played a part larger than the part played by Lord Curzon. His influence on all branches of administration was vigorous and beneficial; he placed the arrangements for the security of the North-West frontier on a stable footing; he set an example of industry and devotion. . . . But we can see now that his bold and confident nature led him to underrate the combination between the opposition to the Partition of Bengal and the new spirit which had arisen in India. The loosening of control which was certain to follow on his departure; the number and bitterness of his enemies, their eagerness and the anxiety of those who resented British rule to seize any opportunity of misinterpreting all government measures, the plastic material which lay ready to their hands; all these were factors of so far undiscovered potency."—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, pp. 57-60.—"In England a Liberal government came into power at the close of 1905, and Lord Morley, a life-long radical and a deep student of history, took office as secretary for India. His policy was one of repression of unconstitutional violence, whether in word or deed, accompanied by concession to all legitimate aspirations to reform."—J. Williamson, *Short history of British expansion*, p. 502.—During his administration unrest, fed by secret societies, and encouraged by the continued vilification by the native press of the British administration, continued to increase.—"In the Punjab, after half a century of tranquil loyalty, the disturbance broke out in 1907. The province had suffered the interests of certain classes. These misfortunes gave point to the general movement of revolt against western influence shared with the rest of India. 'Arya (i.e. India) for the Aryans' became as elsewhere a popular cry, and seditious books and newspapers its methods of exposition. [In 1909 it was hoped that the Indian Councils Act would allay discontent and provide a means of political education; but these hopes were vain.] The deportation of Lajpat Rai, a prominent ring-leader, checked the agitation, and by 1910 the more violent manifestations of discontent had temporarily subsided throughout India. During all this period the Indian princes had been firmly on the side of the government; some of them indeed had been as bitterly attacked as the British officials. The Mohammedans also had kept aloof from sedition, and of the Hindu population the vast majority had been unaffected. Nevertheless the importance of such movements is not to be estimated by the number of persons taking part in them. Most revolutions have been carried out by minorities."—*Ibid.*—"The nature of the dangers to which the State was exposed in February, 1910, is indicated sufficiently by the following extract from Sir Herbert Risley's speech in the Legislative Council: 'We are at the present moment confronted with a murderous conspiracy, whose aim it is to subvert the Government of the country and to make British rule impossible by establishing general terrorism. Their organization is effective and far-reaching; their numbers are believed to be considerable; the leaders work in secret and are blindly obeyed by their youthful followers. The method they favour at present is political assassination; the method of Mazzini in his worst moods. Already they have a long score of murders or attempted murders to their account. There were two attempts to blow up Sir Andrew Fraser's train, and one of the type with which we are now unhappily familiar, to shoot him on a public occasion. Two attempts

were made to shoot Mr. Kingsford, one of which [in April, 1908] caused the death of two English ladies. Inspector Nanda Lal Banerji, Babu Ashutosh Diswas, the Public Prosecutor at Alipore, Sir William Curzon-Wyllie [July 1909, in London], Mr. Jackson, and . . . Deputy-Superintendent Shams-ul Alum have been shot in the most deliberate and cold-blooded fashion. Of three informers two have been killed, and on the third vengeance has been taken by the murder of his brother in the sight of his mother and sisters. Mr. Allen, the magistrate of Dacca, [December 1907] was shot through the lungs and narrowly escaped with his life. Two picric acid bombs were thrown at His Excellency the Viceroy at Ahmedabad, and only failed to explode by reason of their faulty construction. Not long afterwards an attempt was made with a bomb on the Deputy Commissioner of Umballa. These things are the natural and necessary consequences of the teachings of certain journals. They have prepared the soil in which anarchy flourishes; they have sown the seed and are answerable for the crop. This is no mere general statement; the chain of causation is clear. Not only does the campaign of violence date from the change in the tone of the Press, but specific outbursts of incitement have been followed by specific outrages. . . . Serious attempts to undermine the loyalty of the Indian army have been made, and the execution of a considerable number of the leading conspirators has been absolutely necessary. The anarchist crimes continued in the time of Lord Hardinge of Penshurst, who succeeded Lord Minto in 1910. Lord Hardinge, whose previous service had been in the Foreign Office, is grandson of the Governor-general who conducted the first Sikh war. A bomb attack made on the Viceroy at Delhi wounded him and killed an attendant who was immediately behind Lord Hardinge on the elephant. The criminals escaped."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford history of India*, pp. 774-775, 780-781.

1905-1916.—Growth of coöperative movement.—Agricultural banks. See COÖPERATION: India.

1905-1922.—Basis for nationalist movement.—Various Indian points of view.—Causes of unrest.—"The Hon. C. Y. Chintamani, in his address to the Provincial Conference at Jhansi, Oct. 8, 1916 [said]: 'The mass of the population is poor, very poor. A state of destitution, accompanied by disease and debt, is the normal condition of the bulk of the people. A comparative study of the aggregate annual national income, expenditure and savings of the peoples of different countries, would reveal a painful state of things in India. John Bright said that if a country possessing a most fertile soil and capable of bearing every variety of production, found the people in an extreme state of suffering and destitution, there was some fundamental error in the government. The observation was made of India. The Duke of Argyll, Secretary of State for India under Gladstone, recorded his opinion, "of chronic poverty and permanent reduction to the lowest level of subsistence such as prevail among the vast population of rural India, we have no example in the Western world." In a paper on the wealth of the Empire, read before the British Association in 1903, the aggregate annual income of the United Kingdom (whose population is less than our United Provinces) was put at 1,750,000,000 pounds and that of India at 600,000,000 pounds, roughly, 30 rupees [about \$10.00] per head per annum.' The general survey of the Empire led Sir Robert Giffen to consider 'how vast must be the economic gulf separating the people of the United Kingdom from India

when we find that 42,000,000 of people in the United Kingdom consume in food and drink alone an amount equal to the whole income of 300,000,000 Indians. Unless relieved from their state of semi-starvation, the Indian problem and difficulty remain 'untouched.' He further pointed out the anomaly of Britain requiring of India and India alone, a substantial military expenditure, though the wealth of the self-governing colonies is so enormously greater than that of India. This though the Indian army is freely used for imperial and general purposes, and is not employed exclusively for local defence."—L. Rai, *England's debt to India*, pp. 330-331.—Yet, another Indian can say: "The present organisation [of government] has been a work of steady and systematic endeavour, altered and improved by increasing experience and in accordance with the changing conditions and circumstances of the country, and the following summary takes cognisance of only those prominent achievements of administration, by no means exhaustive, which distinguish the English from any previous rule. A system of public services, for the most part based on recognised tests of qualifications has been established, which furnishes capable men for the duties of the numerous departments of the State. It is free from nepotism, influence, or partiality in selection. For the defence of the Indian Empire and preservation of international peace, a thoroughly equipped army . . . is maintained, its maritime defence being undertaken by the British Navy. This provision has made the whole country on all its vast frontier free from aggression by land and sea, and absolutely immune from any danger of internal disturbances and internecine conflicts. A sense of complete security, unknown in previous times, prevails now in every corner of the Indian Empire. The finances of the country are the care not only of an organised Department, but the Supreme and subordinate governments are bound by well-defined rules to regulate the income and expenditure of every province and district. Budgets are prepared and publicly discussed in Councils, allocations are made for works of public utility such as railways and canals, besides disbursements for the current expenditure of the official services, and educational and medical institutions. During the last 35 years there has been a steady expansion of the finances, without increase in the rates of internal taxation and without large borrowings. Apart from the debt incurred for reproductive works, such as railways and irrigation, the interest on which does not fall on the tax-payer, as it is paid out of their large net profits, the public debt of India to-day (1914) is only about £12,750,000. In the period under calculation, large expenditure on famine relief and protective railways, and irrigation and public works, was met from the current revenues. In the last fifty years both the income and expenditure have increased more than threefold. . . . The judicial system of India is another and perhaps the most excellent feature of British rule. Its very credit with the people, that which has reconciled them most to it, is the confidence they have in the English sense and methods of justice. The Penal Codes and Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure, comprehensive, intelligible, and adapted to the conditions of the people, by which the administration of justice is generally regulated, are superior to those of many other countries, and surpassed by none. Other enactments and regulations suited to the social requirements of certain classes of people, and peculiar tribes, as well as laws relating to municipalities and other public bodies have long since been formulated and are constantly promoted or modified. The competence

and character of the judges and officials entrusted with judicial functions are as a rule unimpeachable. As in the judiciary, so in the Legislative bodies, the people have been by Acts of Parliament allowed for years past a fair share of the seats, a share which is being enlarged periodically in response to their aspirations. The net-work of railways and canals, stupendous engineering works such as bridges, roads, and reservoirs, public buildings for hospitals, universities, schools and museums of varying dimensions, with which cities and towns are provided, are not only monuments of British genius, but proofs of that tranquillity, that progress of trade and commerce, and that multiplication of the resources of the country which have followed in the wake of British rule. The trigonometrical, topographical, geological, archæological, and cadastral surveys; scientific experiments in agriculture, the preservation of forests, increase in cultivation, the introduction of staples unknown in previous years such as tea, coffee, and cinchona; drainage systems in towns, sanitation throughout villages and expert medical help for the women confined in zenanas and behind the purdah,—all these and numerous other ever multiplying and expanding accessories to the physical and material improvement of a nation would not have been possible unless initiated or fostered by a government imbued with a real sense of its obligations to a people whose fortunes and destiny it is in its power to make or to mar. . . . There are immense tracts which for want of water had always remained uncultivated. To remedy these drawbacks, than which scarcely anything can be conceived more disastrous to a people whose livelihood depends on the soil, a highly efficient and expanding scheme of irrigation has been wisely pursued by Government for years past. It had the sanction of pastimes, for Hindu and Mahomedan rulers had inaugurated similar projects in their time. But the construction was not on so extensive a scale, nor had it the same element of expansion and efficiency, and certainly not the same aid of engineering skill, as are contained in the British system of irrigation. Under the East India Company up to 1858 about half a dozen projects had been begun, a couple of them being partly open, which supplied water to a million-and-a-half acres. Since then and up to 1914, at a cost of £45,500,000 no less than 34,914,000 acres of land have been brought under irrigation, ensuring to cultivators an income of fifty-four million pounds from the crops raised by it. The inception, the method of construction, and the result of such an undertaking, at all events on so stupendous a scale, were made possible under British administration.”—M. M. Bhowmaggree, *Verdict of India*, pp. 28-34.—“I admit a wave of extremism is passing throughout the land. Moderate views are at a discount, and those holding them are abused and jeered at, and have been roughly ousted from the Congress and other representative institutions. But no sane person amongst the extremists would like to see British rule in India subverted, for he realises that even if such a thing were feasible it would be neither for the good of the country nor for himself. . . . Somehow it is commonly believed that while the war was in progress there was an eager disposition shewn to make concessions to the aims and aspirations of the people, whereas now a certain amount of coldness and indifference are being exhibited, and considering the sacrifices India has made in a variety of ways, the people came to entertain expectations which may have been extravagant in some quarters, as to being liberally requited; and they now fear that a bitter disappointment is in store for

them. The extremists, whose aims were higher and more definite, are sullen and irritated at finding that the prospect is very gloomy and remote of the principle of self-determination being applied to India. . . . While crores of rupees [ten million rupees to a crore] have been appropriated for the extension of railways, which it is supposed, and perhaps wrongly, will mainly serve a military purpose, even a paltry sum is not available for free and compulsory education, on which, good many believe, depends the advancement of the country. [See above: 1835-1922.] . . . Religious frenzy exceeds by far political excitement, and it is no forced conclusion that to it may be ascribed some of the deplorable events that have recently occurred. Second to religious frenzy, but a very close second, is hero-worship. Mr. Gandhi . . . is recognised as a hero and there are people who would go to any length for him. Either of these two impulses, if misdirected, is capable of producing much mischief, but if both these are combined and political excitement is superadded, Heaven only help us. . . . I do not for a moment contend that the educated leaders are entirely exonerated from blame. They were engaged in an agitation against what they considered an iniquitous Act [Rowlatt Sedition Act] passed by Government. A most excellent occupation, but it imposes certain obligations. . . . The *Civil and Military Gazette* writes: ‘The true explanation of the trouble is more palpably to be found in the spirit of unrest due to reaction after the stress of war and the hardship it has entailed and is still entailing. . . . The Rowlatt Bills have formed a convenient stalking horse but the course of events hitherto shows clearly that if they had not been available some other pretext would have been forthcoming. Racial animosity, Mahomedan feeling about the downfall of Turkey, the prevailing high prices everywhere, vague political ideas about self-determination may all be considered as contributory causes, and the Rowlatt Bills have been used as a handle mainly by irreconcilables whose almost openly avowed creed has always been dislike of the British Raj.’ This is quite true, and if to this be added . . . other reasons . . . it will afford an explanation of the general unrest pervading the Punjab in common with other parts of India.”—A. Nundy, *Present situation*, pp. 8-11, 17.

“In the forefront we must place the fact that until the summer of 1914 there was a white and European solidarity vis-à-vis Asia and Africa which, though officially unrecognized, was yet the foundation of European policy in the widest sense of the term. A small but suggestive point of nomenclature illustrates my meaning. The British governing classes and the white mercantile community were referred to throughout India as ‘Europeans,’ and the general line of differentiation as between the governors and the governed was shown by the terms ‘European’ and ‘Native,’ or latterly the more acceptable cognomen ‘Indian.’ . . . The German, French or Italian trader or missionary had social union with the British rulers and business men, carrying inherent privileges that made them members of the same governing European family. But the Great War has broken up that solidarity. The German and Austrian missionary and trader has been interned in India or repatriated, and all and sundry have watched the humiliation of these fallen members of the white race. The most remote villagers have heard of the sepoys who have fought hand to hand with the fairest inhabitants of Europe. The long-maintained racial line of demarcation has been largely replaced by that of allegiance to Sovereign and

flag. . . . To foreigners and onlookers India may be a conquered country, yet British rule was extended (with Indian help) so insidiously and so gradually, it has lasted so long and the work of conquest and administration has from the first been carried on by British heads and Indian hands to such an extent, that the average Indian does not look upon himself as belonging to a conquered people, or on his country as dominated by foreigners. He has awakened to the reality only when he has tried to visit the British self-governing Dominions, which have now agreed to a more liberal-minded policy. . . . Again, a fundamental change has come over the Indian outlook on public affairs. . . . Twenty-five years ago the average Indian Moslem looked upon himself as a member of a universal brotherhood, sojourning in a land in which a neutral Government, with a neutral outlook, kept law and order and justice. His political and communal pride was satisfied by the fact that his co-religionists in Turkey, Persia, Morocco, and (nominally at least) in Egypt enjoyed independence and national sovereignty. While his allegiance was to Queen Victoria, his political self-respect was satisfied by the existence of the Sultans at Constantinople and Fez, and of the Shah and Khedive at Teheran and Cairo. . . . So strong are the world forces of this generation that states and societies which have stood still for centuries have now been overthrown by the strong currents of European and American activity. The net result is that the Indian Mahomedan, instead of holding but the outposts of Islam in the East, sees around him nothing but Moslem societies in a far greater state of decay than his own. . . . Under these circumstances, he necessarily looks upon India more and more as the hope of his political freedom and as the centre that may still raise the other Mahomedan countries to a higher standard of civilisation. Another point to be remembered is that while, under the old conditions, the Mahomedans were doomed to be nothing but a one-fifth minority in an overwhelmingly Brahmanical India, to-day, as the forces of disruption gain strength in Western Asia, it is not improbable that the South Asiatic Federation of to-morrow, of which India must be the centre and the pivot, will contain not only the 66½ millions of Indian Moslems, but the thirty or forty millions more Muslims inhabiting South Persia, Mesopotamia, Arabia, and Afghanistan. If we turn from numbers to surface of territory, the Islamic provinces of South Asia will be almost as great in extent as the India of yesterday. Hence there is little danger of the Mahomedans of India being nothing but a small minority in the coming federation. No doubt these considerations, again, are sub-conscious and semi-conscious; but they are potent. The Indian Moslem of to-day is no more haunted by the fear of being a powerless minority; nor has he constantly to look for his sentimental satisfaction to the Islamic States outside India. . . . Turning our gaze from the Moslems to the vast Hindu population, we find among its educated members the feeling that the great conflict announced as a war for liberty and freedom, for the protection of self-development in small countries, such as Belgium and Serbia, carries for the Allies the implication that political freedom is the heritage of every nation, great or small. The principles that render the Allied cause just in Europe are of universal application, *mutatis mutandis*, and lead to the deduction that India, too, must be set on the path of self-government. . . . I do not lose a due sense of proportion when I say that one of the

deeper causes, if not of discontent or disaffection, at any rate of the distrust of England and Englishmen that appeared on the surface in India in recent years was the strained relationship between Indians and their white fellow-subjects in East Africa. A rankling sense of injustice was aroused by the reservation of the best lands for Europeans, and by a succession of ordinances and regulations based on an assumption of race inferiority."—Aga Khan, *India in transition*, pp. 18-20, 22-25, 110.

"When India was conquered, . . . every free Indian subject of the Crown soon became entitled to the private civil rights of an Englishman, except so far as his own personal law, Hindu or Muslim or Parsi or Jain, might modify those rights; and if there was any such modification, that was recognized for his benefit rather than to his prejudice. . . . Accordingly we have in India the singular result that . . . every Indian subject is eligible to any office in the gift of the Crown anywhere, and to any post or function to which any body of electors may select him. He may be chosen by a British constituency a member of the British House of Commons. Two natives of India (both Parsis) have already been chosen, both by London constituencies, to sit in the British House. . . . Neither birth, nor colour, nor religion constitutes any legal disqualification. This was expressly declared as regards India by the India Act of 1833, and has been more than once formally declared since, but it did not require any statute to establish what flowed from the principles of British law."—J. Bryce, *Roman and the British empires*, pp. 46-47.—Unfortunately, Indians took this to mean that his accession to the civil rights of an Englishman gave him equal rights throughout the dominions with any other British subject. The fact that the dominions themselves did not look upon the matter in this light, but classed the Indian with other Asiatics, and framed their immigration laws to exclude him, came as a shock to his growing self-consciousness, and sense of personal if not national pride. Attempts to force the dominions to receive him as an equal were looked upon as an infringement on the right of legislation, as well as the right to welcome and exclude whom they would. Consequently, the claim to equality made matters worse, and in every case reacted against the Indian. The trouble in South Africa centered chiefly around Natal, where a head tax of £3 was imposed on Indians, and around the Union Immigration Act of 1913, which restricted the family of an immigrant to the wife and child of a monogamous marriage. This law was held to bar even one wife who had been married according to the rites of a religion which permitted polygamy. The South African controversy is responsible for the leadership of M. K. Gandhi. As a young man, after he had been called to the English bar, he went out to South Africa to defend the case of the Indians. The treatment which he received there, and especially in the Transvaal, determined him to throw in his lot with his fellow countrymen. He accepted their leadership, started a newspaper, began educational work, and generally tried to raise the status of the Indians. In 1914 the Indian Relief Act was passed to overcome the marriage difficulty, and an agreement was entered into between General Smuts, then Minister of the Interior, and Gandhi, with regard to Indian traders in the Transvaal. In British East Africa, now Kenya Colony, the controversy was chiefly confined to the question of the right of Indians to hold land in the colony. The dispute slumbered during the World War, but later broke out with

added virulence over the allotment of land to British ex-soldiers, and a plan for the segregation of the races. The trouble in British Columbia was quite a different phase of the Indian question, and was closely related to the labor movement and immigration laws. The province, which already had a Sikh population of 4,000, passed a law prohibiting the entry of any Asiatic who had not made a continuous voyage from his place of domicile. This law was invoked in 1914 to keep out a ship-load of Sikhs, who claimed to have made a continuous voyage in a specially chartered ship. The provincial authorities asserted on the contrary, that the claim could not be sustained, and that the majority of the passengers had been picked up at various places along the route, and from outside of India, and despite an appeal to the Dominion authorities, the greater number were forced to return. This incident caused a serious riot in India. The whole question roused such intense feeling in India that in 1914, Lord Hardinge suggested a system of emigration by passports, to be issued in India, and reciprocity agreements to govern all Indian emigration. The suggestion was favorably received on all sides. At the Imperial Conference in 1918, the right of India to pass such restrictions on immigration from any country in the British comity of nations as might be imposed by that country on Indians was recognized. In 1921, the Imperial Conference, by resolution, drew attention to the disabilities imposed on Indians resident in other parts of the empire, and expressed a desire that such disabilities should be removed. South Africa declined to comply with the resolution, because the large number of Indians resident in the Union created a peculiar situation there, but Canada and Australia have passed legislation to cover the point. Additional friction had been created in the Transvaal in 1919 by disputes over "trade rights," land ownership, and "vested rights," the latter of which had been a subject of arrangement between Smuts and Gandhi. A commission appointed to enquire into the controversy recommended, among other suggested solutions, a system of voluntary repatriation of the Hindus, and a large number returned to India, carrying with them a strong sense of injustice, intensified by the effort made to keep them on a footing of inferiority, which added fuel to the fire of unrest already in existence there. The commission found that the fear of an Asiatic menace was largely unfounded, and it was claimed that the danger of unassisted emigration from India, in the present state of industrial needs at home, was very problematical. The question of social equality arising out of racial feeling is one of the most deep seated causes of political unrest in India, because it is rooted in the conflicting civilizations of East and West. Comparatively large numbers of Indians travel, for the purpose of education or otherwise, to Great Britain, the continent of Europe and America, where they outwardly at least conform to western usages, and find their nationality no bar to social intercourse. They attend the great schools, enter the universities, and adopt professions. But when they return to India, these educated Indians claim that they are subjected to the indignity of being treated as social inferiors, by higher civil servants, if they are in government service, or even by men of their own rank. The same claim is made by men who have been educated in Indian universities, and have entered one of the professions, or become enrolled among the very large number of Indian civil servants, who crowd all the departments of the administration, except in the very highest ranks. These men, and other edu-

cated Indians, complain of the "arrogance and pride" of their British colleagues; who on their side point out that they are rarely or never invited to the houses of Indians; that in most cases the difference in point of view, of social customs, and household arrangements and family life makes the admission of Indians to anything beyond formal intercourse almost impossible.

ALSO IN: V. Chiro, *Indian unrest*.—V. Lovett, *History of Indian nationalist movement*.—J. A. Williamson, *Short history of British expansion*.

1907.—Diplomatic intercourse with Afghanistan. See *AFGHANISTAN: 1907*.

1907.—Opening of Staff college at Quetta. See *QUETTA*.

1907-1921.—All-India Moslem League.—Mohammedan loyalty to the British government.—New factor in Indian politics.—Rapprochement between Moslems and Hindus.—Khalifat Association.—"On December 30th . . . [1907] a Mahomedan Conference, in session at Dacca, the capital of the newly-created Province of Eastern Bengal, departing absolutely from its traditions, openly discussed the question of the protection of Mahomedan interests from a political standpoint, and finally carried unanimously a motion for the formation of an 'All-India Moslem League' to promote among the Mahomedans of India feelings of loyalty to the British Government, and to remove any misconceptions that may arise as to the intentions of Government with regard to any of its measures; to protect and to advance the political rights and interests of the Mahomedans of India, and respectfully to represent their needs and aspirations to Government, and to prevent the rise among Mahomedans in India of any feelings of hostility towards other communities, without prejudice to the other objects of the League. A strong Provisional Committee was formed, with power to add to its number, and the joint secretaries appointed were the Nawabs Vicar-ul-mulk and Mohsin-ul-mulk, two of the most important members of the Mahomedan community in India and men of great intellectual capacity. The Committee was charged to frame a constitution within a period of four months, and further to convene a meeting of Indian Mahomedans at a suitable time and place to lay the constitution before such meeting for final approval and adoption. The Rubicon has been crossed; the Mahomedans of India have forsaken the shades of retirement for the political arena; henceforth a new factor in Indian politics has to be reckoned with."—E. E. Lang, *All-India Moslem League (Contemporary Review, Sept., 1907)*.—"In India, Moslems continued for a long while in sullen and inactive subjection to the British crown. They refused, . . . to take advantage of the modern education, by means of which the Hindus forged ahead. Jealousy of the Hindus and their predominance led the Moslems to give steady support to the British Government, that by its aid they might be able to hold their own against the encroachments of the Hindus. The first Mohammedan leaders adhered to a programme of loyalty to the British and development under their ægis. The leaders following Sayid Ahmad Khan were Justice Amir Ali, president of the London-All India Moslem League; Ali Khan, president of the Central League; His Highness Aga Khan, chief of the Bohrah sect of Ismieliyahs of Bombay; and the Prince of Arcot in Southern India. This All-India Moslem League, intended to include all sects, has provincial leagues and a council in London designed to act upon the Imperial Government. It has developed ardour and enthusiasm and manifested considerable activity. It wishes to make a common

language for all Indian Moslems, possibly the Urdu. The government, in a reform scheme, gave representation to the people in the Legislative Council and in other official bodies. Moslems took advantage of these privileges and became members of the High Councils. In order to be prepared for their new status, they are seriously seeking modern education and making progress. Of late many influences have combined to arouse the political aspirations of the Moslem people. The Pan-Islamic influences of the Sultan, hajjis, and dervishes, the active press, the critical condition of the Moslem world, and the rapid influx of new political ideas have caused a sudden change. A new party has been formed which is strongly nationalistic. It is composed, for the most part, of lawyers, editors, and teachers of the younger generation. They have forced the adoption by the Moslem Leagues of a programme calling for 'political and religious unity with Turkey and the outer Islamic world,' and for the freedom of Islamic races and countries from the rule of alien and Christian governments. This thesis is one upon which theoretically modernists and Pan-Islamists, politicians and dervishes, editors and Ulama can agree. But later the Nationalists, undeterred by the resignation of their old leaders, and by the anarchistic tendencies and outbreaks of the Hindus, reached an understanding with the Hindu National Congress, sinking their religious differences and giving adhesion to the motto, 'India for the Indians' (*International Review of Missions*, 1914, p. 34). The newly organized League passed resolutions severely disapproving of the course of the British Government concerning Turkey and Persia in 1910. The state of feeling was becoming more embittered. Everything was critically regarded. An example of this was seen just before the war. In order to open a new street, a fountain which was used for ablutions was removed. This was declared to be an insult to Islam and was made the occasion of riot and loss of life. The fountain was rebuilt by the government on a new level. The *rapprochement* of Moslems and Hindus and adjustment of their programmes does not indicate any widening of religious outlook, but simply a temporary sinking of them for political purposes. Indeed, the attitude of both races is reactionary, rejecting the idea of the superiority of Christian civilization, except in physical science and its applications, and exalting the worth of all things Indian. It opposes the movement of Neo-Islam to graft European law and ideas on Islam, but rather would renew confidence in the old religion as in all things of their own."—S. G. Wilson, *Modern movements among Moslems*, pp. 229, 230.—"The political leaders [of the Mohammedans] had fallen into line in the Indian National Congress and the All-India Moslem League during the 1916 and 1917 sessions, when they united in demanding Home Rule for India, and they had united since then in rejecting as totally inadequate the scheme of reforms foreshadowed in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report. But not till towards the conclusion of the war did the Mahomedan Extremists discover a special grievance for their own community in the peace terms likely to be imposed upon a beaten Turkey. . . . The agitation was at first very artificial, for the bulk of Indian Mahomedans had until recent years known very little about and taken still less interest in Turkey, and their loyalty had never wavered during the war. . . . But the long delay on the part of the Allies in formulating their Turkish peace terms allowed time for the movement to grow and to carry with it the more fanatical element amongst Indian Mahomedans. The Govern-

ment of India tried in vain to allay Mahomedan feeling by receiving deputations from the *Khilafat* [Khalifat] Association founded to prosecute an intensified campaign in favour of Turkey, and professing its own deep anxiety to procure what it called 'a just peace with Turkey.' . . . The greatest success which the *Khilafat* agitators achieved was when Mr. Gandhi allowed himself to be persuaded by them that the movement was a splendid manifestation of religious faith, as he himself described it to me. For, once satisfied that the cause which they had taken up was a religious cause, he was prepared to make it his own without inquiring too closely into its historical or political justification. . . . Whilst Mahomedans proved their emancipation from narrow sectarianism by joining the *Satyagraha* movement of passive resistance in spite of the Hindu character impressed upon it by its sanscrit name, it was, he declared, for Hindus to show that they, too, could rise above ancient prejudice and resentment by throwing themselves heart and soul into the *Khilafat* movement. Both movements were to be demonstrations of the 'soul-force' of India, to be put forth in passive resistance according to his favourite doctrine of *Ahimsa*, the endurance and not the infliction of suffering."—V. Chirol, *India, old and new*, pp. 173, 174.

1908-1909.—Passage of the Indian Councils Bill by British parliament.—Popular representation in legislative councils introduced.—Appointment of native member of viceroy's executive council.—The great project of reform in the government of India which Lord Morley, as secretary for India in the British administration, brought before Parliament in December, 1908, embodied fundamentally in what was known during the discussion of it as the Indian Councils Bill, had its origin more than two years before that time, not in the councils of the British ministry, but in those of the government of India. "They included the appointment of one Indian member each to the viceroy's executive council and to the executive councils of Bengal, Madras and Bombay, and of two Indian members to the secretary of state's council in London. The Act also greatly extended the size and scope of the legislative councils, that for the whole Indian Empire being raised to a maximum of sixty members, and those for the provinces being in general considerably more than doubled. On all these councils except that of the governor-general the non-official members became a majority, and the number of those elected was multiplied by four. The electorates were arranged so as to give representation to various classes, industrial interests and religions, and not on a flat qualification as in Europe. The legislative councils received enlarged powers of criticizing government proposals, both financial and general, but the executive retained the right to disregard their advice should it see fit. The reform was therefore in the direction of representative, but not by any means of responsible, government. A Press Act followed to give effect to the complementary repressive side of the Morley policy."—J. A. Williamson, *Short history of British expansion*, p. 593.—A fortnight after the passage of the bill, Lord Morley exercised the authority of the Crown, and appointed Satyendra Prasanna Sinha, advocate general of Bengal, as the first native member of the executive council.

ALSO IN: C. M. P. Cross, *Development of self-government in India*.

1909 (June).—Represented at Imperial Press Conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June).

1911.—Great durbar at Delhi.—Presence of

King George V.—Change of capital from Calcutta to Delhi. See DELHI: 1011.

1911.—Discussions of naturalization laws, intercommunication and social legislation at British Imperial Conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1011.

1911.—Reversal of partition of Bengal.—“In one respect the good result [of the partition of Bengal] was complete and permanent. The agitation that had sprung up over Lord Curzon’s partition of Bengal had taken the rest of India entirely by surprise. No one had hitherto supposed that the population was sentimentally attached to the idea of being included in one compartment of British administration rather than another; and to find such a rearrangement as that carried out by Lord Curzon giving rise to a great popular grievance was a revelation. . . . It is certain that no sentiment of the kind was in existence when . . . Bengal [was taken over], nor for long afterwards. . . . Still, a standing agitation was an undesirable feature in Indian public life; and the Government of India, in addressing Lord Crewe, made no secret of the fact that, in proposing their changes, one of their principal motives was to allay the ill-feeling that had been set up by the partition among the Bengali population. From this point of view let it be said the measure was entirely successful. The Bengalis hailed the announcement with delight. Their leaders were naturally exultant at having prevailed after they had practically given up hope; when His Majesty the King visited Calcutta a few weeks after the Durbar, he was received with a rapturous demonstration of loyalty. So carried away were the Bengalis by the turned tide of sentiment that not a murmur was heard against the fresh partition that was introduced hand in hand with the revocation of the old—the separation of Behar and Orissa, and their amalgamation into a new Province at the expense of Bengal. [The Bengalis were reunited: Behar, Chota, Nagpur and Orissa were united to form a province, and Assam became another.]

“The framing of the 1911 scheme was thus essentially a vindication of Lord Curzon’s policy. . . . Lord Curzon rightly judged that, if the business were not tackled then, it would force itself upon the Government in a few years at latest; and, reluctant as the Government of India must have been in 1911 to launch out on another redistribution, it was obliged to accept his conclusion.”—*India under Lord Hardinge* (*Quarterly Review*, July, 1916).

1911.—Effective factory legislation. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1881-1911.

1912-1922.—Industrial revolution.—Growth of export trade.—Influence of railways.—Effect of World War upon finance.—Duties on cotton and other imports.—“The outstanding characteristic dominating all the aspects of India’s economic life during the last three decades has been that the country has been passing through an industrial revolution, similar in many respects to the one which took place in England during the early part of the last century, and later in the other countries of Western Europe. During this period, India has been in a state of transition from the old archaic economic order to the new and reorganised order, typified by that prevailing in England. Though the transformation is still in its earlier stages, the change, which has already taken place, is most striking. In 1802, when the first signs of this industrial revolution were just beginning to be perceptible, the late Mr. Ranade, the pioneer economist in India, described the economic condi-

tions of the country in the following words: ‘With us an average individual man is, to a large extent, the very antipodes of the Economical man. The Family and the Caste are more powerful than the Individual in determining his position in life. Self-interest in the shape of the desire of Wealth is not absent, but it is not the only nor the principal motor. The Pursuit of Wealth is not the only ideal aimed at. There is neither the desire nor the aptitude for free and unlimited competition except within certain predetermined grooves or groups. Custom and State Regulation are far more powerful than Competition, and Status more decisive in its influence than Contract. Neither Capital nor Labour is mobile, and enterprising and intelligent enough to shift from place to place. Wages and Profit are fixed and not elastic and responsive to change of circumstances. Population follows its own Law, being cut down by disease and famine, while Production is almost stationary.’ . . . Twenty years later, Sir Theodore Morison writes, ‘Production upon Western lines has hardly been attempted for more than the life-time of one generation, but within that short space it has made a most promising beginning, and in the last twenty-five years the progress achieved has been amazingly rapid.’ During this period, the railway mileage nearly doubled, and both he and Prof. Radhakamal Mukerji show how the development of the railways broke down the economic isolation and self-sufficiency of the village. ‘Rural society is no longer solely dependent upon its own resources for supplying its needs. Secure of access to the large European markets, the cultivator no longer dreads that a bumper harvest will so glut his petty local mart that his produce cannot be sold at all. . . . The substitution of money for barter and payment in kind is a familiar symptom of the transition from the old to the new economic order; it is now in full operation in India.’ . . . ‘Thus the sudden introduction of competition into an economic unit which had from time immemorial followed custom has wrought a mighty change.’ The growing tendency to migrate to the trade and industrial centres has been another feature of this economic transformation. . . . During 1909-10 to 1913-14, the quinquennium preceding the outbreak of the war, India’s foreign sea-borne trade expanded somewhat rapidly, and the expansion was most marked in 1912-13 and 1913-14. . . . The demands of . . . [foreign] industrial populations for foodstuffs and raw materials produced in any part of the world benefited agricultural countries like India. . . . [The outbreak of the World War was followed by a financial crisis.] However, the stability of the Indian exchange was maintained, owing to the measures taken by the Government. . . . During 1915-16 the effects of the crisis brought about by the outbreak of the war disappeared substantially, the trade adjusted itself to some extent to the new conditions, and a sort of war equilibrium, although an unstable one, was established. . . . During 1916-17 the famine in tonnage became . . . serious, and at the close of the year the freights rose to 14 times their pre-war level. The rates from Bombay to London at the end of 1916-17, as compared with those at the close of 1915-16, rose by 90 per cent, and the rates from Calcutta 60 per cent; the rates to the Far East also increased. . . . The demand for Indian produce and manufactures for war purposes became keen, and developed in intensity during the following years of the war without any consideration of their prices. As the export of these articles possessed a supreme im-

portance from the point of view of the conduct of the war, the Government of India had to take special measures to facilitate these exports, and exported a large value of these articles on its own account. In regard to the import trade, Japan and the U. S. A. began . . . to secure the custom entirely lost by Germany and Austria, and to an appreciable extent by the United Kingdom on account of her concentration upon the war. Hence, the value of India's overseas trade in 1916-17 showed a substantial increase as compared with that in 1915-16. . . . At the beginning of this century, 20 per cent of India's exports were taken by the United Kingdom, 25 per cent by Continental Europe, 24 per cent by the Far East, 7 per cent by the U. S. A., and the remaining 15 per cent by other countries. By 1914 the share of the United Kingdom had fallen to 24 per cent, and that of Continental Europe had increased to 29 per cent, the Far East took 17 per cent, mainly owing to a large decrease in the export of opium and cotton yarns to China, the U. S. A. 9 per cent, and other countries 21 per cent. Germany, which stood third in the list of India's customers in 1900, taking . . . [£5,000,000] of Indian produce, attained the second rank in 1914, next only to the United Kingdom, importing £17.5 million of India's produce. . . . Till the closing decades of the 19th century, although a freedom of trade prevailed since 1813, the other nations did not make any special efforts to develop direct trade relations with India, and the United Kingdom carried on a considerable entrepot trade in Indian produce. . . . The situation, however, began to change from the closing decades of the last century. . . . Germany, which had . . . commenced a rapid industrial advance by 1800, led the way, and was followed by Japan, which redoubled her activities in this direction after the Russo-Japanese war. The U. S. A. and France also made similar endeavours, which, however, were not in any degree comparable with those made by Germany and Japan. The two former countries, to a considerable extent, remained content to deal with India through London, and to utilise the available English services. . . . Mercantile houses for conducting the import and export business were established by Germany, Japan and Austria at the chief Indian ports, Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi, Madras and Rangoon. It is true that the main object in organising these houses was to push the wares of the respective countries in the Indian market, but the houses directed their attention also to the export trade, and it should be noted that before the war India continued to export more to these countries than to import from them. . . . From the beginning of this century up to the commencement of the war, India's import trade, like her export trade, showed a tendency towards a diversion from the United Kingdom to Continental Europe, especially Germany, [to] the U. S. A. [and] Japan. . . . In 1800-1900 the share of the United Kingdom in India's import trade was 69 per cent, while those of Germany, the U. S. A. and Japan were quite small. . . . By 1913-1914 the share of the United Kingdom had fallen to 64 per cent, while those of Germany, Japan and the U. S. A. had increased to 6.9, 2.6 and 2.6 per cent respectively. . . . [Germany also, with cheaper goods, aided by national organizations gained a foothold in the bazaars, and was rapidly increasing her bazaar trade.] During the war goods of Germany were entirely eliminated from the Indian market. They were, however, replaced not by those of the United Kingdom but by those of Japan and the

U. S. A., which, in addition, enormously increased their exports to India, and secured a substantial part of the market exclusively held by the United Kingdom before the war. . . . The war made them realise fully the value of the Indian market, and a new spirit began to pervade their organisations. It could be translated into practice, chiefly because both these countries, Japan from the first, and the U. S. A. from 1917, enjoyed all the privileges of being Allies, without the handicaps and difficulties, which the European Allies had to contend with. . . . Both Japan and the U. S. A. sent commercial travellers and inquiry agents, who travelled in all the parts of India, studying the Indian requirements. . . . Both the countries established a number of export and import houses, with branches in the important seaport towns [while Japan established retail stores in all large Indian towns]. . . . The U. S. A. and Japan, . . . have made material inroads into the staple trades of the United Kingdom with India, the former into the metallurgical and the latter into the textile trades. . . . The competition of the U. S. A. and Japan has revolutionized the buying methods in India. Before the war, the United Kingdom possessed a virtual monopoly of the Indian market in many articles, and could depend upon getting at home all the orders of the Indian dealers and the managing agents of the various industries, as they had buying connections with the United Kingdom only. But, during the war, the connections with her had to be abandoned, or became considerably weakened, while similar connections with Japan and the U.S.A. were formed and strengthened, and these two countries are doing their best to foster them. . . .

"The industrial movement was not very successful before the war, and even the so-called swadeshi movement for the support of the indigenous industries died away in a comparatively short time. Thus, at the outbreak of the war, India's industries were few in number, and consisted of textile factories for the working up of a part of the home-grown supplies of cotton and jute, and to a less extent, of wool and silk; railway workshops, collieries, and a few engineering works at the chief ports, obtaining all their supplies of steel from other countries; a small number of flour and paper mills; a few tanneries producing chiefly half-tanned leather for export; some rice and oil mills. [Hand looms provided employment for about two million people in weaving.] Pig iron was being produced in fairly large quantities by the Bengal Iron and Steel Company for some years before, but its efforts to manufacture steel had been unsuccessful; while the Tata Iron and Steel Company had commenced operations only in 1912, and was contending with numerous difficulties. Moreover a large proportion of these factories, with the notable exception of the cotton factories, were owned and managed by non-Indians. . . . During the war India's industrial position underwent a remarkable change. To-day, there is a considerable industrial activity in the country, . . . the direct result of the war. . . . During the war all the military requirements of cotton textiles in the East were supplied by the Indian mills. . . . Further, the war has left the mills in a strong financial position, large extensions have been planned, and are being carried out. Some mills have already employed highly trained chemists, and are developing their bleaching and dyeing processes in a very scientific way. A beginning has also been made in the manufacture of textile machinery and mill stores in India. . . .



The jute industry enjoyed a continuous and unprecedented prosperity during the war, and underwent a substantial expansion owing to the large demands on the part of the Allies. . . . The development of the iron and steel industry during the war was remarkable. . . . While the Tata Iron and Steel Company was struggling with considerable difficulties in the production of steel in 1914, by the end of the war, its production of steel reached the figure of 17,000 tons per month, and the rolling mills produced 120,000 tons of rails and smaller sections yearly. . . . Thus, the position of the Company has been revolutionized by the war, . . . [while other iron and steel companies have expanded their plants, or founded new ones]. The development of Indian industries during the war was largely due to the stimulus afforded by the wide activities and the large purchases of the Indian Munitions Board. This Board was created at the beginning of 1917 as a Department of the Government of India . . . [to provide for the] immediate supply of the requirements of the Allied armies in the eastern theatres of war. . . . It also promoted the development of Indian industries in several ways, such as the direct purchase in India of all the articles required by the army, the civil departments, and the railways; the diversion, wherever possible, . . . of all the orders of private importers for articles from the United Kingdom and other countries, to manufacturers in India; the grant of assistance to individuals or firms in India, who wished to import plant or machinery, and to engage . . . [foreign] technical experts and skilled labor . . . in order to establish new industries or to expand the existing ones; and the collection and dissemination of industrial information through an Intelligence Branch, and . . . assistance to individuals or firms prepared to establish new industries in the country. . . . The war converted the budgeted Central surplus of £1.2 million for 1914-15 into a deficit of £1.8 million, and in the budget for 1915-16, a deficit of £2.8 million was anticipated. It was decided to meet these deficits by temporary borrowing, and no additional taxation was resorted to. . . . In the budget for 1916-17, however, it was decided to obtain larger revenues from the customs and the consequential changes in the excise duties on liquors, an increase of the income-tax and an enhancement of the salt duty. The general import tariff since 1894 had been at the rate of 5 per cent ad valorem. It was now raised to 7½ per cent ad valorem, except in the case of sugar, . . . which was raised to 10 per cent. The list of articles free from duty was materially curtailed, but some of the articles withdrawn from the list were to pay a duty of 2½ per cent only. . . . The special rates of duty charged upon the import of certain articles, such as arms, liquor and tobacco, were raised . . . [but] the duty of 3½ per cent on the import of cotton manufactures was left unchanged. Since 1806 the import of cotton twists and yarns had been free of duty, while a duty of 3½ per cent had been imposed on woven goods of all kinds, whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. This position was left untouched. Lastly, an export duty on two important staples, tea and jute, was imposed. . . . The reduction in the import of sugar during the war stimulated the Indian sugar industry. . . . The export duties on tea and jute were satisfactory, as both these industries were specially prosperous during the war. Further, jute could well bear this duty on account of the fact that India possesses a monopoly of this product. . . . The de-

cision to leave the position of the cotton manufactures unchanged gave rise to a long public controversy. Before 1882, there was a small import duty for revenue purposes on all imported goods. The establishment of cotton factories in India in 1877 led the House of Commons to pass a resolution to the effect that 'In the opinion of this House, the duties now levied upon the cotton manufactures imported into India, being protective in their nature, are contrary to sound commercial policy and should be repealed without delay.' Another similar resolution was passed in 1879, and in 1882 all import duties, including those on piecegoods, were abolished. . . . In 1896, the state of Indian finances rendered it necessary to re-impose the import duties, and the Secretary of State, as a result of the pressure exerted by the House of Commons, levied a countervailing excise duty of 3½ per cent on all cloth manufactured in India by steam power. . . . This position continued till 1916, when as mentioned above, although the import duties were raised in all other directions, the duty on cotton goods was left alone. . . . The Finance Member explained that the Government of India had not failed to represent its view that the import duties on cotton goods also should be substantially raised, while the cotton excise duties should be left alone, and should be abolished, when financial circumstances became more favourable. But His Majesty's Government replied that, 'the raising of this question at the present time would be most unfortunate, as it would provoke a revival of old controversies, at a time when they specially desire to avoid all contentious questions both in India and England, and might prejudice the ultimate settlement of the large issues raised by the war. His Majesty's Government feel that the fiscal relationship of all parts of the Empire as between one another and the rest of the world must be reconsidered after the war, and they desire to leave the question raised by the cotton duties to be considered then, in connection with the general fiscal policy, which may be thought best for the Empire, and the share, military and financial, that has been taken by India in the present struggle.'—S. G. Panandikar, *Economic consequences of the war for India*, pp. 27-29, 35-36, 38, 40, 41, 65-67, 68-69, 74-75, 81, 86, 101-106, 109-111, 223, 225-228.—See also TARIFF: 1919-1920: World-wide tariff tendency.

ALSO IN: A. Chatterton, *Industrial evolution in India*.

1914-1915.—Wheat crops. See FOOD REGULATION: 1914-1915.

1914-1917.—German attempts to stir up rebellion. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917.

1914-1918.—Part played in World War.—'By the end of the second year of the war, nearly 80,000 British officers and men, and 210,000 Indian officers and men, all fully trained and equipped, had been despatched overseas. From the very first day, it was the policy of the Government of India to give readily to the Home Government of everything it possessed, whether troops or war materials. August 1914 found the Indian Army at war strength, the magazines full, and the equipment complete to the prescribed standard. . . . After the starting of operations in Mesopotamia, India's own needs became pressing, and the results of her previous sacrifices were severely felt. Some of her best troops had been taken; there had been a heavy drain on all supplies. . . . As a natural result, the Indian military machine showed signs of breaking down under the strain. The Report of the Mesopotamia Commission

proved how inadequate was the 'frontier war' standard in face of the crushing burden placed upon it by unforeseen circumstances. But by the time that Report was published, the Indian Headquarters Staff had been strengthened, the military machine had adapted itself to the new situation, and as a result of the brilliant campaign of Sir Stanley Maude, Baghdad was captured and a series of heavy defeats were inflicted upon the Turks. . . . The efforts made by India in the war of man-power have greatly surpassed all expectations. At the outbreak of the war, there were some 80,000 British officers and men in India, and some 230,000 Indian ranks, combatants and non-combatants. During the war, the Government of India recruited on a voluntary basis over 800,000 combatants, and more than 400,000 non-combatants, giving a grand total of about 1.3 million men. . . . In order to secure the rally of all India's resources to the Empire's assistance, a War Conference was held at Delhi from April 27th to 20th, 1918. Certain Ruling Chiefs were asked to attend, as well as all the non-official members of the Imperial Legislative Council. The Central Government also invited the Provincial Governments to send delegates of all shades of opinion. The object of the Conference was to invite the co-operation of all classes, first, in sinking domestic dissensions and in bringing about a cessation of political propaganda during the present crisis; secondly, in concerting measures for the successful prosecution of the war, with special reference to man-power and the development of Indian resources; and thirdly, in cheerfully bearing the sacrifices demanded for the achievement of victory. . . . The response of the Conference was immediate. The lead given by the English officials was heartily followed by the English and Indian non-officials. Committees were appointed on man-power and on resources, which made recommendations with the object of furnishing increased provisions of men, munitions and money. . . . The impetus which the Delhi Conference, and the organisations set up in consequence of it, gave to the war effort of India, was very remarkable. In man-power, in particular, the results surpassed all expectations. . . . It must not, however, be forgotten that British India is far from furnishing the only recruiting ground for the Indian army. . . . In 1914, twenty-seven Indian States had contingents of Imperial Service Troops, and these were without exception offered for service overseas in the first weeks of the war. . . . All these have been on active service in France, in Mesopotamia, in Salonica, in Egypt, in East Africa, and on the North-West Frontier and on duty in India. The States were later invited to allow their troops to be incorporated during the war in the regular army. . . . Special mention must be made of the assistance rendered to the Empire by . . . [its] ally Nepal. More than one-sixth of the total population belonging to the martial classes between the ages of 18 and 35 . . . [was] given to the colours. . . . It is not only in man power that India has made a great effort during the war. In view of her poverty, her financial contributions have been very considerable. There are rigid limits to the taxable capacity of India, leaving out of consideration the fact that three-quarters of the population depends upon agriculture, and hence upon the incidence of the monsoon, for its means of livelihood. As a result of these two factors, the expansion of direct taxation, a primary element in the war finance of Great Britain and her Dominions, has been very difficult in India. Despite

this disadvantage, the financial assistance which India . . . rendered in the war has been substantial. In the first place comes expenditure in the way of military services. The cost of military expeditions sent outside India does not normally fall upon the Indian Exchequer; but in compliance with a request made by the Government of India, it was decided that India should continue to pay the normal pre-war cost of maintaining those of her troops sent overseas, while the extra expenditure involved was met by the Imperial Government. That this burden . . . [was] no light one, is proved by the fact that the net expenditure on military services . . . [rose] from about £20 millions in 1912-13 to about £30 millions in 1917-18. Nor was India content with rendering this assistance, considerable as it is in light of the fact that her annual revenue for the . . . [six pre-war years] averaged less than £100 millions. In September 1918, . . . the non-official members of the Imperial Legislative Council accepted by a large majority a proposal that India should take over as from April 1st, 1918 the normal cost of 200,000 more men than she was then paying for. The effect of this decision was to raise the number of troops, for the normal cost of which India . . . [was] responsible, from the ordinary peace strength of 160,000, to the substantial figure of 360,000. At the same time, it was agreed that from April 1st, 1919 the normal cost of 100,000 men more should be taken over. Fortunately, as it turned out, the cessation of hostilities rendered this unnecessary. It was estimated that these charges would work out to a grand total of £45 millions, but owing to the fact that the war terminated more speedily than was anticipated, the actual cost to India up to the end of the period under review was some £12 millions [which was raised by a war loan].—L. F. R. Williams, *India in the years 1917-1918*, pp. 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: World War: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 20; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, iii.

1915.—Action of British Indian troops in battles of Neuve Chapelle and Ypres.—Operations at Gallipoli.—Offensive in Suez canal zone. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: b, 3; c, 6; c, 11; VI. Turkey: a, 4, xv; a, 4, xxvii; b, 1, i.

1915.—Railway development.—Routes. See RAILROADS: 1855-1915.

1915.—Riots in Ceylon. See CEYLON: 1915.

1917.—Founding of Queen Mary's technical school for disabled soldiers. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Reëducation.

1917.—Represented at Imperial War Conference.—Defense question. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1917: Imperial War Conference.

1917-1919.—Monetary crisis.—Loans by United States.—In 1917-1919 the government of India was compelled to coin 700 million rupees, to cover the absorption which was taking place with monotonous regularity. "At the beginning of 1918, the silver position was very grave. The Secretary of State continued to purchase as much silver as possible to provide for the coinage of this huge quantity of rupees, but the decrease in the world output of silver, combined with a jealous economy of gold and silver reserves among the Allies and the neutral countries, not only induced a very high price, but also made it impossible to obtain more than a limited quantity in the open market. Meanwhile, the absorption of rupees in India was proceeding with a monotonous

regularity. At the end of March 1918, the silver balances available had been brought down to about Rs. 100 millions. . . . As an emergency measure arrangements had been made for the temporary opening of a branch of the Royal Mint in Bombay for the purpose of converting into currency the stocks of gold held in India. As this was not yet in a position to commence operations, a distinctive Indian gold coin, namely a Gold Mohur or 15 rupee piece, was meanwhile coined and put into circulation. . . . [Bad news from France in April 1918 brought a run on the currency office.] The Controller of Currency scraped together every rupee that could be spared from other parts of India, and the run gradually abated. Every obtainable ounce of silver was poured into the mints, which worked night and day. Yet by the end of the first week of June, the rupee reserve had diminished to a little more than Rs. 40 millions. Meanwhile special measures had been taken to obtain from the United States of America a release of some portion of that country's immense silver reserve. In February 1918, the United States Government arranged to sell India 6 million ounces of silver. When the crisis became more acute in April, they offered another 2 million ounces and by the speedy passing of a Bill subsequently known as the Pittman Act, made it possible to withdraw silver certificates and to borrow from the Treasury the greater part of its dollar reserve of 375 million ounces of fine silver. Early in June 1918 . . . the United States Government consented to let us have 200 million ounces of silver on generous terms. . . . By the beginning of July 1918, American shipments of silver began to arrive in large quantities, and during the succeeding months, a position of relative safety was gradually reached. By the end of September, the stock of rupees had risen to more than Rs. 120 millions."—L. F. R. Williams, *India in the years 1917-1918*, pp. 78-79.

1918.—Action of native troops in Mesopotamia. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 8.

1918.—Total casualties of World War.—Relief measures. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3; b, 8, ii.

1918.—Imperial War Conference.—Decisions regarding industries and raw materials. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1918.

1918-1920.—Home Rule for India.—Montagu-Chelmsford proposals.—Indian counter-proposals.—Passage of government of India Act (1919).—In 1918 Lord Chelmsford, then viceroy, and E. S. Montagu, Secretary of State for India, had been appointed to make a report which would embody proposals for administrative and legislative concessions, which might safely be granted to India, as a token of appreciation of India's participation in the war. "The object of Mr. Montagu's visit was to determine, on the spot and in consultation with the Viceroy, what steps should be taken in the direction of establishing in India government responsible to the peoples of the various provinces."—H. V. Lovett, *History of the Indian national movement*, p. 151.—"The Report was accorded a mixed reception—more mixed in India than in England. The more conservative section of the British community in India condemned the proposals as being likely to undermine British authority in the dependency. On the other hand, some British residents thought well of the scheme, and, moreover, averred that progress along some such lines as those laid down by the distinguished authors was inevitable in

the near future. In England the Report was for the most part very favourably received. The most remarkable effect of the issue of the Report was, however, that it completely split the Indian Nationalist Party into two sections. A group of moderate politicians, led by Sir Ragendra N. Mookerjee, Sir Krisna Gupta, Mr. Surendranath Banerjee and others, accepted the Report. But a group of extremists, led by Mr. Tilak, and including the majority of the prominent members of the . . . Indian National Congress [and also including Mrs. Annie Besant] . . . demanded that the British Government should permit a much further and more rapid advance towards the ideal of self-government. In the result, the Moderates felt compelled to withdraw from the Indian National Congress, in which body they were evidently in a weak minority. . . . A session of the Congress was held in Bombay in August, and another session was held at Delhi at the end of December. The Moderates held a separate Congress at Bombay in November under the presidency of Mr. Banerjee. The extremists declared that complete responsible government ought to be bestowed upon the separate provinces at the end of six years, and upon Hindustan as a whole at the end of fifteen years. At the Delhi Congress a resolution was passed appointing Mr. Tilak, Mr. Gandhi, and Mr. H. Imam as delegates of India to the Paris Peace Conference, the idea being that India should appeal to the Allied and Associated Powers as a whole, over the head of the London Government. The Congress also claimed the right of self-determination for India, with the immediate grant of full provincial autonomy. . . . At the beginning of the year much discussion arose concerning reform in Burma. In the Montagu-Chelmsford Report it was proposed that Burma should be excluded from the scheme of reform on the ground that the people of Burma were entirely distinct ethnographically from those of India proper. . . . At the end of January a Conference of Ruling Princes of India was held at Delhi. The object of the Conference was to consider the relations of the native States to the Government of India under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reform Scheme, and about forty princes attended the Congress. . . . The subject which gave rise to the longest discussion was the proposal in the Reform Scheme to divide the native States into two categories, those possessing 'full powers' of internal government and those not having such powers. The Report proposed the institution of a Council of Princes, which might be called by the Viceroy to deliberate conjointly with the proposed Council of State (practically the Upper House of the Indian Legislature). . . . [The proposal for the council of the princes received general support. In the following December the question of membership in the council was announced by the government.] It was stated that the rulers of all States entitled to a permanent dynastic salute of eleven guns or over would be entitled as a right to membership of the council. The lesser States would receive proportionate representation. The regulation in regard to salutes would include about eighty princes, but it was proposed to confer a similar honour upon a number of other princes, bringing the total . . . to over a hundred."—*Annual Register*, 1919, pp. 256-259; 261.—"On November 17, 1919, the Joint Committee of Lords and Commons appointed to consider the Government of India Bill presented its report. The amendments it proposed to the bill were accepted *en bloc* by the Coalition Government, without the alteration of

even a comma. The bill so amended passed the House of Commons on December 5 and, being approved by the House of Lords, became a law before the Christmas holidays [*i.e.* Dec. 23, 1919]. This fact lends special weight to the report of the committee, in which are discussed not only the provisions of the bill but also the principles which should guide Parliament, the Secretary of State, the Government of India and the provincial governments under the new constitution. Though the constitution is avowedly a transitional one, and though, with a changed Government at Whitehall, its years may be even fewer than its authors anticipate, the report is yet a historical document of the first magnitude."—B. Houghton, *Reform in India (Political Science Quarterly, Dec., 1920)*.—"During the autumn [of 1919] a committee headed by Lord Selborne had continued to take testimony relative to the measure. Among others, representatives of the Moderate party of India, the Indian National Congress, the All-Indian Moslem League, the National Home Rule League, the Madras Labor Union and the non-Brahmans of Madras, were heard. Opposed to the bill were the British in India who desired to continue their monopoly of privilege; the non-Brahmans who feared the development of an oligarchy of the priestly caste; the extreme nationalists, who regarded it as at best a weak compromise; and, finally, those who, while believing in democracy, felt that the people of India were not sufficiently trained for self-government. In discussing the measure before the House of Commons Mr. E. S. Montagu, Secretary of State for India, stated explicitly that it did not pretend to give to India a constitution that would be permanent. It was transitional—a bridge between government by the agents of Parliament and government by the representatives of the peoples of India. Its object, he declared, was to start India upon the road to responsible self-government by transferring to the people's representatives in India certain functions of government, reserving other functions to be handed over gradually as the people became capable of assuming responsibility. Lord Sinha, Under Secretary for India, voiced the same opinion."—H. J. Carman and E. D. Graper, *Political Science Quarterly, 1920, Supplement, pp. 103-104*.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: League of Nations.

1919.—Represented at Paris Conference. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work.

1919.—Promulgation of anti-sedition bills.—Protests and disturbances.—Amritsar incident.—Hunter Commission.—"In January 1919 the Government of India announced their intention of proceeding with the legislation recommended by the Sedition Committee on the opening of the February sessions of the Imperial Legislative Council. They published two draft Bills to be permanent in operation which embodied the Committee's recommendations. One Bill included the alterations proposed in the permanent law. The other, which was by far the more important, detailed the emergency legislation. . . . Outside the Council, Extremist leaders and journalists spared no pains to incite bitter agitation. They were joined, unfortunately, by Mr. Gandhi, who sent to the Press a pledge signed by numerous persons of his way of thinking, declaring that if the Sedition Bills became law they would 'civilly refuse to obey these laws and such other laws as a committee to be hereafter appointed might think fit.' They further affirmed that in this struggle they would 'faithfully follow the truth and refrain from violence to life, person, or property.' This, however, was going too far for

the Moderates. It was pointed out at once in a leading Moderate paper that the principle involved in the pledge was extremely dangerous and might lead anywhere, and on March 15th the Moderate leaders at Delhi issued a manifesto expressing disapproval of passive resistance. They did not, however, alter their own attitude toward the Bill, and the Extremist agitation continued. . . . While preparations were thus sedulously made for certain trouble, Mr. Gandhi, at the head of his committee of disciples, proclaimed a general closing of shops and suspension of business activity for March 30th. Subsequently he altered the day to April 6th; but on the former date occurred the first of a succession of tragedies more grievous in their nature and results than any that had befallen India since the days of the Mutiny. . . . The people of Delhi had been attentive to the recent controversial debates, and from subsequent occurrences it would seem that care was taken to intensify the impressions which they had received. The Legislative Council had broken up, and the heads of the Government of India had left Delhi, when on the morning of March 30th the shops of the city were closed as a protest against the passage of the Sedition Bill. Some shopkeepers who opened were induced to close again, and crowds in the streets exerted themselves to persuade drivers of cars to take their vehicles home, leaving passengers to walk. About 1.30 p.m. a crowd assembled outside the railway station, and some members thereof entered and attempted to prevent the railway contractor who was supplying food to third-class passengers from carrying out his duties. He was told that he must recognise the *hartâl* (stoppage of business). On refusing, he was assaulted. Two of his assailants were arrested; [riots followed; the military were called in; eight men were killed and twelve or thirteen were wounded]. Three days later a poster was discovered in the city inciting to murder. For some days shops were closed. Railway traffic, too, was obstructed. These incidents were the prelude to disturbances in other cities of India. . . . In Calcutta riots resulted in loss of life and injury to police officials. There, however, all was speedily over, and no disturbance occurred anywhere else in Bengal, the province which was the main cause of the anti-sedition legislation, but for which there would have been no such law-making. . . . The disturbances at Amritsar . . . [in the Punjab was] still more serious. Two leading lawyer agitators . . . [were] deported on the morning of . . . [April] 10th by order of the Local Government. This led to an immediate suspension of business. A mob collected and attempted to enter the civil lines, where they at once attacked the telegraph office. It was necessary to fire before they could be turned back. Sections then went to the railway goods shed and murdered a European guard. In the city they burnt and plundered the National Bank, murdering the British agents in charge thereof. They sacked another bank, murdered the agent, burnt the town hall and the Indian Christian Church, attacked buildings, and violently assaulted other Europeans, including two ladies. But for the action of some loyal Indians they would have done more. They destroyed telegraph wires and tore up railway lines. Some degree of order was restored; but the country round was greatly disturbed, and on the 13th, in Amritsar, a prohibited meeting was attended by a large crowd. This was dispersed by rifle fire with heavy casualties. Martial law was declared in Lahore and Amritsar on the 15th. But disorder

had spread to other towns and to villages adjoining towns. Wires were cut; railway lines were breached; two churches were burnt; Government property was attacked; Europeans were assaulted. By the 17th martial law was in working order in four districts. Afterwards it was extended to a wider area. By degrees order was re-established."—V. Lovett, *History of the Indian nationalist movement*, pp. 202, 206-209, 214-215.—In addition to the outbreaks at Amritsar and Lahore others had occurred on April 10th at Ahmedabad; on the 11th at Bombay; on the 12th at Viramgam and Kasur, and on the 14th at Gujranwala. "A great deal of discussion was caused both in India and in England by the severity with which General Dyer had suppressed the rioting in Amritsar on April 13. General Dyer had subsequently been deprived of his command, and the Imperial Government appointed a committee under the Chairmanship of Lord Hunter to investigate the whole question of the disturbances. The incident which had caused special criticism was the manner in which General Dyer fired upon a crowd which had collected in a space known as the Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar on April 13. The Hunter Committee, comprised, besides the Chairman, four other British members, and three Indian members. The English members presented a majority Report which condemned General Dyer's actions, and the Indians presented a minority Report which condemned General Dyer in more severe terms. It transpired that the crowd in the Jallianwala Bagh, though very large and riotous (it numbered about 15,000 persons), and although assembled contrary to a public proclamation, was unarmed. In order to disperse this crowd General Dyer, in command of a small force, fired ball cartridge into the mob without giving the people a preliminary warning to disperse. He continued to fire for ten minutes, and about 370 persons were killed and about three times that number were wounded. The British Government and the Government of India agreed with the Hunter Committee in holding that force was used with undue severity. General Dyer on his side said that in the very critical situation then existing, it was necessary to make an impression not only in Amritsar but in the Punjab generally. The impression made in India by the Amritsar incident was undoubtedly very bad, and many moderate Indian politicians were estranged from the ruling race. But among the British community in India General Dyer had many sympathizers."—*Annual Register*, 1920, pp. 273-274.—As it was decided that General Dyer could not again be profitably employed, he was retired from the army.

1919 (May-August).—War with Afghanistan. See AFGHANISTAN: 1919.

1919-1922.—Sikh unrest.—"The agitation connected with the Rowlatt Act in 1919 and the subsequent Jallianwala Bagh tragedy affected the Sikhs, but not as much as it did other communities. On the other hand, the enquiry made by the Hunter Committee, and the flood of recriminative oratory which was poured forth during and after that enquiry, swept many of the educated Sikhs off their feet. In spite of this, up to the end of 1920 the mass of the Sikhs still kept apart. . . . [But, the fact that the rewards actually granted for services in the World War did not come up to expectation caused great dissatisfaction, and] is one of the causes of their sudden falling away. . . . The Muslim community had in past years kept entirely aloof from this anti-British agitation just as the Sikhs were doing, but the defection of the Ali brothers and their following

gave some ground for the allegations that the Muslims had joined the Hindus to form a national party. That party could not be truly national until the Sikhs joined it. For this reason, and also because the defection of the Sikhs would be a very serious blow to the British Government, introducing as it would an element of weakness into the Indian Army, a very intense campaign was opened against Sikh loyalty in 1920. . . . [It was aided by agitation on the subject of temple services. The] question of the removal from shrines of bad Mahants had been agitated for some time, but . . . in view of the reforms the Government was not willing to consider legislation till the new Councils had come into being. The more hot-headed among the Sikhs became impatient. Towards the middle of 1920 a band of them seized a part of the Golden Temple. . . . The self-formed committee of management very soon assumed powers over all Gurdwaras and called itself the *Shromani Gurdwara Parbandhak Committee*, which may be translated 'The Honourable General Committee for the Management of Gurdwaras.' . . . Volunteers were called for, and bands of men were formed to take possession of other Gurdwaras, the Mahants of which were deemed to be objectionable. These bands of men were called Akalis, . . . 'belonging to the Immortal.' . . . [Their duties were to eject Mahants, and take possession of gurdwaras and their treasures.] To help the Akalis to reform the shrines, or to help the Mahants to retain them, would have seemed like interference in the religious belief of one or other of these factions. Government, therefore, kept apart from the dispute, leaving it to the Mahants' party, or to the Akalis, to take such legal action as they wished. . . . [Unrest grew meantime, and] towards the end of 1920 a stormy meeting of the Sikh League, a purely political body, was held at Lahore. The upshot was a decision that the Sikhs should throw in their lot with the Hindus and Muslims. . . . [This decision affected mainly the town Sikhs.] In January, 1921, a famous shrine at Tarn Taran, near Amritsar, was taken in spite of resistance, and there was bloodshed, two men being killed. . . . The position was now becoming very difficult, and a solution was being sought by which the genuine religious aspirations of the Sikh, who formed the rank and file of the movement might be satisfied, [when an attack was made at Nankana. The mahant who had been forewarned was prepared, and 130 men were entrapped and slain.] . . . Effective military measures were taken by Government to prevent further seizures of shrines, and a Bill was hastily drawn up by which an enquiry could be made as to the property in shrines and an *ad interim* committee of management could be appointed. That Bill was rejected by the Sikh leaders. The control of the movement was now entirely political. . . . The movement was no longer a purely provincial movement, it was an all-India movement. The Sikhs were now being directed by outsiders . . . and these men wanted time. . . . It is a misuse of language to call this state of affairs a religious agitation. . . . The first signs of discontent were visible as far back as 1907, and were due to outside influence. At the end of 1913 a regular campaign against Sikh loyalty was begun. This movement had its headquarters in America, and ended in the abortive conspiracy of 1915 (the Ghadr conspiracy). Then came the attack of the Hindu Congress and the Muslim League, which captured the Sikh political organisation at the end of 1920. From the ground thus gained the joint forces, now completely unmasked, are attacking British rule in India."—

Komma, *Sikh situation in the Punjab* (Fortnightly Review, Feb., 1923).

1920.—Strength of agricultural movement. See COÖPERATION: India.

1920-1922.—Labor office established.—Factories Act amendment.—Hours of labor.—Labor organization.—General strikes. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1920-1922; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1920-1922; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1920-1922: Industrial disturbances.

1921.—Reparation receipts apportioned at Imperial Conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921: Treaty of Versailles.

1921.—Represented at the London Imperial Conference.—Question of Anglo-Japanese Alliance.—Declaration of Dominion rights. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921.

1921.—Changes in administration by Government of India Act.—Summary of act.—“Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it—almost as important in their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act was the outcome of . . . [the Montagu-Chelmsford enquiry and report on Indian constitutional reform, supplemented by the reports] of two Committees which toured India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919. . . . [Under the act in Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa,] the executive Government is a dual organism [dyarchy] which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of ‘the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council, all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are ‘reserved.’ The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of ‘transferred’ subjects. . . . The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India. . . . No attempt was made . . . to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general . . . but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified. . . . The ‘revenues of India’—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided

between the Central and Provincial Governments; the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their ‘allocated’ revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor-General’s sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised. It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governors’ provinces, the province of Bihar and Orissa, . . . having been exempted. . . . The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority . . . (70 per cent. as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any ‘Governor’s province’ to extend the franchise to women. . . . The electorates in each province are arranged for the most part on a basis which is designed to give separate representation to the various races, communities, and special interests into which the diverse elements of the Indian population naturally range themselves. . . . Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, *i.e.*, each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a ‘Muhammadan’ or ‘non-Muhammadan’ constituency is a district . . . of rural constituencies, . . . [or] a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six ‘non-Muhammadan’ and two ‘Muhammadan.’ . . . Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests, such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as ‘special’ constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as ‘general’ constituencies. . . . The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province. . . . Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification. . . . Although the Legislative Councils . . . had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood. . . . The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—(i) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies; (ii) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation; and (iii) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor’s concurrence. A further right . . . [to be acquired] after four years from the time of their commencement is the right [of the Councils] to elect their own President. At the outset the President . . . [was to be] nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council . . . [had] an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex-officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any di-

rect connection with its proceedings. The first-named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself. '72D.—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils. (2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the council in each year, and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the council in the form of demands for grants. The council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount therein referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed:—Provided that—(a) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject; and (b) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquillity of the province, or for the carrying on of any department; and (c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor, communicated to the council. . . . [From this subsection (c)] (i) contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council; and (ii) interest and sinking fund charges on loans; and (iii) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and (iv) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and (v) salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general [are excepted]. If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final. . . .

"The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The 'reserved' subjects comprise all those in the list of 'provincial' (as distinct from 'central') subjects which are not transferred. . . . No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council; decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non-official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an im-

portant factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, . . . are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But these factors . . . are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government, and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament, and, in the last resort, of the British electorate. . . . With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and . . . each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred 'departments' which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, . . . to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from restrictions. . . . The Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration which, in his judgment, was incompatible with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity; yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great. . . . The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves, of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made 'for the allocation of revenues or moneys for the purpose of such 'administration' i.e., 'the administration of transferred subjects by the Governor acting with Ministers.' Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an 'order of allocation' or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. . . . The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the

Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the reconstitution in a much more enlarged, representative and independent form of the central legislature. . . . This body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain 'additional members' appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of 'additional members,' who . . . under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers . . . the Executive Councilors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1910. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the 'Indian Legislature,' as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The Upper Chamber, or 'Council of State,' contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected, . . . and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The Lower Chamber, or 'Legislative Assembly,' consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including as in the case of the Council of State, one Berar member, who, though actually elected, is technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council, may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General. . . . The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years; but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General. . . .

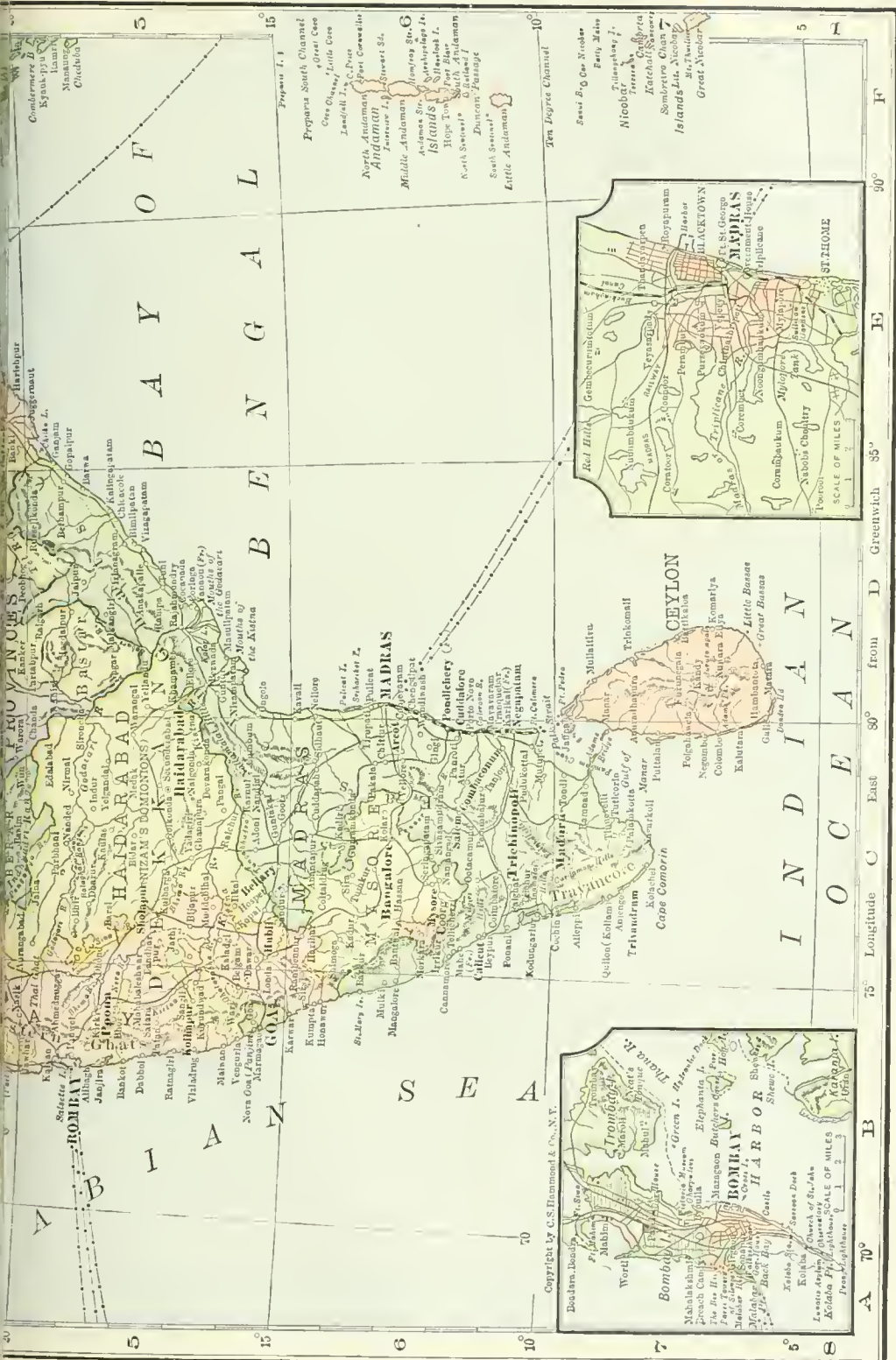
"The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909. . . . Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described, except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and past service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis; that is, a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province. . . . The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of these voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The

qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon. The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a 'Senate of Elder Statesmen' and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a 'true revising Chamber.' With this object, in addition, and as an alternative to a high property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature. . . . The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the 'central' sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government. But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces, and as consequently the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces; that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects. . . . The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. . . . Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions. In due course the ap-









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portionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected; then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. . . . The Governor-General and the 'Executive' members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Land Revenue and Agriculture, the Home, the Finance and the Education Departments. The Law Member has charge of the Legislative Department, and a member with English official experience has charge of the Commerce and Industry Department. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Board of three members, whose chairman has the status of a Secretary, and are under the general control of the Commerce and Industry Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an 'extraordinary' member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become 'extraordinary' members if the Council meets within their Presidencies. . . . In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance, and any matter in which it is proposed to over-rule the views of a Local Government, must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroy. . . . The keynote of the scheme is effective provincial autonomy and the establishment of an immediate measure of responsibility in the Provinces all of which are raised to the status of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. . . . [The chief subjects reserved to the Government of India are] defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other force raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments; [naval and military works, external relations, immigration and emigration; relations with states in India, political charges; railways, aircraft, waterways; shipping and navigation; lighthouse service; quarantine service and ports; posts; telegraphs and telephones; customs and revenues; currency and coinage; public debt; savings department; audit departments; civil, criminal and ecclesiastical law and police; commerce, banking, insurance, trading companies and associations; control of production and supply; development of industries; control of opium, petroleum and explosives; arms and munitions; mineral development; scientific research and surveys and technical and professional training; patents and copyright; census and statistics; all India services; territorial changes, other than inter-provincial; the Public Service Commission.]—S. Reed, ed., *Indian Year Book*, 1922, pp. 15-25.

1921-1922.—Inauguration of new government.—Esher report.—Khalifat agitation.—Moplah revolt.—Gandhi's leadership.—Non-coöperation.—"Inauguration of the new government, in accordance with the Montagu-Chelmsford reports, met with determined opposition from Nationalists under the leadership of M. Gandhi, anti-English agitator and a disciple of Tolstoy. At the Indian National Congress, held September 8, Gandhi's

program of passive resistance to the British was framed to include gradual withdrawal of children from schools and colleges owned, aided or controlled by the government; gradual boycott of British courts by lawyers and litigants and the establishment of private arbitration courts by them for settlement of disputes; refusal on the part of the military, clerical and laboring classes to offer themselves as recruits for service; withdrawal of Indians from Government service and positions of honor under the government; withdrawal by candidates of their candidature for elections to the Reformed Councils and refusal on the part of the electorate to vote for any candidates; and boycott of British goods. This plan, although it failed to meet with the success anticipated by its sponsor, intensified anti-British feeling. . . . Distrust of England was further aroused by the report of the Esher Committee, appointed in 1919 to inquire into the administration and organization of the Indian army. This committee's conclusions, apart from measures devised to grant liberal and sympathetic treatment to all ranks in the Indian army, to remove existing grievances and create new services, included the important recommendation that the ultimate authority of the Indian army be taken away from the authorities in India and transferred to the British chief of staff. The report was interpreted by the Indians as a scheme whereby the British government may use the Indian army to further its imperialistic adventures in the Near and Middle East. Despite all obstacles the new government was organized, appointment of governors being made in August. Sir William Meyer entered upon his duties as first High Commissioner for India on October 1, 1920."—*Political Science Quarterly*, 1920-1921, *Supplement*.—"The elections held in November and December, 1920, under the new constitutional scheme, passed off far more successfully than had been anticipated. Taking the ten legislative bodies collectively (two Chambers of the Indian Legislature and the eight provincial Councils) there were 774 seats to be filled by election and 1,957 candidates stood for them. There were contested elections for 535 of the 774 seats and for these 535 seats 1,778 candidates were forthcoming. In all Provinces the dearth of candidates was most marked in Mohammedan constituencies, particularly in the towns, and this was specially noticeable in the Bombay Presidency and in the Punjab. This must be attributed to the boycott which was largely advocated and adopted by Mohammedans as a protest against the Turkish peace terms. The Non-Brahmins were unexpectedly successful in the Madras Presidency, and the landholders secured a large proportion of the open seats in the Councils in which their apprehensions had been specially expressed—Bengal, the United Provinces, and Bihar and Orissa. In the formation of the new Provincial Governments, notable incidents were the appointment of Mr. Surendranath Banerjee as Minister in the Government of Bengal and of Lala Harkishan Lal as Minister in the Punjab. [Lord Sinha had been appointed governor of Bihar and Orissa.] The Provincial Legislative Councils were opened in January, and the All-India Legislative Assembly and Council of State and also the newly-constituted Chamber of Princes were opened by the Duke of Connaught in Delhi early in February. [See also DELHI: 1921.] His Royal Highness conveyed the greetings of His Majesty the King to the Princes of the Indian States and to all his subjects in India on the reaching of another epoch inaugurated by the Act of 1919, an Act designed to satisfy the growing desire of his Indian subjects for representative institutions and to make a definite step on the road

to self-government. The Duke of Connaught made a personal appeal to British and Indians to bury along with the dead past the mistakes and misunderstandings of the past and to work together to realise the hopes arising from that day.

"Non-co-operation with Government as a political force made rapid progress. Prosecutions in the cases of incitements to violence were instituted by Government with greater freedom, but attempts were made to redress genuine grievances. The 'repressive' laws and Press Acts were referred to a non-official Committee of the Legislature. The movement manifested itself in various forms—strikes, campaigns against the use of foreign cloth, an increase of racial feeling, a more virulent Khalifat agitation, attempts to seduce the police and the



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army from their allegiance, and various outbreaks of mob violence. . . . Many disturbances, with serious loss of life, took place at various places in July. The Moplah rebellion, mentioned below, and the regrettable incidents connected with the reception of the Prince of Wales on November 17 at Bombay were followed by an increasing disregard for authority and necessitated drastic measures by Government, who authorised the application of the Seditious Meetings Act. In reply to a demand for a Round-Table Conference, put forward by the 'Moderates,' Lord Reading insisted on the necessity of the discontinuance of the unlawful activities of the non-co-operation party. . . . Mr. Gandhi announced that he reserved the right to continue during a Conference preparations for civil disobedience, etc., whilst putting forward conditions which the Government were asked to accept. The President, Sir Sankaran Nair, withdrew and Moderate opinion was . . . alienated. In August troops and po-

lice who were giving assistance to the district magistrate in Malabar, while he was making arrests of dangerous leaders, were attacked heavily at Tirurangadi by armed bodies of Moplahs. The cause of the outbreak was the excited state of religious fanaticism which had been aroused among the Moplahs who look upon all non-Moslems as Kafirs and have a great reverence for the Sultan as Khalif. The non-co-operation and Khalifat agitators had reached Malabar and carefully prepared the ground for the purpose of creating an atmosphere favourable to violence in the district. Some Europeans and many Hindus were murdered, Government offices were burnt and looted, records were destroyed, Hindu temples were sacked, the houses of Europeans and Hindus were burnt, and many Hindus were forcibly converted to Islam—all leading to a total collapse of civil Government and the possibility of famine in one of the most fertile tracts of South India. The crime and disorder ensuing on the outbreak necessitated the promulgation of martial law and severe military measures against the rebels. Up to December 9 the total number of Moplah casualties since the outbreak were: killed, 1,826; wounded, 1,500; captured 5,474; voluntary surrenders, 14,241. At the end of the year the rebels actively resisting were practically confined to two main gangs under chief leaders in the hills, with an estimated total of 700, and about seven scattered dacoit gangs in the north-eastern portion of the area, all of whom were fugitive and closely hunted. . . . On February 23 the Council of State adopted a Resolution recommending that the Government of India be granted full fiscal autonomy subject to the provisions of the Government of India Act. A Committee was appointed (with Sir Ibrahim Rahintulla as President) to examine, with reference to all the interests concerned, the tariff policy of the Government of India, including the question of adopting the principle of Imperial preference. . . . The Prince of Wales, . . . reached India on November 17. He landed at Bombay, where the general reception by the populace was enthusiastic, but in the Indian quarter there was serious rioting, traceable to the activities of the non-co-operators, and to intimidation by Gandhi's agents and Khalifat volunteers. In Poona the Prince was joyfully received, but at Allahabad and Ajmere the population remained indoors. The *hartal* declared on the day of the Prince's arrival at Calcutta was partially successful, but it soon broke down."—*Annual Register, 1921, pp. 275-277.*

The Moplah rebellion was in 1921 the most serious result of the nationalist movement under the leadership of M. R. Gandhi. Gandhi continued to advocate Tolstoy's passive resistance to the law, and non-co-operation to which he added civil disobedience to authority, without violence, and swadeshi. He went about making bonfires of foreign cloth, and both on the platform and through the native journals endeavored to press his doctrines home to the people, and to undermine the authority of the British. In this latter effort he was greatly assisted by the wrath of the Moslem leaders over the treaty of Sèvres. "Non-co-operation was launched by Gandhi in 1920 to obtain adequate redress for what he believed to be two great wrongs—the Amritsar slayings and the Turkish treaty. In other words, besides his own national grievance, Gandhi took up the cause of the Mohammedans. His program called for the voluntary renunciation of British titles held by Indians, for refusal to volunteer for army service in Mesopotamia, for the boycott of British courts, schools and public functions; for non-co-operation in political life. It called on the Hindu people to refuse



to buy British cloth, and to return to the old spinning wheel of the time of the Vedas. Gandhi himself went from place to place making bonfires of great piles of foreign cloth. Various lieutenants of his were arrested and imprisoned; Gandhi himself, until now, had gone untouched. The policy of the Indian Government, as explained by Mr.

ing warned Gandhi that they would be arrested if they persisted in this preaching of sedition. Gandhi promised that he would persuade them to keep within the law. Subsequently they were arrested and tried on long-standing sedition charges. Gandhi still remained immune, while the 'die-hards' in the British Commons were clamoring for his



MADAME GANDHI

Teaching native women to weave as part of non-coöperative policy of her husband

Montagu and other Indian officials, has been to let the whole movement of non-co-operation fall of its own weight. Those seeing the effect might say that it has proved itself to be a lighter-than-air machine. Soon after Lord Reading took over the Viceregal power, he and Gandhi had an interview, which resulted in no agreement. When the Ali brothers [two of the Mohammedan leaders] grew violent in their public addresses, Lord Read-

arrest, and for the resignation of Montagu, to whom they assigned responsibility for this dangerous policy of allowing the chief instigator and trouble maker to go untouched."—*New York Times Current History*, Apr., 1922, pp. 6-7.—"Lajpat Rai, one of Gandhi's lieutenants and also Gandhi's son received prison sentences [in December, 1921]. By resolution of the Indian National Congress on December 29 Gandhi was given sole

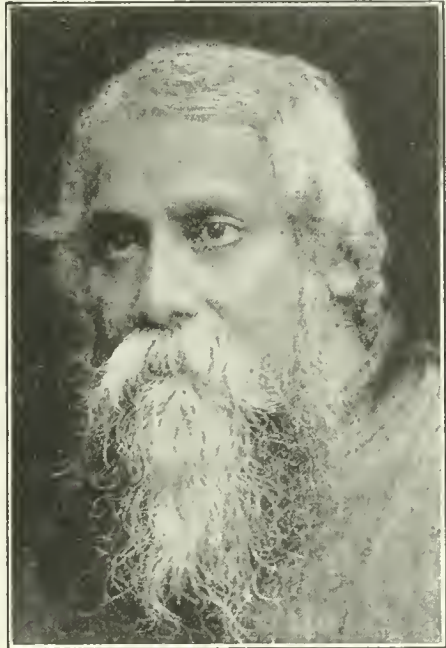
executive authority over all Nationalists' activities in India. Early in February, in what practically amounted to an ultimatum to the Viceroy, he offered to postpone mass civil disobedience on condition that the Viceroy liberate all political prisoners within a week and restore liberty of association and freedom of the press. In reply the Viceroy declined to discuss, much less to accept, the proposal and intimated that sterner rule would be introduced. Meanwhile arrests and rioting continued. On February 4 the police post at Chauri was stormed by Nationalist volunteers and seventeen officials were killed; by the middle of the month the situation was so menacing in Madras that all Europeans were enrolled as special constables by order of the government. Mob fury and violence horrified Gandhi and on February 14, the Executive (Working) Committee of the Indian National Congress, in a statement deploring mob spirit and mob methods, suspended civil disobedience and instructed local committees to advise cultivators to pay their tax obligations. That the congressional resolution was not strictly obeyed was evident from the serious outbreak at Assam on February 20, from the continued intimidation of tax-collectors and the burning of crops in the Calcutta region, from the increasing hostility to British officials over large areas in the United Provinces and Behar, from the growing bitterness of the Sikhs, and from the rebellious attitude displayed by the Khalifatists in the Punjab. Alarmed by the course of events, the government on March 10 caused the arrest of Gandhi on the charge of sedition; he was subsequently sentenced to prison for a term of six years. . . . It is of political interest to note that the princes or native rulers of India stand almost solidly for British rule and against Gandhi and his movement."—*Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, pp. 79-80.—A letter written by Gandhi from prison gives an excellent picture of the social and economic ideas held by this remarkable man. "If British rule were replaced tomorrow by Indian rule based on modern methods, India would be no better, except that she would be able then to retain some of the money that is drained away to England; but then India would become only a second or fifth nation of Europe or America. East and West can only really meet when the West has thrown overboard modern civilization almost in its entirety. They can also seemingly meet when the East has also adopted modern civilization, but that meeting would be an armed truce. Medical science is the concentrated essence of black magic. Quackery is infinitely preferable to what passes for high medical skill. Hospitals are the instruments that the devil has been using for his own purpose, in order to keep his hold in the kingdom. They perpetuate vice, misery, degradation and real slavery. If there were no hospitals for venereal diseases, or even for consumptives, we should have less consumption and less sexual vice among us. India should wear no machine-made clothing, whether it comes out of European mills or Indian mills. India's salvation consists in unlearning what she has learned during the past fifty years. The railways, telegraphs, hospitals, lawyers, doctors and such like have all to go, and the so-called upper classes have to learn to live religiously and deliberately the simple peasant life, knowing it to be a life giving true happiness. There was true wisdom in the sages of old having so regulated society as to limit the material condition of the people; the rude plow of perhaps 5,000 years ago is the plow of the husbandman today. Therein lies salvation. People live long under such conditions, in comparative peace, much greater than Europe has enjoyed

after having taken up modern activity."—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1922, pp. 1066-1067.—His absence from political activity tended to produce a greater degree of quiet than India had for some time enjoyed. Gandhi's chief weapon, Mohammedan dissatisfaction with the treatment of the Turk and uneasiness over the disposition of the political nemesis of E. J. Montagu, Secretary of State for India, who was requested to resign from office in consequence of having published a telegram which he had received from the Viceroy on the subject.—See also ENGLAND: 1922 (February-April).

"Recrudescence of racial antagonism . . . imported fresh difficulties into the whole scheme of constitutional evolution embodied in the Statute of 1919. Gandhi's original campaign was directed mainly against the Reforms themselves, and it completely failed. Non-Cooperation tried to kill them in the womb by boycotting the elections to the new Councils and terrorising all those who ventured to take part in them whether as electors or as candidates. It failed to do so, and it failed on the whole equally in its attempts to boycott the Law Courts of a Satanic Government and the Government schools and colleges and every form of Government service. Its appeal to the Western educated classes fell, in fact, almost entirely flat, and it was, indeed, only because it fell . . . so flat that it turned in desperation, but only too successfully, to the ignorant masses. The savage outbreaks which attended this new form of Non-Cooperation propaganda still further estranged the Indian Moderates, of whom many had themselves had a taste of Non-Cooperation violence during the elections. They knew that, if Non-Cooperation had its way, not only would the new representative institutions of which they had gained control be swept away, but that the whole country would be plunged into anarchy. Some of them, too, were now intimately associated under the Reforms scheme with the government and administration of the country, and were acquiring not only experience but some sense of responsibility with the possession for the first time of substantial political power. Thanks to the Reforms, there seemed, therefore, every reason to hope that, face to face with an agitation which the Moderates could not deny to be largely revolutionary, the 'politically-minded' classes would not be deterred by their old antagonism to a bureaucracy, no longer by any means dominant and, for the most part, genuinely anxious to work with them, from rallying wholeheartedly to the side of Government. Such hopes, it must, however, be admitted, were only partially fulfilled. The large Indian majority in the new popular Assemblies were ready to acknowledge that law and order must be maintained or restored. But they began to haver over the methods to be employed for that purpose. They jibbed at the old word 'repression,' though they did not deny that Non-Cooperators were in many cases actual, as well as potential, law-breakers, and that, if the law is to be maintained, law-breakers must be repressed. They deprecated rather than opposed. They were swayed by sentiment rather than by reason. . . . The first Indian Legislative Assembly elected under the new constitution has been confronted at Delhi in two successive years with the worst budgets on record, one showing a deficit of £18,000,000 and another a deficit of £22,000,000, and both involving heavy increases of taxation. If this were merely bad State finance, Indians might not have more reason to grumble than other people whose public finances are not always wisely administered. But what the Indians see and resent is that both the deficits put together represent less

than the loss inflicted upon India by a disastrous currency and exchange policy for which Government must bear the blame, even if it originated in Whitehall rather than in Delhi. Worse still, that policy was adopted on the recommendations of a special commission of inquiry against the whole weight of Indian evidence and the protests of the one Indian member who recorded his objections in a prophetic minute of dissent from the unanimous views of his eminent European colleagues. It was an attempt to take advantage of the artificial rise in the price of silver during the war in order to 'stabilise' the rupee at the exchange rate of 2s. After a temporary boom which sent the rupee up to 2s. 10d., the rupee proceeded to fall continuously, . . . and [in 1922 was] slightly below the old level of 1s. 4d. Not only did the Indian Exchequer suffer enormous losses on its own exchange operations, but the whole trade of India was paralysed, and, when Indian merchants, threatened in many cases with ruin, appealed to Government for compensation or help, . . . [they] were told that Government disclaimed all responsibility. . . . All this was, of course, grist to the Non-Cooperation mill, and conservative Indian merchants—*Bunnias* of Bombay and *Marwaris* of Calcutta—were easily persuaded to believe in the bitterness of their hearts that India's loss had filled the pockets of European financiers. . . . Add to these financial considerations the growing demand for the Indianisation of the Indian army, hitherto essentially a British fighting machine for which the Indians only furnish the raw material whilst executive command and administrative control remain entirely in British hands. This demand is partly the outcome of racial feeling, partly the expression of revived national consciousness. Many Indians realise that they cannot aspire to dominion self-government until they can protect as well as govern themselves. How, they ask, can they protect themselves until their army has been Indianised in the same measure as the Government and administration are already being rapidly Indianised? . . . Military expenditure is, it is true, a 'reserved' subject upon which, according to the latest opinion of the Law Officers of the Crown, the Viceroy himself has no authority to allow the Indian Legislature to vote in the present stage of constitutional evolution. But the powers which the Legislative Assembly already enjoys in regard to the granting or refusal of supplies when they involve increased taxation . . . are wide enough to enable it to bring very great pressure to bear indirectly upon Government. . . . [When the budget for 1922] showed the warning to have gone unheeded, it went much further. It cut down the estimate right and left, and if it did not perhaps always show wisdom in the selection of the items to be reduced, its action was none the less effective as a protest against extravagance, not only in the military but in every department. In the same spirit it rejected all increase in the salt tax and in the excise duty on Indian-made cotton cloth—both specially detested imposts—and it reduced other increases of taxation, though the Finance Member defended them as the only chance of restoring a budget equilibrium of which even then he could not guarantee the stability. The prolonged discussions, sometimes very heated, ended in a compromise both as to curtailed supplies and taxation, which [left] . . . the Government of India to face an uncovered deficit of over £9,000,000, though the profits (about £2,000,000) on the paper currency . . . [were] to be utilised for revenue purposes—a financial expedient of very doubtful

orthodoxy. It was agreed also that a Commission, . . . should overhaul public expenditure and methods of administration with a view to drastic retrenchment. . . . Under the Act of 1919, the Viceroy might of course have exercised the power still vested in him to restore the budget as presented by Sir Malcolm Hailey over the Assembly's head. . . . Lord Reading . . . realised, however, that this would have meant a conflict with the Indian Legislatures, not only in Delhi, but in the provinces where the local Governments are faced with equally acute difficulties in making both ends meet, and such a conflict would have grievously compromised the prospects of constitutional evolu-



RABINDRANATH TAGORE  
Poet, essayist and scholar

tion and done just what Non-Cooperation had tried and failed to do. It would have wrecked the new Legislatures and driven the Moderates back into the arms of the Extremists at the very moment when the latter had been badly worsted. Moreover, opposition to the budget had been by no means confined to Indians, and the elected European members of the Assembly, representing the great commercial communities, had been scarcely less critical than Indian colleagues. Even apart from the danger of a political conflict, Lord Reading's own judgment as a business man may well have told him that the Assembly, however unpalatable its action at the moment, had in reality done good service to India. . . . The limits of taxation in the old directions, when India was almost exclusively an agricultural country, have probably been reached. But India is becoming also a great industrial country; and, just as the war which compelled Government thoroughly to explore for the first time her immense natural resources, gave a vigorous impetus to their development for industrial and commercial purposes, the pressure of financial necessity may now compel Government to reconsider the incidence and distribution of taxation on lines better adapted to the new sources of wealth that are opening out. Less easy to justify is the demand put forward

for an acceleration of the stages of constitutional evolution which were laid down in the Act of 1919. It is doubtless meant chiefly as a counterblast to the Non-Cooperation demand for immediate *Swaraj* with a complete severance, explicit or implicit, of the British connexion; and unfortunately some Indian Moderates are more inclined to disarm popular impatience by yielding to clamour than to go on plodding away at the wearisome task of educating their electorates. . . . Equally unwise, too, seems the agitation for the more rapid Indianisation of the public services, of which one effect is to intensify the growing reluctance of young Englishmen to seek an Indian career. The fall in the value of the rupee and the enormous rise in the cost of living in India are in themselves sufficiently serious obstacles to recruitment into the Indian public services in [Great Britain]. . . . Add to these all the unpleasant reports as to the hostile atmosphere which Europeans have now to face, the eagerness of many British officials to avail themselves of the opportunity given to them of retiring at once on proportional pensions if they dislike the reforms, and the difficulty in the way of any guarantees for fixity of tenure, for prospects of promotion, and even for future rates of pay and pension when the domain of Indian self-government shall have expanded as it is bound to expand and may possibly expand very quickly, and one can understand, even if one deplures it, the fact that young Englishmen no longer care to enter for any branch of the Indian administration. The paucity—one might almost say the absence—of candidates for the Indian services at our chief Universities is already creating an alarming situation to which the more thoughtful Indians will, one must hope, speedily awaken. For even those who are now trying to force the pace admit that India cannot for a long time dispense with European assistance. Nor does she wish to do so. Yet there is a real danger that the supply from this country will have dried up long before there are enough Indians equipped to take the place of Englishmen."—V. Chirol, *Outlook in India* (*Quarterly Review*, July, 1922).

1922 (May).—Represented at Genoa Congress of Oriental peoples. See GENOA CONGRESS OF ORIENTAL PEOPLES.

INDIAN AFFAIRS, Commissioner of. See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE, UNITED STATES.

INDIAN ARMY, World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 16; w, 20; 1915: II. Western front: b, 3; c, 6; c, 11; VI. Turkey: a, 4, xv; a, 4, xxvii; b, 1, i; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: a, 1, iii; INDIA: 1914-1918.

INDIAN COMMISSIONERS, Board of. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1865-1876.

INDIAN COUNCILS BILL (1909). See INDIA: 1908-1909.

INDIAN EMPIRE, Order of the, order instituted by Queen Victoria in 1878.

INDIAN MUTINY. See INDIA: 1857, to 1857-1858.

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT. See INDIA: 1905-1922; 1907-1921; 1919.

INDIAN RESERVATIONS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Statistics of population; Iroquois confederacy; Iroquoian family; WYOMING: 1906; U. S. A.: 1885-1891.

INDIAN SCHOOLS, United States. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: North American Indians; U. S. A.: 1885-1891.

INDIAN TERRITORY, former territory of the United States, now included in the state of Oklahoma.

1803.—Embraced in the Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1824.—Set off from Arkansas Territory. See ARKANSAS: 1819-1836.

1830.—Boundaries included parts of Arkansas and Iowa. See OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837.

1845-1861.—Period of progress and development. See OKLAHOMA: 1845-1861; U. S. A.: 1853-1854.

1850.—Divided at 37th parallel.—Northern part organized by white people. See OKLAHOMA: 1844-1856.

1866.—Results of Civil War.—Attempts to organize territory. See OKLAHOMA: 1866; 1866-1879.

1866-1883.—Industrial development.—Texas cattle trade. See OKLAHOMA: 1866-1883.

1872.—Railroad construction. See OKLAHOMA: 1872.

1889.—Establishment of courts.—Tribal ownership and its abuse. See OKLAHOMA: 1889-1898.

1898.—Inhabited by Indian tribes. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1893-1898.

1906.—Joint Statehood Act.—Union with Oklahoma. See U. S. A.: 1906 (June).

INDIAN TRAILS. See NEW YORK: Aboriginal inhabitants; TRAILS.

INDIANA, one of the middle western states of the United States, bounded on the north by Michigan; on the east by Ohio; on the south by Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Ohio river; on the west by Illinois. It has a total area of 36,354 square miles; an estimated population, 1920, of 2,930,390. It is known as the "Hoosier State." The traditional belief in Indiana is that the word "Hoosier" was first put in print by John Finley, in his poem "The Hoosier's Nest."

Resources.—Indiana, largely agricultural, has an area of 20,948,981 acres of which, 17,393,982 are improved land. The principal crops are tobacco, fruits, vegetables, and cereals. In 1921, the livestock industry had a total of 4,776,850 head, which consisted of 591,289 horses, 534,865 other cattle, 724,313 milch cows, 591,289 sheep, 2,238,618 swine, and 06,476 mules. The chief mineral products are coal, clay, cement, and stone. The coal-fields have an area of 6,500 square miles with an output, 1917, of 30,420,000 short tons, valued at \$11,000,000. The varied and extensive manufacturing industries turned out products, 1919, valued at \$1,901,846,000.—See also U. S. A.: Economic map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; ALLEGHANS; DELAWARES; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests.

1700-1735.—Occupation by French. See CANADA: 1700-1735.

1763.—Cession to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties.

1763.—King's proclamation excluding settlers. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1763.

1765.—Possession taken by English. See ILLINOIS: 1765.

1774.—Embraced in province of Quebec. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

1778-1779.—Taken from British by George Rogers Clark.—Annexation to Kentucky district of Virginia. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest.

1784.—Included in proposed states of Assenisipia, Metropotamia, Illinoia and Polypotamia. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1784.

1786.—Partially covered by western land claims of Connecticut, ceded to the United States. See U. S. A.: 1781-1786.

1787.—Ordinance for government of Northwest Territory.—Perpetual exclusion of slavery. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1787.

1790-1795.—Indian War.—Disastrous expeditions of Harmar and St. Clair.—Wayne's decisive victory. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1790-1795.

1800.—Territory of Indiana organized. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1788-1802.

1800-1818.—Successive partitions of the territory.—Michigan and Illinois detached.—Admitted as state.—“Indiana Territory as originally organized [in 1800] . . . included the county of Knox, upon the Wabash, from which has sprung the State of Indiana; the county of St. Clair, on the Upper Mississippi, or Illinois River, from which has sprung the State of Illinois; and the county of Wayne, upon the Detroit River, from which has sprung the State of Michigan. [See also MICHIGAN: 1800-1802.] . . . At this time, the inhabitants contained in all of them did not amount to more than 5,640 souls. . . . By successive treaties, the Indian title was extinguished gradually to all the country lying upon the waters of the White River, and upon all the lower tributaries of the Wabash, upon the Little Wabash, the Kaskaskia, and east of the Mississippi, below the mouth of the Illinois. [See also MISSOURI: 1803-1812.] Thus, before the close of the year 1805, nearly all the southern half of the present State of Indiana, and one third of the State of Illinois, was open to the advance of the enterprising pioneer. . . . In 1807, the Federal government, in like manner, purchased from the Indians extensive regions west of Detroit River, and within the present State of Michigan, far beyond the limits of the white settlements in that quarter. Meantime, the settlements formerly comprised in Wayne county, having increased in inhabitants and importance, had been erected into a separate territorial government, known and designated as the ‘Territory of Michigan.’ On the 1st of July, 1805, the territory entered upon the first grade of territorial government, under the provisions of the ordinance of 1787; and William Hull, formerly a lieutenant in the Revolutionary army, was made the first governor. . . . Detroit . . . was made the seat of the territorial government. . . . By the close of the year 1808, the Indiana Territory east of the Wabash had received such an increase in numbers that it was desirable to assume the second grade of territorial government. Having a population of 5,000 free white males, Congress, with a view to a future state government, by an act approved February 3d, 1800, restricted its limits, and authorized a territorial Legislature. . . . The Indiana Territory, from this time, was bounded on the west by a line extending up the middle of the Wabash, from its mouth to Vincennes, and thence by a meridian due north to the southern extremity of Lake Michigan. On the north, it was bounded by the southern line of the Michigan Territory. That portion west of the Wabash was erected into a separate territorial government of the first grade, known and designated as the ‘Illinois Territory.’ The inhabitants of the Indiana Territory soon began to augment more rapidly. . . . In 1810 the people had increased in numbers to 24,500, and in the newly-erected Territory of Illinois there was an aggregate of 12,300 persons.” In 1811, the Indian tribes were crushed at the battle of Tippecanoe. In 1816 “it was

ascertained that the Indiana Territory possessed a population which entitled it to an independent state government. Congress authorized the election of a convention to form a state Constitution [and], the new ‘State of Indiana’ was formally admitted into the Union on the 10th of April, 1816.” (See also MISSISSIPPI: 1817.) Two years later, on December 3rd, 1818, the Territory of Illinois was similarly transformed and became one of the states of the Union.—J. W. Monette, *Discovery and settlement of the Mississippi valley*, v. 2, bk. 5, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: J. B. Dillon, *History of Indiana*, ch. 31-47.—A. Davidson and B. Stuvè, *History of Illinois*, ch. 20-26.—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan*, ch. 8.

1814-1827.—Communitistic societies of Rapp and Owen at Harmony and New Harmony. See SOCIALISM: 1805-1827.

1816.—First constitution.—Democratic features.—Education.—“There was nothing novel in the constitution. The political theory of these men was somewhat more democratic than that advocated by Jefferson. The constitution as finally adopted was a judicious compound of the constitutions of Ohio, Kentucky, and the United States. The first article, which was a bill of rights, restated the fundamental maxims of English government in almost the exact words of the Ohio law. Article II, dealing with the separation of powers, which is an exact copy of article I of the Kentucky constitution, divided the powers into executive, legislative, and judicial. There is only one different word—‘Indiana’ is used in place of ‘Kentucky.’ Article III, dealing with the legislative department, is a copy almost verbatim of the Ohio constitution. The date for state election is the first Monday of August, in preference to the Ohio [constitution], but senators were to serve three years, plainly a compromise between the two year term of Ohio and the four year term of Kentucky. The qualifications of representatives, 21 years of age, and senators, 25 years of age, were lower than in either State. Both had to be taxpayers, the same as in Ohio. The voting qualifications were expressed in the same words as in the Ohio law, the voter being required to be 21 years old, and one year a resident. Judged from our time, there were remarkably few officers to be chosen at public election. They were the members of the General Assembly, governor, lieutenant governor, associate circuit judges, sheriffs and coroners; the coroner and lieutenant governor being merely emergency offices to fill possible vacancies. Only three offices were thus filled by popular election, legislator, governor and sheriff. In harmony with the spirit of the times, nearly all power was placed in the hands of the General Assembly. The governor had only a suspensive veto, which could be overcome by a majority of each House. He appointed a few officers, principally judges of the supreme court, but always by and with the advice and approval of the Senate. All circuit judges, and the secretary, auditor and treasurer of State were chosen by the General Assembly. The most notable innovation in the Indiana constitution was Article IX, dealing with the subject of education. It has been noted that all the material differences between the Indiana and other constitutions were in favor of a wider democracy [in Indiana]. Ohio had taken a short, halting step in the direction of public education, but the Indiana convention is entitled to the distinction of having first recognized the governmental obligation of educating all its citizens. Of all the sections of the constitution the one requiring that the General Assembly provide by law for a general system of education,

ascending in a regular scale, from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all, was most democratic, and forward looking. It took a century to put this article into successful operation."—L. Esarey, *History of Indiana from its exploration to 1850*, pp. 219-220.—The constitution excluded slavery, although a law forbidding the immigration of negroes and mulattoes remained in force until after the Civil War. In 1825, Indianapolis was made the capital.

1831-1876.—**Extensive public improvements undertaken.—Bankruptcy.**—Growth of railroads.—“Governor Noble [1831-1837] was an advocate of extensive public improvements, having been elected on a platform declaration to that effect. He early began the construction of the Wabash and Erie Canal, for the promotion of which Congress had given, in 1827, a large and valuable grant of land. This canal was to connect Lake Erie with the Wabash River, . . . and in 1836, a general system of internal improvements having been agreed upon consisting of canals, railroads, and turnpikes, covering almost the entire state, bonds were issued and sold, and contracts let. . . . It was thought . . . that the revenues to be derived from the railroads and canals would not only pay for their construction, but would build up such a surplus in the treasury of the state as to relieve the people of . . . taxation. The improvements undertaken consisted of 1289 miles of roads, railroads, and canals at an estimated cost of \$19,914,424. . . . The states' indebtedness by 1841 had been pushed up to . . . \$18,469,146. The total of roads and canals completed up to that time amounted to only two hundred and eighty one miles. . . . It very soon became apparent that the state had overestimated its financial resources, and before a halt could be called had involved itself beyond its ability to pay. And to make matters worse, the pall of the great panic of 1837 descended upon the whole country, at the very time of the state's greatest embarrassment. All the works had to be abandoned. . . . The state found itself unable to pay even the interest, much less to proceed further with the improvements. It finally entered into compromise agreements with its creditors, relieving itself of a part of the debt and reducing the interest charges. The creditors were permitted to take over the unfinished improvements in part satisfaction of their claims, the balance being paid in new bonds or treasury notes. As a rule, the improvements were not completed by their new owners, and the state's vast expenditures were practically for naught. . . . The securities in the nature of bonds and certificates of stock, to possession of which the state was entitled under the compromise settlement, were not all surrendered, and afterwards attempts were made to exact payment of them. . . . In 1873, after years of agitation, . . . an amendment to the constitution was adopted prohibiting the legislature for all time from paying any of these compromised debts, particularly that of the Wabash and Erie Canal. Of all the vast projects undertaken by the state, the Madison and Indianapolis railroad alone was fully completed, its completion being accomplished by the assignee company to which the state surrendered it. It was the first railroad built to Indianapolis, its entrance into that city signaling the year 1847.”—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, pp. 127-129.—“In 1852 the state sold out its interest, and the road became entirely a private venture. Private building was so stimulated by this enterprise, that by 1850 there were seven roads with a total of 228 miles of track in the state.

In 1854 Indianapolis was the center from which lines ran to Madison, Terre Haute, Lafayette, Peru, and Bellefontaine, while most of the other important cities were reached by connecting lines. Indianapolis had become a real railway center with the first Union Station in the country opened in 1853, thru the efforts of Chauncey Rose, Oliver H. Smith, and John Brough. In this decade the railway expansion was enormous, for in 1860 there had been completed 2,163 miles. Altho the proportionate increase has never since been as large, the building has gone steadily forward until today, with thirty-four operating and eleven terminal companies having over seventy-two hundred miles of main stem and over twelve thousand miles of track, Indiana is one of the best equipped states in the country for the ready marketing of its products. Across the commonwealth from east to west run the great New York Central, Pennsylvania, Baltimore and Ohio, Grank Trunk, and Erie systems, with many feeders and ramifications. These roads give direct and rapid service to the markets of the eastern coast. They, together with numerous other roads, like the Chicago, Indianapolis, and Louisville, the Chicago and Eastern Illinois, the Wabash, and the Chesapeake and Ohio, are so placed as to make direct routes from almost every section of the state to Chicago. From many regions there are lines to St. Louis and to the large cities of Ohio and Kentucky. It is indeed, fortunate for the state to be situated on the main lines of trans-continental traffic and to be convenient to large markets. One of the great contributions of Indiana to the art of railroading has been mentioned. But there is another Hoosier invention as important as the Union Depot, namely the Belt Railroad which was conceived by J. F. Richardson and constructed on the credit of Indianapolis in 1876. This invention results in great economy in the interchange of traffic, and gives manufacturers opportunity to ship from their own spur tracks over any road entering the city. The idea of the belt line has been widely copied thruout the country.”—C. C. North, *Social and economic survey*, p. 76.

1837-1900.—**Education.—Training of teachers.** See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Evolution of public school system.

1851.—**New constitution ratified.**—“The convention had suggested that the new constitution be submitted to the people for ratification or rejection at the approaching August election. The General Assembly affirmed this suggestion February 14, 1851, and the governor's proclamation followed immediately, directing the election officers to carry the order into effect. There was no organized opposition to the ratification. Both parties favored the new Constitution. At the ensuing election every county gave an affirmative majority but Ohio. Starke county cast a unanimous vote for the constitution. The total vote was 113,230 for, and 27,638 against ratification, a majority of 85,592 out of a total vote of 140,868. The vote for the exclusion of the colored persons was substantially the same, being an affirmative vote of 113,828 out of a total vote of 135,701. Three counties, Lagrange, Randolph and Steuben, voted against negro exclusion. The new constitution went into operation November 1, 1851. The General Assembly elected in August, 1851, met as directed by the old constitution. The first general election under the new constitution was held in October, 1852, the old officers holding until the newly elected ones were qualified and took their positions according to law. There was no jar in the operations of the State government during the change.”—L.

Esarey, *History of Indiana from its exploration to 1850*, p. 460.

1861-1865.—Part played in Civil War.—Treasonable secret societies.—Indiana had a large proportion of southerners among its citizens, but its answer to Lincoln's first call was 208,000 men, besides 50,000 in a home legion. In June, 1863, the state was invaded by Confederate troops (see U. S. A.: 1863 [July: Kentucky]), and there were many later attempts to raid the state and to provoke uprisings among the disloyal inhabitants. Distinguished among the "war governors" was O. P. Morton, whose problems, besides those of raising and equipping troops, involved great difficulties with unsympathetic men at home. The "Knights of the Golden Circle," were especially active in Indiana in 1864. "From the beginning of the war there had been some opposition in Indiana, and as the struggle dragged on and the fate of the Union continued to hang in the balance, the disloyal spirit grew bolder. It found its chief expression in the secret societies known as the Knights of the Golden Circle, the American Knights, and the Sons of Liberty. . . . The Knights of the Golden Circle first merged into the American Knights because of the exposure of their ritualistic work and treasonable designs, and the American Knights in turn were superseded by the Sons of Liberty for the same reason. . . . [At its most flourishing period the order possessed in Indiana] a numerical strength of perhaps twenty thousand. . . . In a speech delivered after the close of the war Governor Morton described the activities of the Sons of Liberty in this state and the final breaking up of the order. He said: 'They claimed in 1864 to have forty thousand members in the state, were lawless, defiant, plotting treason against the United States and the overthrow of the state government. In some counties their operations were so formidable as to require the militia to be kept on a war footing, and throughout 1863, and until the final explosion of the organization in August, 1864, they kept the whole state in uproar and alarm. In 1864 . . . they matured a plan for a general uprising in the city of Indianapolis.' . . . [The plan was discovered some three weeks before the time fixed, and was abandoned.] . . . The trials before a military tribunal of the leading conspirators for their participation in the plans of insurrection began at Indianapolis, September 22, 1864. The charge against them was that of conspiracy in organizing secret societies for the purpose of overthrowing the government, seizing the arsenal, releasing confederate prisoners, cooperating with rebels, inciting insurrection, and resisting the draft. Harrison H. Dodd, a leading organizer and official in the order, and in whose possession a large quantity of arms, consigned from New York as 'Sunday School books,' was found, escaped after arrest and fled to Canada. J. J. Bingham, editor of the *Indianapolis Sentinel*, turned state's evidence and escaped trial; three of the others were condemned to death, and one to imprisonment for life. But owing to a doubt which arose as to the jurisdiction of the military commission trying them, and the further fact that the war was over and a cessation of violence was desired by everybody, none of the sentences were very fully carried out."—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, pp. 163-164, 166-168.—This order had extensive membership in several other states. See KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE; U. S. A.: 1864 (October).

1868-1916.—Pivot state in national elections.—Governors during this period.—Since the Civil War, Indiana has usually been regarded by political

leaders as a doubtful state. It has frequently had candidates on the national tickets of the two leading parties. In 1868, Schuyler Colfax, Republican, was elected vice president. "The year 1876 . . . was a year of unusual political animation in both state and nation. Governor Thomas A. Hendricks was the democratic candidate for Vice President on the ticket with Presidential Candidate Samuel J. Tilden, of New York. The republican candidates were Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler of New York. The democratic candidate for governor was James D. Williams. To oppose him the republicans first nominated Godlove S. Orth, who later withdrew from the ticket, and was succeeded by Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Williams was a farmer, who had served in the legislature and in Congress, and was charged with carrying his demands for economy in public expenditures to the extreme of penuriousness. The opposition did not overlook this in their campaign criticisms, and in addition held him up to ridicule by calling him 'Blue Jeans' because of his plain homespun clothing. . . . His friends and partisans adopted the epithet of 'Blue Jeans' as a rallying cry, and answered the republican attacks by calling Harrison the aristocratic or silk-stocking candidate. Williams was elected along with the entire democratic state ticket. The democrats likewise secured a majority in the state senate, the republicans winning the house of representatives. The state also gave a majority to the democratic national ticket, and excitement ran high during the long and bitter dispute which followed as to which party had won the Presidency. [See U. S. A.: 1876-1877.] . . . Governor Williams assumed office in January, 1877, and died November 20, 1880. Lieutenant Governor Isaac P. Gray became acting governor for the few weeks remaining of the term. . . . The republicans were successful in the election of 1880, and their candidate, Albert G. Porter, became the next governor. The national contest of that year commanded much special interest in Indiana because of the candidacy of W. H. English for Vice President on the ticket with General Hancock. Their successful republican opponents were James A. Garfield of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur of New York. . . . In the campaign of 1884 Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana was again the democratic candidate for Vice President, Grover Cleveland of New York being at the head of the ticket. Their republican opponents were James G. Blaine and John A. Logan. The opposing candidates for governor were Isaac P. Gray, democrat, and William H. Calkins, republican. Gray was formerly a republican, having been lieutenant governor under Governor Baker (1860-1873); he was elected lieutenant governor a second time in 1877, under Governor Williams, democrat, and upon the death of his chief in 1880 succeeded him as acting governor. As a result of the election in 1884 he became governor, winning by a plurality of 7302 votes. The democrats were successful in the national election also, Cleveland and Hendricks becoming President and Vice President. . . . Lieutenant Governor Mahlon D. Manson resigned his office in 1886 to accept a federal position, and thereby precipitated a peculiar situation and contest. At the session of 1885 Senator A. G. Smith was chosen president *pro tem*. It so happened that a United States senator was to be elected at the session of 1887, and Governor Gray was an aspirant for the honor. Smith and his friends claimed that his election as president *pro tem* in 1885 would hold good in the session of 1887, giving him the right of succession to the governorship if that office should become vacant

through the election of Governor Gray to the United States Senate, the office of lieutenant governor being already vacant. The prospect of such an outcome proved injurious to Gray's candidacy, as the leaders in the party were not favorable to the elevation of Smith to the governorship. After much discussion and many legal opinions it was decided that a lieutenant governor should be chosen by the people, at the regular election to be held in 1886. There is a statute providing for succession to the governorship in case of the death, resignation or disability of both the governor and lieutenant governor, but no provision either in the constitution or the laws for filling a vacancy in the lieutenant governor's office. All parties placed candidates in the field, and R. S. Robertson, a republican, received a majority of the votes. As stated, the senate was democratic, and at the session of 1887 that body refused to recognize Robertson, or permit him to exercise the duties of his office by presiding over its sessions. . . . The house of representatives, being republican, espoused Robertson's cause, and administered to him the oath of office as lieutenant governor. But it was all to no purpose. The senate continued to ignore him, and the house in retaliation boycotted the senate, denying to it all official recognition. . . . On the 25th of November, 1885, Vice President Hendricks died at his home in Indianapolis. . . . Again in 1888 the people of Indiana had reason to feel a special interest in the national campaign. Not only was the state represented on the ticket of the Republican party by one of her distinguished sons, the Hon. Benjamin Harrison, but he headed it as a candidate for the Presidency. President Grover Cleveland, seeking reelection, was his democratic opponent. The republicans were successful and Harrison was elected, the result being received in Indiana with great acclaim. General Alvin P. Hovey, the republican candidate for governor, was also elected, but the democrats were successful in returning a majority in each house of the general assembly. . . . Governor Hovey assumed the duties of his office in January, 1889, and died November 23, 1891. Lieutenant Governor Ira J. Chase at once assumed the office as acting governor, serving out the unexpired term. Differing in politics, contests between the executive and legislative branches of the state government were inevitable. During the session of 1889 Governor Hovey was stripped of nearly all of his official patronage, and out of the contentions and litigation which followed a supreme court decision finally resulted, making the state geologist and chief of the bureau of statistics elective officers. Previously they had been appointive by the governor. . . . In 1892 the democratic party again came into power in both state and nation. President Harrison went down in defeat in his race for reelection, ex-President Grover Cleveland being his successful competitor. Even Indiana, Harrison's own state, helped swell the democratic pluralities against him, and elected Claude Matthews governor. . . . The republican party regained its ascendancy in nearly all the Northern states at the election in 1896. William McKinley was elevated to the Presidency, and James A. Mount became governor of Indiana. . . . The republican successes began in Indiana with the state election of 1894, when majorities were won in both houses of the general assembly for the first time since 1872. The entire congressional delegation was captured by the republicans at this election. . . . Colonel Winfield T. Durbin, republican, was elected governor at the November election in 1900, defeating Hon. John W. Kern, the democratic candidate. The four

years of Governor Durbin's term were signalized by a continuation of the period of industrial growth and general prosperity that dated from 1897. It was a sound and economical business administration, marked by large payments on the fast dwindling state debt."—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, pp. 187-189, 191-196, 198, 200, 203.—In 1904, Charles W. Fairbanks, Republican, was elected vice president on the ticket with Theodore Roosevelt. In 1908, John W. Kern, Democrat, was nominated for vice president. In 1912, and again in 1916, Thomas R. Marshall, Democrat, was elected vice president on the ticket with Woodrow Wilson. In 1916, Charles W. Fairbanks was again nominated by the Republicans, but was defeated in the elections.

ALSO IN: R. M. Seeds, *History of the Republican party*, pp. 96-97.—W. H. Smith, *History of Indiana*, v. 1, ch. 15.

1894-1897.—Legislation.—Hammond strike.—Board of Labor Commissioners.—In 1894, an anti-trust law and a factory inspection law were passed, and primary education was made compulsory. In this year it became necessary for Governor Matthews to send a small force of state militia to Hammond to quell disorders growing out of the great Pullman car strike. As a result of the strike a board of labor commissioners was created, in 1897, to act as a permanent tribunal of arbitration.

1897-1909.—Legislation.—Gerrymandering.—Codification Commission created.—"In 1897 a new legislative apportionment law was passed, the first since 1885 that was not attacked in the courts. The law of 1885 was bitterly complained of as a democratic gerrymander. In 1893 the same party enacted another law, which was so flagrantly unjust that the supreme court declared it unconstitutional. In 1895 the republicans took a hand at the gerrymandering business, and their law was condemned by the courts. Then they passed a fairer measure in 1897, which stood. Under the constitution the state is to be redistricted every six years, so in 1903, at the end of the six-year period, the republican legislature passed another gerrymander bill which the supreme court nullified on the grounds of unconstitutionality. Profiting by the lesson the legislature of 1905, also republican, enacted another law that proved to be more satisfactory, and was allowed to stand. Some effort was made to redistrict the state again in 1909, but the two houses of the general assembly were of opposite political faith and could not agree upon the terms of a bill. . . . In 1903, complying with an act of the General Assembly, Governor Durbin appointed a commission to codify the laws of the state relating to public and private corporations, and highways and drainage, and such other laws as the commission might deem advisable. The commission made its report to the legislature of 1905, and most of its recommendations were accepted and enacted into law."—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, pp. 201, 204.

19th century.—Charities.—Care of deaf and blind children. See CHARITIES: United States: 1853-1908; 1874-1902.

1905-1907.—Misappropriation of state funds.—Investigations.—Public depository law.—"In the early fall of 1905 Governor Hanly demanded the resignation of Auditor of State David E. Sherrick, and that he make restitution to the state of an alleged shortage in his accounts. The demand was later complied with, Sherrick returning funds misappropriated, principal and interest, amounting to \$156,367.31. The governor then caused him to be indicted and prosecuted for



embezzlement. He was convicted and sentenced to state prison, but after a brief confinement the judgment of the court passing sentence was reversed on an error, or some defect in the indictment, and his release ordered. Adjutant General John R. Ward was next forced to resign because of overdrafts in his accounts, which he endeavored to explain on the ground of clerical errors. He made restitution of \$1510.44. Daniel E. Storms, secretary of state, was shortly afterwards confronted with a demand for an accounting. He resisted for a time, but later resigned under pressure from the governor, correcting irregularities in his accounts to the amount of \$8139.85. The governor had experts examine the books of all these officers, and when the work was completed they were directed to examine the accounts and records of former state auditors, back to the year 1872. The result was that claims were made against former officials of misappropriations of fees and insurance taxes, and moneys from other sources, amounting, together with interest and penalties accruing thereon, as follows:

Former Auditor James H. Rice (1883-1887) .....	\$108,877.74
“ “ Bruce Carr (1887-1891) .....	75,988.24
“ “ J. O. Henderson (1891-1895) .....	101,158.65
“ “ A. C. Daily (1895-1899) .....	26,034.51

A discrepancy of \$347.50 was found in the accounts of former Auditor M. D. Manson (1879-1881), which appeared to have been an honest error. Rice and Carr were both dead, their estates insolvent, and suits on their bonds barred by the statute of limitations. Suits were instituted against Henderson and Daily. The Daily case was carried to the supreme court upon appeal, and the judgment of the Boone County circuit court, which was favorable to the state, reversed. In the complaint it was alleged that the defendant, Daily, while auditor of state, had collected and . . . retained certain insurance taxes, which, together with interest and penalties thereon, amounted to the sum sued for. The supreme court decision was to the effect that the collection of such taxes was not a part of the auditor's official duties; that he had no right to make such collections, either as an official or an individual; that the money was not paid to him under the authority of the state; that such payment was not ratified by the state, and that in his hands the money did not become the property of the state; that, therefore, the state had no legal right to the money so collected and paid, and could not sue for it. Nor was the payment of taxes to the state by the insurance companies accomplished by such payment to the auditor. The law plainly directs that the taxes shall be paid into the treasury of the state, and not to the auditor, and of this fact foreign insurance companies, and the courts, are bound to take notice. The companies were plainly liable to payment of their taxes over again, but the state had no legal right of recovery against Daily. The Henderson case was allowed to wait the issue of the Daily suit, and a compromise settlement was finally agreed upon whereby the state accepted a refund of \$10,000, and the suit was dismissed. The insurance companies, or a majority of them, paid their taxes over again rather than risk forfeiture of their licenses to write further business in the state, but they paid under protest, expecting to seek a remedy in the courts. In his biennial message to the General Assembly in 1907 the governor reported that the total recoveries of

misappropriated funds up to that time amounted to \$189,460.41. . . . Nothing quite so sensational as these disclosures had occurred in the political life of the state for many years. They gave rise to a demand for stricter supervision of public offices, which was responsible to a large degree for the enactment of a Public Depository Law at the session of 1907. Another purpose of this law was to break up what had come to be known as 'political banking.' The law has proved itself of great value, not only in the enforcement of better business methods in the care and handling of public funds, state, county, and municipal, but by securing to the taxpayers the interest on such funds."—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, pp. 209-212.

1906.—**Founding of Gary.**—"Some years ago the South Chicago plant of the Illinois Steel Company was so hemmed in by the works of other concerns that the only possibility for expansion lay in creating new land by filling in the lake. Therefore the company poured its slag into the water. After a while, when it had made enough dry ground to warrant construction, the corporation applied for a building permit. Mayor Dunne, however, not only refused to sanction the plans but even commenced suit to recover the land for the city of Chicago, asserting that the alteration of the waterfront without permission was illegal. This situation was one of the most potent reasons for founding what is in many ways the most wonderful of American municipalities, Gary. When the Illinois Steel Company chose the site for its new plant, Gary consisted mostly of sand dunes and railroad tracks, for this strip of lake shore lay on the route of the trunk lines between Chicago and the Atlantic seaboard. In order to make room for the plant three of these roads had to be moved, and incidentally their tracks were elevated for miles in order that the citizens of the future metropolis might go about in safety. A subsidiary corporation, the Gary Land Company, which was responsible for planning the town and for disposing of the lots, made the streets broad, and sought to insure the permanency of the pavements by the construction of alleys with conduits to carry such utilities as water, sewers, gas, electricity, and telephone wires. Both comeliness and utility were emphasized. Lots were made large enough that the houses might be set back thirty-five feet from the walks, parks were planned, and a considerable number of dwellings were erected for the employees of the corporation. While paternalism was consistently avoided, an attempt was made to give the 'Hunkies' 'white men's houses to live in.' The city grew marvelously. Rich black loam was brought from the distant prairies and spread over the sand to form a basis for lawns and flower beds. Frequently a family would move into a house within twenty-four hours of the erection of its frame. One church, begun after lunch, was used for a congregational supper that evening, and for a preaching service the next morning. In spite of the wonderful activity of the Gary Land Company in providing housing, there was for a time desperate overcrowding among the unskilled workers. For example, in 1900, three years after the birth of the city, an investigator found four hundred twenty-eight persons inhabiting one hundred forty-two rooms in thirty-eight houses. Of course this rapid growth of population greatly increased the value of the land. Since the Gary Land Company recognized the social dangers from speculation it consummated sales only after the prospective purchaser offered satisfactory assurance that

he intended permanently to occupy and to use his ground. So it happened that building lots were offered on reasonable terms. Unparalleled as was the achievement of building this city, it was but an incidental part of the erection of the enormous steel plant. An artificial harbor has been created with almost a mile of twenty-two foot channel nearly a hundred yards wide, and a turning basin two hundred fifty yards in diameter. Since the investment in one of the lake steamers is so precarious that it is necessary to have the vessel in motion every possible minute during the season of navigation, the speed of taking on and of discharging cargo is of tremendous importance. So the ore is unloaded by ten ton grab-buckets. This ore, unless it is stored for winter use, is conveyed rapidly to the blast furnaces, and is carried on tracks that never turn at right angles thru all the processes of manufacture to the delivery spur tracks, with a minimum of reheatings. In this plant nothing is experimental, every device has previously proven its economy. Every by-product is utilized. The company, which is ruthless in its requirements of its employees, has nevertheless developed a systematic plan of accident prevention that has succeeded in largely reducing the number of mishaps. The Illinois Steel Company has not remained the only industry in the city, for the American Bridge Company, the American Steel Company, the National Tube Company, the American Locomotive Company, and the American Car and Foundry Company are among a number of very large concerns that have located plants at Gary. Even now the city has a few factory sites that are free to persons who can give proper guarantee of success. The European war has been the occasion of a great development of the preparation of munitions at several points close to Gary. The reasons for the deliberate choice of Gary for a manufacturing center are not far to seek. In the first place, land was to be had for a song, because the sand was well nigh useless for agricultural purposes. Second, since the area was traversed by all the large railways of what is known as the trunk line class, the two and four track lines between Chicago and the eastern seaboard at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, competition in respect to service was assured. Moreover, the place is convenient to Chicago with its wonderful transportation facilities. Third, Gary is the strategic meeting point of the raw materials that are necessary for the manufacture of steel. Coke can be secured from Pennsylvania, coal is obtained from Indiana and Illinois, lime is quarried in Indiana, and iron ore can be brought by swift steamers from the Minnesota mines on Lake Superior. Finally Gary is situated close to the center of population, and is therefore at the heart of the market for products of all kinds, including steel."—C. C. North, *Social and economic survey*, pp. 56-58.

1909-1910.—Political upheavals.—"The tariff legislation of 1909 . . . had the effect of creating such differences of views within the ranks of the republican party, that it remained an issue, and played an important part in the 'off-year' elections of 1910. A number of representatives and senators in Congress had stood out for a more pronounced reduction in duties than characterized the finished measure when presented for their votes, and claiming a non-fulfillment of platform pledges, continued their opposition. Then the republicans and their tariff measures, whether justly or not, were charged with responsibility for the era of 'high cost of living' which had pre-

vailed for a period of years, and in Indiana it is extremely doubtful if the party's evasion of the temperance question improved its situation. The election resulted in substantial gains for the democrats throughout the whole country, giving them control of the national house of representatives. In Indiana the party made practically a 'clean sweep,' electing all of its candidates for state offices, a majority in both branches of the legislature, and twelve out of the thirteen members of Congress to which the state was entitled. The result also led to the retirement of United States Senator Albert J. Beveridge, and the election of the Hon. John Worth Kern to succeed him."—E. E. Moore, *Century of Indiana*, p. 265.

1910-1916.—Agitation for constitutional convention.—Since 1910, there has been continued agitation for the amendment of the state constitution. In 1914, a conference was held to consider the advisability of a constitutional convention, and out of this conference grew an organization of voters, the Constitutional Convention League. In spite of the efforts of this league the legislature refused to call a convention. The matter was finally submitted to the voters by referendum in 1916, but the proposal met with defeat.

1911-1918.—Legislation and politics.—Dynamite conspiracy.—Election prosecutions.—Prohibition.—Woman suffrage.—During the year 1911, acts were passed providing child labor laws; laws regulating the sale of cold storage products and drugs sold for prescription; medical inspection in schools; a minimum wage for teachers; play grounds for children; measures to prevent infant blindness; and the establishment of night schools in larger towns and cities. A stringent employers' liability act was also passed. In February 1912, fifty officials of the Association of Bridge and Structural Ironworkers were arrested, on evidence secured by William J. Burns and evidence given by Ortie McManigal, who figured in the *Los Angeles Times* case, and were put on trial in Indianapolis, October 1, charged with conspiracy, to carry dynamite on trains in interstate commerce. Evidence tending to show that the ironworkers had for six years systematically dynamited structures built by non-union labor was submitted. On October 22, the judge ruled that the conspiracy had been proved and on December 28, thirty-eight of the defendants were found guilty and sentenced to the federal prison, Leavenworth, Kansas, for terms varying from one to seven years. In 1913, the Tenement House Bill was passed; public utilities commission created; and an inheritance tax law passed, which recognized the progressive, or graduated principle. Federal amendment XVII was ratified providing for the direct election of senators. Vocational education was promoted in the passage of a bill to encourage industrial and agricultural training in the schools, the state to furnish money for the pay roll equal to that provided by each county introducing the subjects. During 1917, the Federal Grand Jury returned indictments against the mayor and 127 minor officials of the city of Indianapolis and other towns of the state charging them with election frauds in 1914. All were convicted and sentenced to terms ranging from one to five years. In 1917, the state prohibition amendment was ratified; state suffrage was granted to women; and James Putnam Goodrich was elected governor for the term ending 1921. In 1918, Eugene V. Debs was nominated by the Socialists for member of Congress but refused the nomination.

1918-1921.—Part played in World War.—Legislation.—Constitutional amendments.—The state furnished 106,581 men during the World War or 2.83 per cent of the entire American expeditionary force. In proportion to the population the state furnished more volunteers (25,148) than any other. In 1919, the federal prohibition amendment was ratified. In the first of two special sessions of the legislature held in 1920 the federal woman suffrage amendment was ratified; at the second session changes in the election laws were made to enable women to vote. Of the thirteen constitutional amendments that came up for ratification at the special election, September, 1921, none was adopted. In 1921, Warren T. McCray was elected governor for the term ending 1925.

1919.—Absence of regulation of working hours for women. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1919.

1920-1921.—City planning.—“In Indiana, the movement for city planning is practically statewide. In Indianapolis, Terre Haute, South Bend, Elkhart, Fort Wayne, Muncie, Marion, Anderson, Mishawaka, there is definite city-planning interest manifested. In Marion and Elkhart a city plan, or at least some phases of it, are being prepared. In Indianapolis and Terre Haute there is a city-plan committee, and in most of the other cities there is a city-plan committee of the Chamber of Commerce. All this interest is now (1921) being crystallized in an effort to pass a city-planning and zoning bill at the present session of the legislature. The Indianapolis committee is known as the Committee of One Hundred, and was appointed by the president of the Chamber of Commerce.”—*National Municipal Review*, Feb., 1921, p. 108.

1922.—Coal strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1922: Nation wide coal strike.

ALSO IN: R. J. and M. Aley, *Story of Indiana and its people*.—T. H. Ball, *Northwestern Indiana from 1800 to 1900*.—W. A. Rawles, *Centralizing tendencies in the administration of Indiana*.—W. H. Smith, *History of the state of Indiana*.—F. D. and F. H. Streightoff, *Indiana: A social and economic survey*.—F. M. Trissal, *Public men of Indiana, 1922*.—C. Kettleborough, *Constitution making in Indiana*.—F. M. Trissal, *Public men of Indiana: A political history from 1860 to 1890*.

INDIANAPOLIS, capital and largest city of Indiana.

1896.—Convention of National Democratic party. See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: National Democratic.

1897-1898.—Monetary commission appointed.—Report. See U. S. A.: 1896-1898.

1900.—Meeting of Liberty congress of American League of Anti-Imperialists.—Declaration. See U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).

1922.—Northern Baptist Convention. See BAPTISTS: 1922: Northern Baptist Convention.

INDIANS, American: Name.—“As Columbus supposed himself to have landed on an island at the extremity of India, he called the natives by the general appellation of Indians, which was universally adopted before the true nature of his discovery was known, and has since been extended to all the aboriginals of the New World.”—W. Irving, *Life and voyages of Columbus*, v. 1, bk. 4, ch. 1.—“The Spanish writers from the outset, beginning with Columbus in his letters, call the natives of America, Indians, and their English translators do the same. So, too, Richard Eden, the earliest English writer on American travel, applies the name to the natives of Peru and Mexico. It is used in the same way, both in transla-

tions and original accounts, during the rest of the century, but it is always limited to those races with whom the Spaniards were in contact. In its wider and later application the word does not seem to have established itself in English till the next century. The earliest instance I can find, where it is applied to the natives of North America generally in any original work, is by Hakluyt. In 1587 he translated Laudonnière's ‘History of the French Colony in Florida,’ and dedicated his translation to Sir Walter Raleigh. In this dedication he once uses the term Indian for the natives of North America. Heriot and the other writers who describe the various attempts at settlement in Virginia during the sixteenth century, invariably call the natives ‘savages.’ Perhaps the earliest instance where an English writer uses the name Indian specially to describe the occupants of the land afterwards colonized by the English is in the account of Archer's voyage to Virginia in 1602. This account, written by James Rosier, is published in Purchas (vol. iv. b. viii.). From that time onward the use of the term in the wider sense becomes more common. We may reasonably infer that the use of it was an indication of the growing knowledge of the fact that the lands conquered by the Spaniards and those explored by the English formed one continent.”—J. A. Doyle, *English in America: Virginia, etc., appendix A*.

Statistics of population.—Reservations.—In 1920 there were in North and South America 27,000,000 Indians, including half-breeds. Of this number there were (according to figures available in 1910) 336,337 in the United States (exclusive of Alaska). The following table shows that, contrary to popular belief, the Indian population is not decreasing but increasing:

1880.....	322,534
1890.....	248,253
1900.....	237,106
1910.....	265,683
1920.....	336,337

In 1919 there were 164,783 full-blooded Indians in the United States, exclusive of the Five Civilized Tribes; 133,193 Indians who spoke English; 91,331 who read and wrote English; 196,841 who wore citizens' clothing; 86,462 who were citizens; 9,738 who voted; and they possessed \$680,408,869 worth of property, with a total income of \$72,696,431. Of the mixed blood Indian, the following crossings occur in order of their frequency: White and Indian, Negro and Indian, White, before Indian, and in Alaska some Chinese and Japanese with Indians. The largest proportion of full blood Indians live at present in Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Mississippi and Iowa.—Based on *United States report of the commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920*.—The following states contain Indian reservations: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming. The total area covered by these reservations is 72,660,316 acres.

Tribes.—The following is a list of American aboriginal tribes, which are further discussed under their specific names:

Abnakis	Algonquian Family
Adais	Alleghans
Adirondacks	Andesians
Agniers	Apache Group

Apalachee Indians	Natchesan Family
Athapascan Family	Nez Percés
Attacapan Family	Otomis
Beothukan Family	Pontiac's Wars
Blackfeet or Siksikas	Pampas Tribes
Caribs	Patagonians
Cherokees	Piman Family
Chibchas	Powhatan Confederacy
Chimakuan Family	Pueblos
Chimarikan Family	Pujunan Family
Chinookan Family	Quiches
Chontals and Popolocas	Quororatean Family
Chumashan Family	Sacs
Coahuiltecan Family	Salinan Family
Coajiro	Sastean Family
Copehan Family	Seminoles
Costanoan Family	Senecas
Eskimo	Shawanese
Esselenian Family	Shoshonean Family
Flatheads	Siouan Family
Guck	Skittagetan Family
Hidatsa	Stockbridge Indians
Horicons	Susquehannas
Hurons	Takilman Family
Illinois	Tanoan Family
Iroquois Confederacy	Tarasans
Kalapooian Family	Timuquanan Family
Karankawan Family	Tonikan Family
Keresan Family	Tonkawan Family
Kulanapan Family	Totonacos
Kiowan Family	Tupi
Kitunahan Family	Uchean Family
Koluschan Family	Wailatpuan Family
Kusan Family	Wakashan Family
Mariposan Family	Washoan Family
Mayas	Wishoskan Family
Mingoes	Yanan Family
Modocs	Yukian Family
Moquelumnan Family	Yuman Family
Muskhogeans	Zapotecs
Musquito	Zunian Family

Methods of classification: Physical, cultural and linguistic.—The chief objective of anthropology in the New World is to discover the origin and condition which have produced the Indian and his culture. This will put the science in all its branches to a supreme test. At present we are still far from a solution but this much has been ascertained: there is among the Indians an essential unity of physical type and tremendous diversity of culture. In the face of such a problem it is difficult to arrange these people into systematic homogeneous groups. Two principles of classification have however been employed generally by anthropologists; they are the cultural and the linguistic classification. Any classification based on physical characteristics would for general purposes be futile for the differences are such as would be obvious only to a trained somatologist. The cultural classification is based on the ethnological conception of the culture area with its culture center. A culture area is a continuous region where there exist the same cultural traits bearing the same interrelations to each other so as to produce a culture having a fairly homogeneous aspect. In every region of this kind there is a culture center, a place from which this particular culture radiates and where the cultural type is purest. On any map the lines dividing such culture areas must of necessity be arbitrary. As a matter of fact there are always intermediate or marginal tribes at all the boundaries of culture areas and these tribes generally exhibit the interesting phenomenon of possessing features from both the cultures with which they come in contact. An excellent example of

this are the Indians of Puget Sound who have borrowed features of culture from the Indians of British Columbia and from the Salish tribes of the interior. Of such culture areas there are fifteen in America, nine in North America and six in Central and South America. Each of these areas will be dealt with separately. The other classification is on the basis of linguistics. There have been distinguished fifty-six different linguistic stocks in America. It appears that the divisions by linguistic affiliation do not follow the culture area boundaries. In one culture area, the Southwest, there are eight distinct linguistic stocks represented.—See also ANTHROPOLOGY: Linguistics.

Primitive music.—Mythology.—Tribal customs. See MUSIC: Primitive; First music; American Indian; MYTHOLOGY: American Indians; HIAWATHA; CLANS; SACHEM; TOTEMS.

Cultural areas in North America: PLAINS AREA.—In the Plains (the prairie region west of the Mississippi) there are in all thirty-one tribal groups of which eleven are typical of the culture area. These are: the Assiniboin, Arapaho, Blackfeet [see BLACKFEET], Cheyenne, Comanche, Crow, Gros Ventre [see HIDATSA], Kiowa, Kiowa-Apache, Sarsi, and Teton-Dakota. In this section of the country there is a conspicuous absence of agriculture among the typical tribes. The Plains Indians depended on the hunt for food, the buffalo or bison being the principal source of meat. There was a very limited use of berries and roots and no fishing. The hunting of the buffalo, especially after the introduction of the horse, forced the Plains Indians to lead a nomadic life. Their entire household economy was well adapted to this mode of life. Their house was the tepee, a movable skin tent constructed on a tripod of poles supporting other poles to form a cone. The covering was made of buffalo skin prepared and sewed by the women. Skin bags, called parfleches, were used for storing meat and other food supplies in place of pottery and basketry which were totally absent. All these things are easily transported with the aid of the travois which before the introduction of the horse were drawn by dogs. Clothing was made of buffalo and deer skins and decorated with porcupine quill embroidery, later replaced by bead work. As can be seen from the repeated mention of skins, the buffalo was very important in the life of the Plains tribes not only as food but also in supplying material for clothing and shelter. The social organization of these people was the simple band or local group as was found generally in the hunting areas of the New World. Such a group was usually under the leadership of a competent individual, who was often leader of the communal buffalo hunt or war party. The Plains Indians observe the Sun Dance, a great festival for the entire tribe. "In historic times, these tribes ranged from north to south in the heart of the area. . . . On the eastern border were some fourteen tribes having most of the positive traits enumerated above and, in addition, some of the negative ones, such as a limited use of pottery and basketry; some spinning and weaving of bags; rather extensive agriculture; alternating the tipi with larger and more permanent houses covered with grass, bark, or earth; some attempts at water transportation; tending not to observe the sun dance, but to substitute maize festivals, shamanistic performances, and the *midéwin* of the Great Lakes tribes. These tribes are: the Arikara, Hidatsa [q.v.], Iowa, Kansa, Mandan, Missouri, Omaha, Osage, Oto, Pawnee, Ponca, Santee-Dakota, Yankton-Dakota, and the Wichita."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, p. 208.

PLATEAU AREA.—“The Plateau area joins the Plains on the west. It is far less uniform in its topography, the south being a veritable desert while the north is moist and fertile. To add to the difficulties in systematically characterizing this culture, arising from lack of geographical unity, is the want of definite information for many important tribes. Our readily available sources are Teit's Thompson, Shuswap, and Lillooet; Spinden's Nez Perce; and Lowie's Northern Shoshone; but there is also an excellent summary of the miscellaneous historical information by Lewis. . . . The

cases basket caps for women; blankets of woven rabbitskin; the sinew-backed bow prevailed; clubs, lances, and knives, and rod and slat armor were used in war, also heavy leather shirts; fish spears, hooks, traps, and bag nets were used; dressing of deerskins highly developed, but other skin-work weak, . . . while wood work was more advanced than among the Plains tribes it was insignificant as compared to the North Pacific Coast area . . . stone work was confined to the making of tools and points, battering and flaking, some jadeite [a valuable form of jade] tools; work in bone,



CULTURAL AREAS IN NORTH AMERICA

material traits may be summarized as: extensive use of salmon, deer, roots (especially camas), and berries; the use of a handled digging-stick; cooking with hot stones in holes and baskets; the pulverization of dried salmon and roots for storage; winter houses, semi-subterranean, a circular pit with a conical roof and smoke hole entrance; summer houses; movable or transient, mat or rush-covered tents and the lean-to, double and single; the dog sometimes used as a pack animal; water transportation weakly developed, crude dug-outs and bark canoes being used; pottery not known; basketry highly developed, coil, rectangular shapes, imbricated technique; twine weaving in flexible bags and mats; some simple weaving of bark fiber for clothing; clothing for the entire body usually of deerskins; skin caps for the men, and in some

metal, and feathers very weak. Of the non-material traits the most distinctive are: decorative art simple and inconspicuous, rather inclining towards the Plains type on the one hand and that of the North Pacific Coast tribes on the other; lack of definite tribal organization and band distinctions; a weak but still definite social distinction based upon personal wealth, with at least a modern use of the 'potlatch' ceremony; hence, there are no striking general ceremonies or ritualistic societies as in the preceding area; puberty ceremonies rather prominent and related to the general belief in personal guardians; mythology largely a record of the 'trickster type.'—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 209-210.—See also NEZ PERCÉS.

CALIFORNIA AREA.—“In California we have a marginal or coast area, which Kroeber divides into

four sub-culture areas. However, by far the most extensive is the central group to which belongs the typical culture. . . . Its main characteristics are: acorns, the chief vegetable food, supplemented by wild seeds, roots and berries are scarcely used; acorns made into bread by a roundabout process; hunting mostly for small game and fishing where possible; houses of many forms, but all simple

gens or clan forms; political solidarity almost lacking; no formal social ranking, but some tendency to recognize property distinctions; ritualism, fetishism, and religious symbolism almost lacking; well developed puberty ceremonies for girls and a kind of secret initiation for men; a mourning ceremony in which gifts are burned; a tendency to maintain a series of dances in a fixed order; a semi-under-



WHITE BIRD, OF THE NESPELIME TRIBE, STATE OF WASHINGTON

shelters of brush or tule, or more substantial conical lean-to structures of poles; the dog was not used for packing, and there were no canoes, but used rafts of tule for ferrying; no pottery, but high development of basketry, both coil and twine; bags and mats very scanty; cloth or other weaving of twisted elements not known; clothing was simple, and scanty, feet generally bare; the bow, the only weapon, usually sinew-backed; work in skins very weak; work in wood, bone, etc., weak; metals not at all; stone work not advanced; no picture writing; designs only upon baskets and not symbolic; social organizations simple without

ground or earth-covered house for ceremonies, a sweat house and the sleeping place of adult males; shamanism conspicuous, but absence of fasting and other inducing methods; regalia not elaborate, feather head bands most general; creation and culture origin myths prevail, a dignified creator, but in addition coyote tales."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, p. 212.

NORTH PACIFIC COAST AREA.—"Ranging northward from California to the Alaskan peninsula we have an ethnic coast belt, known as the North Pacific Coast area. This culture is rather complex and presents highly individualized tribal varia-

tions; but can be consistently treated under three sub-divisions; (a) the northern group, Tlingit, Haida, and Tsimshian; (b) the central group, the Kwakiutl tribes and the Bellaçoola; and (c) the southern group, the Coast Salish, the Nootka, the Chinook [see CHINOOKAN FAMILY], Kalapooian [see KALAPOOIAN FAMILY], Waiilatpuan [see WAILLATPUAN FAMILY], Chimakuan, and some Athapascan tribes. The first of these seem to be the type and are characterized by: the great dependence upon sea food, some hunting upon the mainland, large use of berries; dried fish, clams, and berries are the staple food; cooking with hot stones in boxes and baskets; large rectangular gabled houses of upright cedar planks with carved posts and totem poles; travel chiefly by water in large, sea-going dug-out canoes, some of which had sails; no pottery nor stone vessels, except mortars; baskets in checker, those in twine reaching a high state of excellence among the Tlingit; coil basketry not made; mats of cedar bark and soft bags in abundance; the Chilkat, a Tlingit tribe, specialized in the weaving of a blanket of goat hair; there was no true loom, the warp hanging from a bar, and weaving with the fingers, downward . . . clothing rather scanty, chiefly of skin, a wide basket hat (only one of the kind on the continent and apparently for rain protection); feet usually bare, but skin moccasins and leggings were occasionally made; for weapons the bow, club, and a peculiar dagger, no lances; slat, rod, and skin armor; wooden helmets, no shields; practically no chipped stone tools, but nephrite or green stone used; wood work highly developed. splitting and dressing of planks, peculiar bending for boxes, joining by securing with concealed stitches, high development of carving technique; work in copper may have been aboriginal, but, if so, very weakly developed; decorative art is conspicuous, tending to realism in carved totem poles, house posts, etc.; some geometric art on baskets, but woven blankets tend to be realistic; each family expresses its mythical origin in a carved or painted crest; the tribe of two exogamic divisions with maternal descent; society organized as chiefs, nobles, common people, and slaves; a kind of barter system expressed in the potlatch ceremony in which the leading units of value are blankets and certain conventional copper plates; a complex ritualistic system by which individuals are initiated into the protection of their family guardian spirits, those so associated with the same spirit forming a kind of society; mythology characterized by the Raven legends."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 213-214.

ESKIMO AREA.—"The chief résumés of Eskimo culture have been made by Boas, who divides them into nine or more groups, as follows: the Greenland Eskimo; the Eskimo of southern Baffin Land and Labrador; the Eskimo of Melville Peninsula, North Devon, North Baffin Land, and the north-west shore of Hudson Bay; the Sagdlirmiut of Southampton Island; the Eskimo of Boothia Felix, King William Land, and the neighboring mainland; the Eskimo of Victoria Island and Coronation Gulf; the Eskimo between Cape Bathurst and Herschel Island, including the mouth of the Mackenzie River; the Alaskan Eskimo; and the Yuit of Siberia. When we consider the fact that the Eskimo are confined to the coast line, and stretch from the Aleutian Islands to eastern Greenland, we should expect lack of contact in many parts of this long chain to give rise to many differences. While many differences do exist, the similarities are striking, equal, if not superior, in uniformity to those of any other culture area.

However, our knowledge of these people is far from satisfactory, making even this brief survey quite provisional. The mere fact that they live by the sea, and chiefly upon sea food, will not of itself differentiate them from the tribes of the North Pacific Coast; but the habit of camping in winter upon sea ice and living upon seal, and in the summer, upon land animals, will serve us. Among other traits the kayak and 'woman's boat,' the lamp, the harpoon, the float, woman's knife, bowdrill, snow goggles, the trussed-bow, and dog traction, with the sled, are almost universal and, taken in their entirety, rather sharply differentiate Eskimo culture from the remainder of the continent. The type of winter shelter varies considerably, but the skin tent is quite universal in summer, and the snowhouse, as a more or less permanent winter dwelling prevails east of Point Barrow. Intrusive traits are also present: basketry of coil and twine is common in Alaska; pottery also extended eastward to Cape Parry; the Asiatic pipe occurs in Alaska and the Indian pipe on the west side of Hudson Bay; likewise, some costumes beaded in general Indian style have been noted west of Hudson Bay. All Eskimo are rather ingenious workers with tools, in this respect strikingly like the tribes of the North Pacific Coast. In Alaska, where wood is available, the Eskimo carve masks, small boxes, and bowls with great cleverness. . . . From our limited knowledge it appears that the great central group from Banks Island on the west to Smith Sound in North Greenland is the home of the purest traits; here are snowhouses; dogs' harnesses with single traces; rectangular stone kettles; and the almost entire absence of wooden utensils; a simple order of social and political life in which the unit is the family; a political chief, in the sense known in Indian culture, not recognized; shamanism [cult of the medicine man] rather prominent and comparable to that found in Siberia; great elaboration of taboos and a corresponding requirement of confession; almost no ritualistic ceremonies, but at least one yearly gathering in which masked men impersonate gods; temporary exchange of wives at the preceding; mythology simple and centering around the goddess of the sea animals. Between Greenland and Labrador the differences are small, and apparently due more to modern European influences than to prehistoric causes. The limited study of archaeological specimens by Dall, Solberg, and Boas suggests much greater cultural uniformity in the prehistoric period, a conclusion apparently borne out by the collections made by Stefansson on the north coast. While this is far from conclusive, it is quite consistent with the view that the chief intrusive elements in Eskimo culture are to be found west of the Mackenzie River."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 215-216. —See also *ESKIMO; ALASKA: Natives*.

MACKENZIE AREA.—"Skirting the Eskimo area from east to west is a great interior belt of semi-arctic lands, including the greater part of the interior of Canada. Hudson Bay almost cuts it into two parts, the western or larger part occupied by the Déné tribes, the eastern by Algonkins [see ALGONQUIAN FAMILY], Cree, Montagnais, and Naskapi. The fauna, flora, and climate are quite uniform for corresponding latitudes and are reflected to some extent in material culture, so that we should be justified in considering it one great area, if the less material traits did not show definite distinctions. . . . It is believed that the Déné tribes fall into three culture groups. . . . Of these three groups, the southwestern is the largest and occupies the most favorable habitat. From

the writings of Father Morice, a fairly satisfactory statement of their cultures can be made, as follows: All the tribes are hunters of large and small game, caribou are often driven into enclosures, small game taken in snares and traps; a few of the tribes on the headwaters of the Pacific drainage take salmon, but other kinds of fish are largely used; large use of berries is made, they are mashed and dried by a special process; edible roots and other vegetable foods are used to some extent; utensils are of wood and bark; no pottery; bark vessels for boiling with and without use of stones; travel in summer largely by canoe; in winter by snowshoe; dog sleds used to some extent, but chiefly since trade days, the toboggan form prevailing; clothing of skins; mittens and caps; no weavings except rabbitskin garments, but



A BLACKFOOT MOUNTAIN CHIEF

fine network in snowshoes, bags, and fish nets, materials of bark fiber, sinew, and babiche; there is also a special form of woven quill work with geometric designs; the typical habitation seems to be the double lean-to, though many intrusive forms occur; fish-hooks and spears; limited use of copper; work in stone weak; social organization simple, but yet showing forms of maternal clans, property distinctions, etc., reminding one of the North Pacific area; the hospitable exchange of wives; shamanism very prominent, but no good evidence of ritualism. . . . In discussing this area, some writers have commented upon the relative poverty of distinctive traits and the preponderance of borrowed, or intrusive ones. For example, the double lean-to is peculiarly their own, though used slightly in parts of the Plateau area; but among the southwestern Déné we frequently find houses, like those of the Tsimshian, among the Babine and northern Carrier; while the Sekanais and southern Carrier use the underground

houses of the Salish; and among the Chipewyan, Beaver, and most of the eastern group, the skin or bark-covered tipi of the Cree is common. Similar differences have been noted in costume and such social traits as clans and property distinctions in the west. . . . Such borrowing of traits from other areas is, however, not peculiar to the Déné and while it may be more prevalent among them, it should be noted that our best available data are from tribes marginal to the area. It is just in the geographical center of this area that good data so far fail us. Therefore, the inference is that there is a distinct type of Déné culture, and that their lack of individuality has been over-estimated."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 217-219.

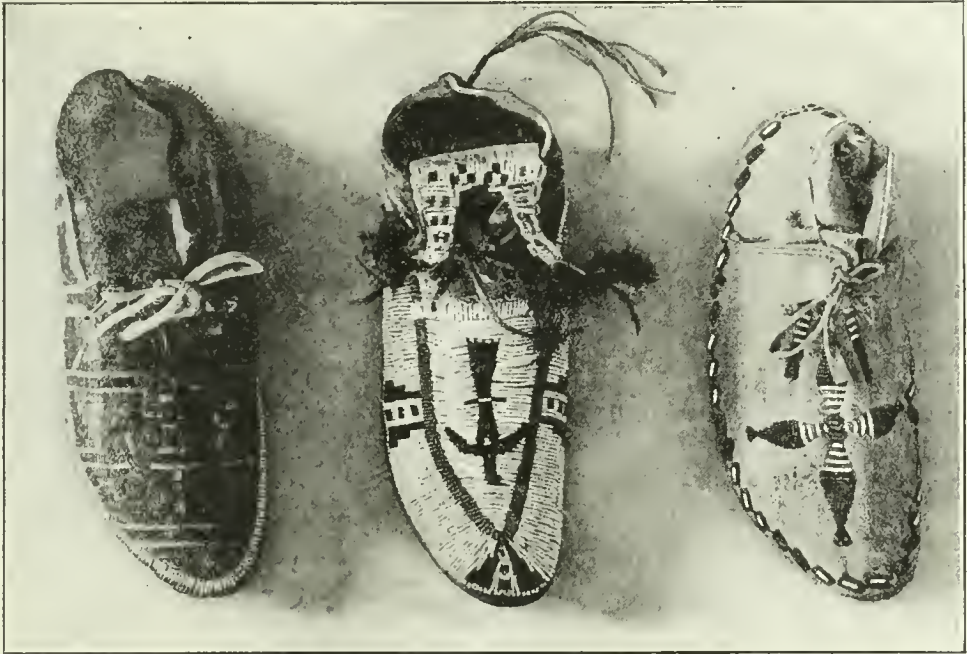
EASTERN WOODLANDS AREA.—"With a few unimportant exceptions, the tribes of the northeast were of one or other of two linguistic families, the Algonquian [see ALGONQUIAN FAMILY], and the Iroquoian [see IROQUOIAN CONFEDERACY]. The former occupied by far the greater territory, and in the history of the United States played decidedly the more important role. The Algonquian stock stretched from the Athapascan frontier in British America around the southern shore of Hudson Bay, included the interior of Labrador, and sweeping south covered the territory of the Great Lakes and all the eastern part of Canada and the eastern states as far south as Tennessee. Its most westerly extension is the Blackfoot tribe, which lies along the base of the Rocky Mountains at about the forty-ninth parallel, and is isolated by a body of Siouan peoples on its eastern border. The most considerable break in the continuity of this Algonquian occupation was made by the strong and important Iroquoian tribes who surrounded lakes Erie and Ontario, extended down the St. Lawrence River on both banks to about the site of Quebec, and occupied the greater part of New York state and eastern Pennsylvania. A Southern branch of the Iroquois had its seat in eastern Tennessee, northern Georgia, and parts of Virginia and the Carolinas. [See NEW YORK: Aboriginal inhabitants.] In the north the westward limit was reached by the Blackfoot described above, who, in their adaptation to the environment of the plains, have assumed the culture which is typical of that area. The general western limit of the Algonquians was marked by the Siouan tribes at the Mississippi Valley. The southern barrier was formed by the Muskogean family in the gulf states and a number of small groups of different affinities along the Atlantic seaboard in Virginia and the Carolinas. In its most northerly extension the Algonquian family is still checked by the Eskimo, who occupy the shore of Labrador and formerly crossed the strait of Belle Isle into Newfoundland. A small and unimportant stock found in Newfoundland and known as the Beothukan is now extinct; little is known of them, but such linguistic evidence as can be obtained points to their independence. [See also BEOTHUKAN FAMILY.] In the far north the Cree are the leading tribe of the Algonquian family; while to the south and west of them stretches the large Ojibwa division, broken up into numerous bands, but centring in a general way about the Great Lakes. In the east the Micmacs of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick are prominent, while in New England a number of tribes of Algonquian lineage, such as the Abnaki [q. v.], Mohegan, Massachusset, Narraganset, Pequot, Wampanoag, and others, occupied the territory to the exclusion of all other families. The Mohegan, of the lower Hudson, and the Delaware (Lenapé) [q. v.], of the Delaware Valley, brought the stock to the region of Chesapeake Bay. In Virginia were the



Powhatan and related groups [see POWHATAN CONFEDERACY], and in Tennessee the Shawnee marked the southern limit of Algonquian occupation. A branch of the Shawnee is known to have pushed its way as far south as the Savannah River, but was later driven north, where it joined the Delaware. [See also SHAWANESE.] The main tribes of the central Algonquians besides the Ojibwa, mentioned above, were the Sauk and Fox, two tribes originally independent but to-day practically one [see SACS], the Illinois [q. v.], Kickapoo, Menominee, Ottawa [see PONTIAC'S WARS], Pottawotomi and numerous others of less importance. . . . Physically, the Algonquians are among the best of the aborigines, tall and strong, moderately dolichocephalic in head type, with the prominent nose and projecting malar bones which are regarded as char-

acteristic of the American natives. The mouth and lips are not as coarse as in the northwest, nor even on the plains, and the general facial effect is somewhat finer than in those regions. The skin is brown, with a very slight coppery tone. The Algonquians were, as a rule, woodland people, with the culture, life, and craft which such residence brings about; but the wide differences in latitude between the seats of the northern and southern branches of the eastern Algonquians naturally brought about differences in their manner of life. Taking the largest tribe of the stock, the Ojibwa, as a type of the northern group, we find that they paid but little attention to agriculture and were essentially a hunting and fishing people, adding to the provision thus obtained such wild vegetable food as their country afforded. The wild rice was and is of such overwhelming importance to the Ojibwa that its annual harvest might be considered the central interest in their industrial life. They also understood how to make sugar from the sap of the maple and had knowledge of many edible fruits and seeds. The tendency to organize secret

societies, which has been noticed in the stocks previously discussed, has found its expression among the Ojibwa in the Midé society, a religious organization of elaborate rules and ritual which practically controls the religious life and ceremonials of the tribe. As we range south among the Algonquian groups the most striking change is the increasing attention paid to agriculture. From New England down it was generally and quite extensively practised, maize, squash, and tobacco being the chief products. The typical dwelling of the eastern Indians was a small hut built of saplings set firmly in the ground and bent together at the tops, forming a rounded frame. Through this were woven split poles and flexible branches, and the whole was covered in with leaves, reeds, bark, or brush. These were the so called 'wigwams,' and in



MOCCASINS MADE BY SIOUX INDIANS

(American Museum of Natural History, New York)

acteristic of the American natives. The mouth and lips are not as coarse as in the northwest, nor even on the plains, and the general facial effect is somewhat finer than in those regions. The skin is brown, with a very slight coppery tone. The Algonquians were, as a rule, woodland people, with the culture, life, and craft which such residence brings about; but the wide differences in latitude between the seats of the northern and southern branches of the eastern Algonquians naturally brought about differences in their manner of life. Taking the largest tribe of the stock, the Ojibwa, as a type of the northern group, we find that they paid but little attention to agriculture and were essentially a hunting and fishing people, adding to the provision thus obtained such wild vegetable food as their country afforded. The wild rice was and is of such overwhelming importance to the Ojibwa that its annual harvest might be considered the central interest in their industrial life. They also understood how to make sugar from the sap of the maple and had knowledge of many edible fruits and seeds. The tendency to organize secret

the northeastern section were usually set in groups; the villages thus formed were sometimes surrounded by a palisade of poles driven into the ground. Summer dwellings were often nothing more than carelessly made shelters of brush."—L. Farrand, *Basis of American history*, pp. 148-152.

SOUTHEASTERN AREA.—"The Southeastern area is conveniently divided by the Mississippi River, the typical culture occurring in the east. . . . We have the Muskogean [q. v.], and Iroquoian tribes (Cherokee [q. v.], and Tuscarora) [see IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Tribes of the south], as the chief groups, also the Yuchi, Eastern-Siouan [see SIOUAN FAMILY], Tunican, and Quapaw. The Chitmachan and Attacapa [see ATTACAPAN FAMILY], differ from the others chiefly in the greater use of aquatic foods. The Caddoan tribes had a different type of shelter and were otherwise slightly deflected toward the Plains culture. We have little data for the Tonkawa [see TONKAWAN FAMILY], Karankawa [see KARANKAWAN FAMILY], and Carrizo, but they seem not to have been agriculturists and some of them seem to have lived in tipis like the Lipan, being

almost true buffalo Indians. These thus stand as intermediate and may belong with the Plains or the Southwestern area. The Biloxi of the east, the extinct Timuqua, and the Florida Seminole [see SEMINOLES] are also variants from the type. They were far less dependent upon agriculture and made considerable use of aquatic food. The Timuqua lived in circular houses and, as did the Seminole, used bread made of coonty roots (*Zamia pumila*), the method of preparation suggesting West Indian influence. The eating of human flesh is also set down as a trait of several Gulf Coast tribes. Our typical culture then may be found at its best among the Muskogean, Yuchi, and Cherokee. The following are the most distinctive traits; great use of vegetable food and intensive agriculture; raised maize, cane (a kind of millet), pumpkins, melons, tobacco, and after contact with Europeans, quickly took up peaches, figs, etc.; large use of wild vegetables also; dogs eaten, the only domestic animal, but chickens, hogs, horses, and even cattle, were adopted quickly; deer, bear, and bison in the west were the large game, for deer the stalking and surround methods were used; turkeys and small game were hunted and fish taken when convenient (fish poisons were in use, suggesting South America); of manufactured foods—bear's oil, hickory-nut oil, persimmon bread, and hominy are noteworthy; houses were generally rectangular with curved roofs, covered with thatch or bark, also often provided with plaster walls reinforced with wicker-work; towns were well fortified with palisades; dugout canoes; costume was moderate, chiefly of deerskins, robes of bison, etc., shirt-like garments for men, skirts and toga-like upper garments for women, boot-like moccasins for winter; some woven fabrics of bark fiber, and fine netted feather cloaks; some buffalo-hair weaving in the west, weaving downward with the fingers; fine mats of cane and some cornhusk work; baskets of cane and splints, the double or nested basket and the basket meal sieve are special forms; knives of cane, darts of cane and bone; blowguns in general use; good potters, coil process, paddle decorations, skin dressing by slightly different method from elsewhere (macerated in mortars) and straight scrapers of hafted stone; work in stone of a high order, but no true sculpture; little metal work ceremonial houses, or temples, for sun worship in which were perpetual fires; these, and other important buildings set upon mounds; elaborate planting and harvest rituals, especially an important ceremony known as the 'busk'; the kindling of new fire and the use of the 'black drink'; a clan system with society composed of chiefs and four grades of subjects; chiefs regarded as under the sacred influence of the Sun God, reminding us of Peru; political systems developed with strong confederacies; strong development of the calumet procedure; shamanism prominent."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 222-223.—See also ALABAMA: 1835-1838.

**SOUTHWEST AREA.**—The Southwest area can best be dealt with when it is divided into two groups: the sedentary people of the Pueblo towns, and the nomadic. The nomadic people belong to four linguistic stocks, the Athapascan, Piman (see PIMAN FAMILY), German and Shoshonean. (See SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.) These people do not show a great uniformity in material culture. The eastern lands in common with the Plains use the skin covered tepee of their neighbors. To the west the dome-shaped house of bent poles and thatch is common. The Navajo live in earth covered lodges in winter; during the summer they camp with only a brush shelter. The nomadic people make extensive use of

wild vegetable products. The piñon nuts, Mesquite, amole, agave (century plant) and several species of cacti are the most important foods. The Eastern Apache went to the Plains for buffalo. Further west there were communal hunts for Elk, and men went out singly for antelopes and deer, generally stalking the animal. The Navajo raise sheep for wool and food. The clothing of the most eastern tribes again resembles in cut that of their Plains neighbors but the material is generally buckskin instead of buffalo. The dress of the women of the Mescalero and Western Apache consists of two pieces, an upper garment with an opening for the head and two large square pieces that fall in front and behind to the hips; the skirt reaches from the waist to the knees and both garments had generous fringes of buckskin. The Pima man still wears only a scanty breech cloth in summer and in winter he adds a deer skin shirt and a rabbit skin robe. The Navajo men wear full length trousers of buckskins or white cotton which they obtain from American stores. The upper garment is a jacket preferably of velveteen. A handkerchief or colored strip of cloth is worn about the head to confine the hair. Both men and women of the Navajo wear much silver jewelry of native manufacture. The pottery of the nomadic peoples as compared with that of the pueblos is very inferior in appearance and variety but well adapted to the limited household uses to which it is put. Their artistic skill is, however, displayed in their basketry. Burden or carrying baskets, storage baskets, water jars and trays are the most common varieties. The baskets are both twined and coiled. The designs are geometric and the colors at present have become very gaudy through the introduction of aniline dyes. The baskets to be used for water jars are coated with peñon pitch to make them water tight. Sheep were introduced into the Southwest in the 16th century and the Navajo were the only nomadic people who took up pastoral life. The wool is woven into the famous Navajo blankets. This weaving is done by the women at a simple loom. Other industries of the people are beadwork and the Navajo silver work. Turning to the features of non-material culture we find a surprisingly elaborate ceremonial development. These ceremonies are very important in the lives of the people and are very well preserved. However, the religious beliefs may differ from tribe to tribe, the deities and myths are almost identical. The greatest power is the sun; earth and moon come next. Thunder is feared but clouds and rain are less important here than among the pueblo people. Esdganadlebi is one of the personal gods who is supposed to have survived the flood; her grandson, Yin ai yes gani is the culture hero who makes the world safe for the people by destroying all the monsters. The political organization as in most parts of America is very loose. A chief is elected in every village and the leader of the hunting band is also important. The Western Apache and Navajo are divided into clans, and members of the same clan are not permitted to marry one another but must go outside their group to find a mate. This condition is technically known as exogamy. Among these people, descent is reckoned in the female line, children belonging to their mother's clan. The Pima, however, have paternal descent. Many of the nomads have only the simple family organization, and families are joined together in bands. The sedentary people of the Southwest have a different material culture but there are many links that make them one with their nomadic neighbors. Their mode of dwelling is one of the most complex styles of architecture

developed in the New World. The modern villages are of two types: a large square or rectangular building terraced back from all four sides, and long parallel rows of houses terraced back from the street. The houses are made of adobe bricks. While the men sometimes build the walls, the women always do the plastering. Each pueblo is provided with a kiva or underground chamber which is the men's club-room. There they work, make their ceremonial objects and gossip. Women are never permitted to descend the ladder leading to the kiva. Here also some of the altars are built and ceremonies performed. For food these people rely on the crops they produce. The chief vegetables are: corn, squash, beans, wheat and other small grains. Agriculture was well developed here because the land is far from fertile and the methods worked out by these people are well adapted to their needs. Hunting is by no means neglected and they have access to the same game as the nomadic peoples. The chief feature of the preparation of food is the grinding of the grains into flour of which various dishes are baked, as pike or paper

mother. They are under special protection of a mythical ancestor who is worshiped. Some characteristic clan names are: Sun, sky, white bead, turquoise, arrow, firewood, parrot, hawk, bear, deer, frog, lizard. The women have equal, if not superior, property rights with the men. They own the houses and share in the crops. Only horses can be disposed of without a wife's consent. Each pueblo has a governor, a council and a war chief. The duties of the first officer are principally religious. The religious ceremonies often take the form of dramas in which the activities of supernatural beings and animals are imitated by actors wearing masks. The greater numbers of ceremonies are intended to bring rain and to aid in fertilizing the crops.—See also APACHE GROUP; PUEBLOS.

**Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America: AZTEC AREA.**—"In Mexico and Central America appear a great number of Indian tribes, representing numerous linguistic stocks and all degrees of development. Some of them reached the highest stages of culture known to have existed on the western continent. Many other more primitive



INDIAN POTTERY FROM NEW MEXICO  
(American Museum of Natural History, New York)

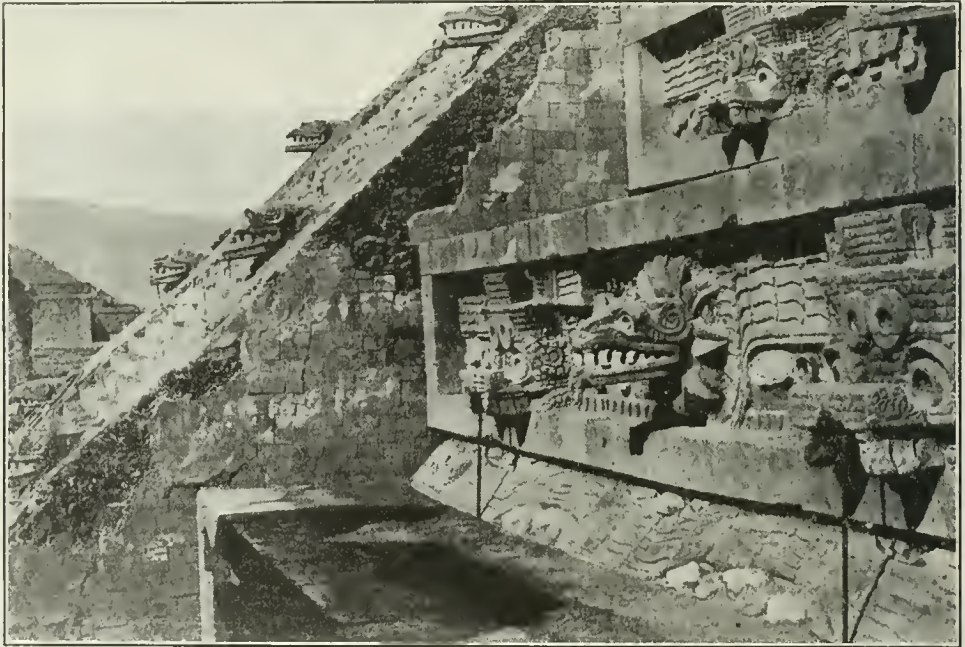
bread, and tortillas or pan cakes. The clothing seen at Taos, Picuris, Pesos is again like that of the Plains. The material is buckskin. The women's dress usually consists of one long garment. The old men's dress of the other pueblos is an apron or kilt with tassels at each corner. A robe of some sort is worn generally when not at work; then a breech cloth is considered sufficient. The woolen blankets of the Hopi are very beautiful and appeal more to some people than the elaborate designs of the Navajo. Embroidered cotton dresses were also made in some pueblos, Acoma principally. Pottery is highly developed among the Pueblo people. Through excavations, their pottery has been studied for centuries preceding the Spanish conquest and a historical sequence worked out. The pottery is decorated with free-hand painting and the designs are both geometric and realistic. The pottery of each pueblo has distinctive features that can be easily recognized by the student. The pottery of Santa Clara is a glossy black produced by confining the smoke at the time of firing. Hopi pottery has a characteristic background of yellow. Hopi and Zorin basketry is perhaps not as fine as that of the nomads. At Hopi, in contrast to the Navajo, the men do the weaving and each bridegroom must provide a trousseau for his bride. The pueblo clans reckon descent through the

tribes are little known and of small historical importance; of the more significant groups the best known are doubtless the Nahua or Aztec, among the different tribes of which, some living as far south as Nicaragua and Costa Rica, the most noted composed the famous Aztec confederacy. This confederacy, with certain conquered tribes which it held in subjection, is what has been called the 'empire of Montezuma.' It was composed of three towns with the territories belonging to each: Tenochtitlan or Mexico, Tezcuco, and Tlacopan. Mexico or Tenochtitlan was the head of the confederacy and the seat of government. . . . The most important of the remains are found on the sites of ancient cities, and the architecture of the buildings themselves is one of the most important features. The great ruins of the Nahua group include Tula, Teotihuacan, Xochicalco, Tepeotlan, Cholula, and Tenochtitlan, now the city of Mexico. Though this city was destroyed at the time of the conquest, a vast number of objects were buried beneath the soil on which the new city arose, and many of these have recently been brought to light. In the Huastecan and Totonacan regions are the ruins of Papantla, Cuetla, Tusapan, and Cempoalla. The ruins on Monte Alban in Oaxaca are the most stupendous in all Mexico, and are supposed to represent the seat of the ancient capital of the Za-

potec. Mitla, in the same district, is a noted example of ancient architecture, and in some ways the most remarkable in America. Here stones of many tons have been brought from quarries on the neighboring mountains, and all have been fitted together with the utmost nicety and precision. Here, as in many other places, complicated carved designs are found, covering whole faces of buildings, and all accomplished with nothing better than tools of stone or possibly of hardened copper."—L. Farland, *Basis of American history*, pp. 188-190.—See also MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples; AMERICA: 1517-1518; CENTRAL AMERICA: Population; HAITI, REPUBLIC OF: Aborigines.

MAYA AREA.—"In the Maya regions are remains of hundreds of towns remarkable for their size and elaborate sculptures. Among the most important may be mentioned Palenque, Menché, Tikal, Labna, K'uh Uxmal, Chichen Itza, Quirigua, and Copan.

been simply the war-chief of the Aztec confederation, holder of an elective office, from which the chief could be deposed for misconduct—a common provision among Indian tribes, but not ordinarily compatible with hereditary monarchy. The clan was still the basis of the social structure, and the method of choosing chiefs and councillors was quite similar to that found among the Iroquois. Land was the property of the clan, and was assigned to the individual, who could hold it only as long as he cultivated it properly. The tribes conquered by the confederacy were required to pay tribute, which was collected by certain officials of the league and distributed between its members, Mexico getting two-fifths. The tributary tribes were also required to furnish warriors, in case of need, at the demand of the confederacy. Among these peoples agriculture was still fundamental, but manufactures and trade were also considerably de-



DETAIL OF PYRAMID OF THE SUN, MEXICO

One feature common to most of these ruins is the presence of pyramids, frequently of immense size, and usually surmounted by buildings. In Yucatan the pyramids are usually built, or at least faced, with stone, while among the Nahuas they were constructed of adobe brick. The pyramid of Cholula, originally crowned by a temple which was destroyed by Cortés, was fourteen hundred and forty feet square at the base and one hundred and seventy-seven feet high. The civilization, however, which is represented by these ancient ruins is not to be regarded as anything radically different from that we have met farther north, but rather as a development along the same lines, with modifications due to a more complex organization. There are many points in common with the Pueblo culture of the southwest: we still find the peace-chief, with his councillors, and the war chief, though the occupants of these positions have become more conspicuous because of the increasing complexity and material prosperity of a higher state of culture. Montezuma, for example, is now known to have

veloped. Certain towns and regions became noted for particular products, and regular markets under governmental supervision were held in specified places. Great skill was displayed in the carving of wood, shells, and precious stones, and in gold and silver work. The products and art of the different regions were usually quite distinctive, especially in the better grades of pottery, which was often beautifully ornamented. The religious system may also be regarded as a higher development of that found among the northern tribes. The mythology had become more systematized and the power of the priesthood had increased. The endeavor to propitiate the gods and to cause them to grant favoring rains and abundant crops is still most in evidence; but in connection with other interests and industries many new deities with their associated ceremonies and priesthoods had been introduced. The religious rites were elaborate and prescribed with minuteness, and animal and even human sacrifices were not uncommon. Systems of picture-writing or hieroglyphics had also been de-

veloped. Among the Nahua there were numerous books, a few of which have been preserved and are still very imperfectly understood. These works, commonly called 'codices,' were painted on prepared paper or skins; some of them seem to be religious calendars, others historical records. The Maya had a somewhat different system of writing, of which there are a number of specimens on the monuments and a few codices. [See also AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE WRITING]. Some of these also, especially those relating to the calendar, have been partially deciphered. A third kind of inscription has recently been found in Zapotec ruins, but nothing has been accomplished in the way of interpretation. In many places wall paintings are found, which frequently remind one strongly of certain figures in the codices, which, like the figures in the sculptures, throw much light upon the dress, ornaments, and even the implements and weapons of the people. In general it may be said that the culture of these peoples, especially of the Nahua and Maya, was much higher than that found farther north, but still a development indigenous to the country and based upon elements held in common with many other American tribes."—L. Farrand, *Basis of American history*, pp. 190-193.—See also MAYAS; YUCATAN; Geographical description.

**Cultural areas in South America: CHIBCHA AREA.**—"On the southern frontier of the old Maya territory we meet such peoples as the Lenca and Xicacque of less intense culture, but still manifesting many of the fundamental traits of the Nahua center. Yet when near the boundary of Costa Rica, we find wilder tribes with cultures suggesting South America. Just across the line we meet with the Chibcha-speaking Talamanca and the Chiriqui. From here down through the Isthmus we seem to find an increasing number of such traits as poisoned arrows, fish poisons, hammocks, and palisaded villages, all highly characteristic of South American cultures. In fact, the whole isthmian country from the lower part of Nicaragua down is a marginal part of the Chibcha culture area, centering about Bogotá, Columbia. . . . The dominating stock was the Chibcha, whose culture may be taken as the type. Like all Andean peoples, they were agricultural, producing maize, potatoes, manioc, beans, and squashes; no domestic animals for transportation; irrigation systems highly developed; salt was made on a large scale and traded to outlying tribes; cotton was raised and weaving highly developed; fine dyeing; no stone buildings, cane and thatch the rule, walls of wattle, plastered with clay; roads and suspension bridges; no copper, but great skill in gold work, in fact, the center of the art for the New World; a clan organization, or maternal descent; a kind of caste system; one tribe, the Panche, is credited with exogamous clans; no evidence of books or calendar systems; human sacrifices to the sun as an incident in sacrifices of all kinds; an infinite number of local shrines where some power was assumed to be manifest to which offerings were made; five sacred lakes; an organized priesthood with a single head; ceremonial footraces; coca chewing instead of tobacco and great use of chicha; but some tobacco was used both as snuff and for smoking in stone pipes; a mythical white man who was the culture hero called Bochica; a deluge myth; an Atlas idea of the world; a fairly compact political organization; tribute or taxes in gold and cloth chiefly; a commercial system with markets, and a kind of currency."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 229-230.—See also CHIBCHAS; COLOMBIA: Inhabitants.

**INCA AREA.**—"The approximate northern border

of the Inca area is near the equator, in the highlands of Ecuador, and its southern limits somewhere in the Atacama desert of Chile. It is remarkably narrow, following the coast belt of elevated Andean country. . . . The dominating stock languages are the Quechua and Aymara, having northern and southern distributions respectively. . . . The truly upland groups are rather sedentary and agricultural, some maintaining temples and organized priesthods. The Janacicos (Chiquitan) and Canichanan had palisaded villages as in eastern Brazil; the former a gentile organization and made good pottery, but the latter were considered cannibals. Cannibalism in fact, is charged to a large number of these groups. In the north, in what is now Ecuador, were the Cañarian, who by their high development of gold work take a position intermediate to the Chibchan center; but their inland neighbors, the Jivaran, are more like the wild Amazon tribes. The chief characters pertaining to Inca culture are: an organized government based upon gentile groups; the supreme authority resting in a council who appointed from a hereditary group a war chief, or Inca. . . . agriculture advanced, maize, manioc, peppers, potatoes, fertilization with guanaco and other manures, elaborate irrigation systems; domestication of the llama, with the dog, guinea pig, birds, and monkeys as pets; some fishing on the coast and hunting in the interior; spinning and weaving highly developed, cotton cultivated, vicuna wool, elaborate designs and rich dyes; pottery carried to a high state of development, both in form and design, most unique form, the whistling jar; gold, silver, and copper mined, smelted and skilfully worked; true bronze was made by use of tin; tools and mechanical appliances simple, digging-stick and spade for farming, no hoe; no saws, drilling by rolling in hands; architecture massive, but plain and severe; a system of roads; stone, and suspension bridges; some water travel by balsa; an organized army and fortifications; no writing, but the quipu as a counting device [see QUIPU]; sun worship, an organized priesthood; a mythical white man founder called Viracocha; a deluge myth; human sacrifices rare, but offerings of animals common; a series of gens gods, or *huacas*; religious orders of virgins; a sacred shrine on Lake Titicaca; conventional confessions of sins to a priest; two important ceremonies, the new-fire with the banishment of disease and the sun festival."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, p. 232.—See also PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas; Empire of the Incas; 1200-1527; 1550-1816; CHILE: Aborigines.

**PAMPEAN AREA.**—"The typical culture is found among the Guaycuruan (Abipones, etc.), Araucanian, Puelchean, and Calchaquian stocks. Engulfed by them are such tiny groups as the Lulean and Allentiacan. On the south we note the Chonoan of the Pacific Coast, who seem to have resembled the Alikulufan, Onan, and Yahganian farther south. The eastern slope of Patagonia was occupied by the Tsonekan (Tehuelche). Such of these as occupy the coast line live largely upon sea food. The culture of the typical group reminds one of the North American Plains area. The Spanish colonists introduced horses and cattle and very quickly the natives became horse Indians, hunting wild cattle. As such, they were nomadic and in the main did not till the soil but in some cases did raise a little maize, etc., just as did some of the intermediate Plains area tribes of North America. All of the central group seem to have worn some cloth, but developed work in skins more extensively; the weapons were the lance, bola, and lasso. A skin boat suggesting the bull-boat

of the Plains area was used for fording rivers; warriors rode into battle naked; dead were placed upon platforms, but the bones were afterward buried; smokers mixed tobacco with wood shavings, as in North America. In the historic period the natives of this area developed an intense horse culture. In many respects this complex was like the horse culture of the North American plains, because it was acquired from the same foreign source. . . . Habitation vary a great deal, but still are simple affairs of skin or mats supported by a ridge pole, in many cases without smoke holes. A common form is a kind of skin-covered lean-to. Infants are secured on a board or frame, as in North America. . . . Among the more primitive tribes the men wear aprons and a robe, the latter giving way to a cotton breechcloth among the Araucans. The footwear consists of a kind of skin boot with long trailing hair from which we get the name Patagonia (duck feet). This boot has an open toe so that the toe stirrup can be used. Yet the prevailing tendency of the area as a whole was to go barefoot. As we go south in the area, the culture becomes more primitive until at last we reach the Fuegians, who are a seashore people. Still they have much in common with the horse-using tribes of the mainland and are often taken as the surviving remnant of the older population in the area. It is clear that in the period of horse culture the Araucan, Puelchean, Guaycuruan, and Calchaquian tribes were the most strongly developed. The former had a kind of confederacy based upon the family group and had the dual peace and war chiefs observed in the area of higher culture; great value was placed upon oratory. They practised some agriculture and weaving. Shamanism was not well organized, but each local group had at least one such official. Eyebrows and face hair were plucked out, but the lip plug of the Brazilian tribes was not worn. The Abipones, at least, were composed of social castes and had four gentile groups placed in the four directions, reminding us of North American cultures. The Araucans were clearly intermediate to the Inca center, as indicated by the large use of Chicha, tendency toward agriculture, the domestication of sheep and the wearing of wool in later times, great developments of animal and human sacrifices with features closely paralleling those of the North. The Fuegians and other stocks skirting the western and southern coast were not horse Indians, but developed the use of canoes; built fires in them upon clay hearths, went almost nude even in winter; lean-to shelters; bola not used, but the bow and spear; water-tight baskets; iron pyrites used for fire-making; dogs trained for hunting and even to drive fish by swimming. Some early accounts credit the Chonoans with weaving blankets from dog hair, reminding us of the Salish stock of the northern continent. . . . For the Japura River, or the northeastern section of the area, we have Whiffen's account of the Witto and Boro, whose culture, together with that of their immediate neighbors, may be characterized as follows; live by hunting, fishing, and agriculture; raise manioc, tobacco, and coca, and to a much less extent maize, yams, pumpkins, peppers, sugar-cane, etc.; fields cleared by fire and dug up by digging-stick, no hoe; no tame animals, even dogs rare; all animal life eaten, the monkey being the most nearly staple; honey prized, some tame bees; cassava bread and the 'pepper pot,' the chief support; manioc squeezed by rolling in a mat; coca chewed and mimora seeds snuffed; tobacco used for ceremonial drink only; curare and other poisons; blowgun, throwing spear, bows, paddle clubs; fish

caught by poison, also with hooks, nets, traps, and a trident spear; clay eaten; cannibals, eat prisoners; drum signalling; drums in pairs, male and female, phallic decorations; palm fiber rolled on thigh and hammocks made; pottery; basketry; no metal, little stone, tools of wood; dug-out canoes, sprung into shape when hot from burning out; trees felled by holes and wedging; large wooden mortars for coca, tobacco, and maize; habitations and fields shifted often; whole community in one house, large and square, four posts inside, thatched, no smoke hole; clearing around house, but all concealed in jungle by maze-like path; no clothing except bark breechcloth for men; combs of palm splints for women; human tooth necklaces; ornamental ligatures, nose pins, leg rattles, elaborate body paint; palaver with a kind of black drink of tobacco for all important undertakings of war or peace; the couvade; women not permitted to join in serious ceremonies and not to see boy's initiations, not allowed to join a cannibal feast; personal names not spoken, even true names of mythical characters are whispered; shamanism (*paye*) important, tricks crude except 'voice throwing,' sucking for disease, but detecting evil spirits the chief function of a shaman; two serious harvest ceremonies, manioc and pineapple; boys cruelly whipped in puberty ceremonies; ordeals of stinging ants; many social dances; formal recital of one's grievances and a kind of riddle dance; pan pipe, flute, castanet, drum, gourd rattle; each house group exogamous, paternal descent; monogamy, each house has a chief, all adult males the council; many tales resembling European folklore and many animal tales reminding one of African lore; sun and moon venerated; grave burial."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 233, 235-237, 239.—See also PAMPAS TRIBES; PATAGONIANS AND FUEGIANS.

AMAZON AREA.—"In Guiana we find most of these same traits, but what seems to be a higher culture, since here we have cotton cultivated and spun and the typical cassava squeezer. The Arawak peoples also have a clan organization, maternal descent. None of the Guiana peoples see coca, but smoke tobacco, cigar fashion; the signal drum is absent. The house is similar in form but smaller, the tendency being to form villages; yet as we go in from the coast the transition to the large community house is rapid. On the south of the Amazon we find the higher culture among the Tupi of the Brazilian coast. The new traits are: smoking tobacco in stone pipes, palisaded villages, fine stone tools, urn burial; but otherwise the culture compares concisely with that of the Arawak and Carib of Guiana. A few small stocks have similar culture, but on the interior plateaus were the Tapuya (the Botocudo, etc.), who stand some what apart from their neighbors. All reports considered, these tribes are of low culture and notorious cannibals. They were non-agricultural, did not work stone and made little pretense of weaving. . . . Turning again to the Amazon area, including the Tupi, we have remarkable uniformity in the following from north to south and east to west; agriculture; canoes; hammocks; pottery; blowgun; a thatched post-supported house with gables; sword clubs; leg and arm binding; certain types of feather-work; human bone flutes; calabash rattles; use of honey and wax; cannibalism; certain kinds of dance masks; couvade; ceremonial whipping of boys, and women barred from ceremonials. This is truly a formidable list. There are a few traits with partial distribution; thus, on the south side of the Amazon we frequently find the lip plug in contrast to the north, though it has a close analogy in Guiana. Again, on the south, urn burial is fre-

quent, on the north, grave burial. Coca chewing and tobacco drinking are found in the west, tobacco smoking in the east, pipes in Brazil, and cigars in Guiana. Also, in eastern Brazil we have the pellet bow and the palisaded village. These, however, do not negate the unity of Amazon culture. . . . The picture of the culture areas given above has no date—it is so to speak a cross section of time and any map placing all the known Indian tribes could not pretend to represent the continent at any specific period in its history.”—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 240-241.—See also CARIBS; TUPI.

**Linguistic characteristics.—Classification.**—“In older treatises of the languages of the world, languages have often been classified as isolating, agglutinating, polysynthetic, and inflecting languages. Chinese is generally given as an example of an isolating language. The agglutinating languages are represented by the Ural Altaic languages of northern Asia; polysynthetic languages, by the languages of America; and inflecting languages, by the Indo-European and Semitic languages. The essential traits of these four groups are: That in the first, sentences are expressed solely by the juxtaposition of unchangeable elements; in the agglutinating languages, a single stem is modified by the attachment of numerous formative elements which modify the fundamental idea of the stem; in polysynthetic languages, a large number of distinct ideas are amalgamated by grammatical processes and form a single word, without any morphological distinction between the formal elements in the sentence and the contents of the sentence; and in the inflecting languages, on the other hand, a sharp distinction is made between formal elements and the material contents of the sentence, and stems are modified solely according to the logical forms in which they appear in the sentence. . . . American languages have also been designated as incorporating languages, by which is meant a tendency to incorporate the object of the sentence, either nominal or pronominal, in the verbal expression. . . . A more thorough knowledge of the structure of many American languages shows that the general designation of all these languages as polysynthetic and incorporating is not tenable. We have in America a sufficiently large number of cases of languages in which the pronouns are not incorporated, but joined loosely to the verb, and we also have numerous languages in which the incorporation of many elements into a single word hardly occurs at all. Among the languages treated here, the Chinook may be given as an example of lack of polysynthesis. There are very few, if any, cases in which a single Chinook word expresses an extended complex of ideas, and we notice particularly that there are no large classes of ideas which are expressed in such form that they may be considered as subordinate. An examination of the structure of the Chinook grammar will show that each verbal stem appears modified only by pronominal and a few adverbial elements, and that nouns show hardly any tendency to incorporate new ideas such as are expressed by our adjectives. On the other hand, the Athapascan and the Haida and Tlingit may be taken as examples of languages which, though polysynthetic in the sense here described, do not readily incorporate the object, but treat both pronominal subject and pronominal object as independent elements. Among the languages of northern North America, the Iroquois alone has so strong a tendency to incorporate the nominal object into the verb, and at the same time to modify so much its independent form, that it can be considered as one of the character-

istic languages that incorporate the object. To a lesser extent this trait belongs also to the Tsimshian, Kutenai, and Shoshone. It is strongly developed in the Caddoan languages. All the other incorporating languages treated here, like the Eskimo, Algonquian, and Kwakiutl, confine themselves to a more or less close incorporation of the



DAKOTA INDIAN WOMAN

(American Museum of Natural History, New York)

pronominal object. In Shoshone, the incorporation of the pronominal object and of the nominal object is so weak that it is almost arbitrary whether we consider these forms as incorporated or not. If we extend our view over other parts of America, the same facts appear clearly, and it is not possible to consider these two traits as characteristics of all American languages. On the other hand, there are certain traits that, although not common to all American languages, are at least frequent, and which are not less characteristic than

the tendency to objective incorporation and to polysynthesis. The most important of these is the tendency to divide the verb sharply into an active and a neutral class, one of which is closely related to the possessive forms of the noun, while the other is treated as a true verb. We might perhaps say that American languages have a strong tendency to draw the dividing line between denominating terms and predicative terms, not in the same way that we are accustomed to do. In American languages many of our predicative terms are closely related to nominal terms, most frequently the neutral verbs expressing a state, like *to sit, to stand*. These, also, often include a considerable number of adjectives. On the other hand, terms expressing activities—like *to sing, to eat, to kill*—are treated as true predicative terms. The differentiation of these two classes is generally expressed by the occurrence of an entirely or partially separated set of pronouns for the predicative terms. Beyond these extremely vague points, there are hardly any characteristics that are common to many American languages. A number of traits, however, may be enumerated which occur with considerable frequency in many parts of America. The phonetic systems of American languages differ very considerably, but we find with remarkable frequency a peculiar differentiation of voiced and unvoiced stops,—corresponding to our, *b p; d t; g, k*,—which differ in principle from the classification of the corresponding sounds in most of the European languages. An examination of American vocabularies and texts shows very clearly that all observers have had more or less difficulty in differentiating these sounds. Although there is not the slightest doubt that they differ in character, it would seem that there is almost everywhere a tendency to pronounce the voiced and unvoiced sounds with very nearly equal stress of articulation, not as in European languages, where the unvoiced sound is generally pronounced with greater stress. This equality of stress of the two sounds brings it about that their differences appear rather slight. On the other hand, there are frequently sounds, particularly in the languages of the Pacific coast, in which a stress of articulation is used which is considerably greater than any stresses occurring in the languages with which we are familiar. These sounds are generally unvoiced; but a high air-pressure in the oral cavity is secured by closing the glottis and nares, or by closing the posterior part of the mouth with the base of the tongue. The release at the point of articulation lets out the small amount of strongly compressed air, and the subsequent opening of glottis and nares or base of tongue produces a break in the continuity of sound. . . . These traits are not by any means common to all American languages, but they are sufficiently frequent to deserve mention in a generalized discussion of the subject. . . . There are in America 169 linguistic stocks. Fifty-six in North America, 29 in Central America and 84 in South America. The most widely distributed of these linguistic stocks are the Algonquian, which occupied all of New England, Eastern Canada up to Hudson Bay and the United States around the Great Lakes and as far south as the Ohio River; the Athapaskan languages are spoken from Alaska through the Canadian Rockies; by some small groups in California and also in the Southwest; the Siouan languages are spoken through the prairies of the United States and by an isolated group in the Carolinas. Wiskhogeon was spoken in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Louisiana. There is a curious phenomenon in the distribution of these linguistic stocks, namely that on the Atlantic coast there is

great uniformity of language when compared with the tremendous diversity of languages on the Pacific coast. From Puget Sound to Lower California there are no less than 20 distinct languages spoken in the narrow coasted line west of the countries. The same is true for South America although there the greater diversity occurs further inland but still on the coast side of the continent."—F. Boas, *Handbook of American languages* (Bureau of American Ethnology, Bulletin no. 40, pp. 74-77).—See also ANTHROPOLOGY: Linguistics.

**Origins of American Indian.**—Theories of origin.—Asiatic affinities.—Development at time of migration to America.—Racial characteristics.—Geological evidence.—Cultural origins.—“For the American anthropologist no subject is of more interest than that of the racial affinity and the place or places of origin of the American aborigines. Ever since the discovery of the new continent and its peoples these questions have occupied many minds, but have not as yet been brought to the point of final answer. Numerous opinions were advanced, but they were almost wholly the results of speculation, fettered on one side by lack of scientific research and on the other by various traditions. When Columbus discovered the New World he and his companions imagined, as is well known, that they had reached the Indies, and the people met were naturally taken for natives of those regions. Later, as the true nature of the new land became better known, speculation concerning the newly discovered race took other directions, and some of the notions developed proved disastrous to the Indians. History tells us that many of the early Spaniards, up to Las Casas' time, reached the conclusion that, as no mention was made concerning the American people in Hebrew traditions, they could not strictly be regarded as men equivalent to those named in biblical accounts, and this view, before being counteracted, led directly or indirectly to much enslavement and destruction of the native Americans. Later, the origin of the Indians was sought in other parts of the world, and the seeming necessity of harmonizing this origin with biblical knowledge led to many curious opinions. One of these, held by Gomara, Lerius, and Lescarbot, was to the effect that the American aborigines were the descendants of the Canaanites who were expelled from their original abode by Joshua; another, held especially by McIntosh, that they were descended from Asiatics who themselves originated from Magog, the second son of Japhet; but the most widespread theory, and one, the remnant of which we meet to this day, was that the American Indians represented the so-called Lost Tribes of Israel. [See also AMERICA: Theory of a land bridge.] During the course of the nineteenth century, with Leveque, Humboldt, McCulloch, Morton, and especially Quatrefages, we begin to encounter more rational hypotheses concerning the Indians, although by no means a single opinion. Lord Kaimes, Morton, and Nott and Glidden professed the belief that the American natives originated in the new world and hence were truly autochthonous; Grotius believed that Yucatan had been peopled by early Christian Ethiopians, according to Mitchell the ancestors of the Indians came to this country partly from the Pacific Ocean and partly from northeastern Asia; the erudite Dr. McCulloch believed that the Indians originated from parts of different peoples who reached America over lost land from the west ‘when the surface of the earth allowed a free transit for quadrupeds.’ Quatrefages viewed the Americans as a conglomerate people, resulting from the fossil race of Lagoa Santa, the race of Parana, and



probably others in addition to which he believed there had been settlements of Polynesians; and Pickering thought that the Indians originated partly from the Mongolian and partly from the Malay. The majority of the authors of the last century, however, including Humboldt, Brerewood, Bell, Swinton, Jefferson, Latham, Quatrefages, and Peschel inclined to the belief that all the American natives, excepting the Eskimo, were of one and the same race and that they were the descendants of immigrants from North-eastern Asia, particularly of the 'Tartars' or Mongolians. The most recent writers, with one marked exception, agree entirely that this country was peopled throughout by immigration and local multiplication of people; but the

menced, has developed numerous secondary, sub-racial, localized structural modifications, these modifications cannot yet be regarded as fixed, and in no important features have they obliterated the old type and sub-types of the people. We are further in a position to state that notwithstanding the various secondary physical modifications referred to, the American natives, barring the more distantly related Eskimo, present throughout the Western Hemisphere numerous important features in common, which mark them plainly as parts of one stem of humanity. These features are: . . . 6. The mouth is generally fairly large, the lips average from medium to slightly fuller than in whites, and the lower facial region



PREHISTORIC CLIFF DWELLINGS, MESA VERDE, NATIONAL PARK, COLORADO

locality, nature, and time of the immigration are still much mooted questions. Some authors incline to the exclusively north-eastern Asiatic origin; others, such as Ten Kate and Rivet, show a tendency to follow Quatrefages in attributing at least some parts of the native American population to the Polynesians; Brinton held that they came in ancient times over a land connection from Europe; and Kollmann, basing his belief on some small crania, believes that a dwarf race preceded the Indian in America. . . . What can be stated in the light of present knowledge concerning the American native with a fair degree of positiveness is that: 1. There is no acceptable evidence, nor any probability, that men originated on this continent; 2. Man did not reach America until after attaining a development superior to that of late Pleistocene man in Europe, and after having undergone advanced and thorough stem, and even racial and tribal, differentiation; and 3. While man, since the peopling of the American continent was com-

shows throughout a medium degree of prognathism, standing, like the relative proportions of the nose, about midway between those in the whites and those characteristic of the negroes. The chin is well developed, not seldom square. The teeth are of medium size when compared, with those of primitive man in general, but perceptibly larger when contrasted with those of the cultured white American or European; the upper incisors of the Indian present an especially important feature; they are characteristically shovel-shaped, that is, deeply and peculiarly concave on the buccal side. The ears are rather large. 7. The neck, as a rule, is of only moderate length, and in health is never thin; the chest is somewhat deeper than in average whites; the breasts of the women are of medium size, and generally more or less conical in form. There is a complete absence of steatopygy; the lower limbs are less shapely and especially less full than in whites; the calf in the majority is small. 8. The hands and feet, as a rule, are of

relatively moderate or even of small dimensions, and what is among the most important features distinguishing the Indian, the relative proportions of his forearms to arms and those of the distal parts of the lower limbs to the proximal (or, in the skeleton, the radio-humeral and tibio-femoral indices) are in general, throughout the two parts of the continent, of much the same average value, which value differs from that of both the whites and the negroes, standing again in an intermediary position. This list of characteristics, which are, broadly speaking, shared by all American natives, could readily be extended, but the common features mentioned ought to be sufficient to make clear the fundamental unity of the Indians. The question that necessarily follows is: 'Which, among the different peoples of the globe, does the Indian as here characterized most resemble?' The answer, notwithstanding our imperfect knowledge, can be given conclusively. There is a great stem of humanity which embraces people ranging from yellowish-white to dark brown in color, with straight black hair, scanty beard, hairless body, brown, often more or less slanting eye, prevalently mesorhinc nose, medium alveolar prognathism, and in many other essential features much like the American native; and this stem embracing several sub-types and many nationalities and tribes, occupies the eastern half of the Asiatic continent and a large part of Polynesia. . . . As to Polynesian migrations within the Pacific, such were, so far as can be determined, all relatively recent, having taken place when America doubtless had already a large population and had developed several native cultures. It is, however, probable that after spreading over the islands, small parties of Polynesians have accidentally reached America. If so, they may have modified in some respects the native culture; but physically, being radically like the people who received them (barring their probably more recent negro mixture), they would readily blend with the Indian and their progeny could not be distinguished. In a similar way small parties of whites may have probably reached the continent in the east. They, too, may have introduced some cultural modifications, but they would necessarily consist of men only and of parties small in number, which would in the course of time blend thoroughly with the Indian."—A. Hrdlicka, *Peopling of America* (*Journal of Heredity*, Feb., 1915). —"Through a study of the various finds of human remains in North America for which geological antiquity has been claimed, it is seen that, irrespective of other considerations, in every instance where enough of the bones is preserved for comparison the somatological evidence bears witness against the geological antiquity of the remains and for their close affinity to or identity with those of the modern Indian. Under these circumstances but one conclusion is justified, which is that thus far on this continent no human bones of undisputed geological antiquity are known. This must not be regarded as equivalent to a declaration that there was no early man in this country; it means only that if early man did exist in North America, convincing proof of the fact from the stand-point of physical anthropology still remains to be produced. Referring particularly to the Nebraska 'loess man,' the mind searches in vain for solid ground on which to base an estimate of more than moderate antiquity for the Gilder Mound specimens. The evidence as a whole only strengthens the above conclusion that the existence on this continent of a man of distinctly primitive type and of exceptional geological antiquity has not as yet been proved. There may be discouragement in these repeated

failures to obtain satisfactory evidence of man's antiquity in America, but there is in this also a stimulus to renewed, patient, careful, scientifically conducted and checked exploration; and, as Professor Barbour says in one of his papers on the Nebraska find, 'the end to be attained is worth the energy to be expended.' A satisfactory demonstration of the presence of a geologically ancient man on this continent would form an important link in the history of the American race, and of mankind in general. The Missouri and Mississippi drainage areas offer exceptional opportunities for the discovery of this link of humanity if such really exists."—A. Hrdlicka, *Skeletal remains suggesting or attributed to early man in North America*, p. 98. —"Repeated efforts have been made to show that all the higher culture complexes of the New World were brought over from the Old, particularly from China or the Pacific Islands. Most of these writings are merely speculative and may be ignored, but some of the facts we have cited for correspondences to Pacific Island culture have not been satisfactorily explained. Dixon has carefully reviewed this subject, asserting in general that among such traits as blowguns, plank canoes, hammocks, lime chewing, bead-hunting cults, the man's house, and certain masked dances common to the New World and the Pacific Islands, there appears the tendency to mass upon the Pacific side of the New World. This gives these traits a semblance of continuous distribution with the Island culture. Yet it should be noted that these traits, as enumerated above, have in reality a sporadic distribution in the New World and that there are exceptions. On the other hand, there is no great *a priori* improbability that some of these traits did reach the New World from the Pacific Islands. Satisfactory proof of such may yet be attained, but such discoveries would not account for New World culture as a whole. Then there is abundant data to show that the Polynesians are recent arrivals in the Pacific; in fact, Maya culture must have been in its dotage long before they were within striking distance of the American coast. . . . Hence, the general condition for any interpretation of Old and New World relations is the full recognition that their great culture centers were well isolated by a complex chain of wilder hunting peoples and that direct contact between the two was impossible without modern means of transportation. Only such traits could, therefore, filter through from one to the other as were assimilated by these more primitive tribes. When we consider their great number and the diversity of their speech, we realize that Mexico was completely isolated from China in agriculture, metal work, and similar arts, but not necessarily so in simple traits like the sinew-backed bow. The proof of independent development thus rests largely in chronological and environmental relations."—C. Wissler, *American Indian*, pp. 356, 359.—On December 20, 1922, Dr. Louis B. Dixon read a paper before the American Association for the Advancement of Science in which he said "that a study of the earliest Indian skulls indicated that some were descended from blacks or negroids, others from primitive Australian stock, others from whites resembling the Nordics and others from Mongol or Turkish strains, all of whom crossed the Bering Straits in prehistoric time." This paper caused a sensation at the meeting.—See also AMERICA: Prehistoric.

Development of Indians previous to Spanish invasion.—Methods of establishing chronology.—"In speaking of America we generally refer to pre-Spanish conditions as pre-historic. And from the time of the Spanish invasions we have written

records, for almost every one of the early Spanish expeditions was written up by one of its members and contains some very useful ethnological data. To return to prehistoric times—it is very important to understand that the chronology which is applied to prehistoric Europe is of no use in America. The sequence of Paleolithic, Neolithic, Bronze, Iron holds only for Europe, but this does not mean that the New World is so young that no deeply stratified remains can be found. After spending much time in trying to find parallels to the European chronology some younger anthropologists have tried to analyze the situation. It has been found in the Mammoth Cave region of Kentucky and again near Trenton, N. J., that there existed an earlier culture without polished stone and pottery. It is only through such finds that ultimately the history of American culture can be built up. Of course the method has the shortcomings of all archaeological method, it can only deal with things that do not decay. [See also AMERICA: Prehistoric; ARCHAEOLOGY: Importance of American field; EASTER ISLAND.] There are a few historical facts that give us initial dates for the series. History in the Southwest begins with the Spanish exploration of the territory about 1540. Subsequent events give us other definite points, but for the remaining nine-tenths, or more, of the sequence presented in the table, we have no such time data. Yet, we do have sources from which these intervals can be estimated in terms of the known tenth. Nelson's diagram presents the steps from one culture to the next as if equal; but this is not his intention or belief. It is common historical knowledge that the evolution of culture and, in fact, all organic things, has been accelerating with time. The tabulation of a few epoch-making events in Old World culture with the dates assigned thereto makes this clear. . . . It appears that it took much longer to pass from flint chipping to fire and again to painting, than from iron to steam power and the more recent inventions. Thus not only the presence of acceleration is made evident, but its rate of progression is indicated. In the regions where pottery, the chief index of culture is lacking very little can be said about earlier culture. This is especially true on the North Pacific Coast and on the Plains. From other cultural evidences we know that the Plains Indians were not as nomadic before the introduction of the horse as afterwards. Another piece of real archaeological work has been done in the older cultures of the Ohio Valley where some very crude stone implements were found. In Mexico and Yucatan several archaeological Strata have been identified, although comparatively the data now at hand is insufficient; it is still hoped that from these prehistoric remains the oldest culture in America can be discovered."—C. Wissler, *Anthropological papers*, v. 18, pp. 3-7.

**Development of Indian history after the appearance of Europeans.**—Apart from anthropology, ethnology and philology, the important facts in Indian history are inextricably bound up with the course of events in the life of the races which dispossessed them, and their fundamental contributions are those which influenced and furthered European development. Perhaps the most important single culture-factor contributed by the Indians was the pathway westward. The advance of the European colonists was along the trails, water ways, trade routes and camping-sites of the red men. The trail grew into a road and the road became a railway. Although the English were much less affected than the French by the civilization of the races with which they came into con-

tact, traffic with the Indians necessarily had its effect on the social and political conditions of the colonists. They received many valuable lessons in the art of delicate negotiations and skillful statecraft, and some of the alliances entered into with their aboriginal neighbors had far-reaching consequences on their history. With the gradual encroachment on the hunting grounds of the Indian by the white man (which in the nature of things began with his first appearance), Indian history is made up of nearly four hundred years of intermittent warfare.

**Method of trade with American colonies.**—**Kinds of money.** See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 17th century: Indian money, etc.; WAMPUM.

1493-1542.—Held as slaves by Spaniards. See SLAVERY: 1493-1542.

1500-1600.—Algonquians at their height. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

1503-1504.—Mayas discovered by Columbus. See MAYAS.

1519-1535.—War between Cortés and Aztecs. See MEXICO: 1519 (February-April) to 1535-1822.

1524.—North American Indians described by Verrazano. See AMERICA: 1524.

1527-1528.—Incas discovered by Spaniards. See AMERICA: 1524-1528.

1531-1533.—Conquest of Incas by Pizarro. See PERU: 1531-1533.

1540-1541.—Seven cities of Cibola discovered by Coronado. See AMERICA: 1540-1541.

1541.—Navahos discovered by Spanish. See ATHAPASCAN FAMILY.

1576-1585.—Eskimo discovered by Frobisher and Davis. See ESKIMO FAMILY.

17th century.—Work of missionaries in North America. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: North America.

1607-1620.—Jamestown threatened by Indians. See VIRGINIA: 1607-1610.

1609.—Champlain and Algonquians attack Iroquois. See CANADA: 1608-1611.

1615.—Iroquois begin trading with Dutch at Albany. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests.

1622-1644.—Massacres in Jamestown by the Opechancanoughs.—Intermittent hostilities by Powhatans. See POWHATAN CONFEDERACY; VIRGINIA: 1622-1624; 1644.

1637-1638.—Pequot War in New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1637; RHODE ISLAND: 1636; 1637.

1638-1647.—Wars with Indians in New Netherlands. See NEW YORK: 1638-1647.

1640-1700.—Wars between Iroquois and French. See CANADA: 1640-1700.

1648-1659.—War between Hurons and Iroquois. See HURONS.

1649.—Hurons, or Wyandots driven into Canada by the Five Nations. See HURONS.

1670.—Complete subjugation of Adirondacks and Hurons by Iroquois. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests.

1675-1676.—King Philip's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675 to 1676-1678.

1676.—Wars with English in Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1660-1677.

1680-1700.—Indian slavery in South Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1680.

1682.—Penn's treaty with Delawares. See DELAWARES.

1684-1686.—Governor Dongan's dealings with Iroquois.—Convention. See NEW YORK: 1684.

1689-1690.—Massacres in New York during King William's War. See CANADA: 1689-1690.

1699-1763.—Trade of English and French with

Chikasaws and Cherokees in Mississippi valley.

—Anthony Crozat. See LOUISIANA: 1699-1763.

1700.—Decrease of Algonquian stock in South. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Tribes of the South.

1703-1704.—Indian raids on Marlboro and Deerfield instigated by French in Queen Anne's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710.

1703-1708.—"Apalachee" War. See APALACHEE INDIANS.

1711-1714.—Tuscarora War. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Tribes of the South.

1712-1740.—Wars of Fox Indians with French. See WISCONSIN: 1712-1740.

1713-1730.—Hostilities of Indians in Nova Scotia with England. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1715.—Attack of Yemasee tribe on Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1712-1732.

1719-1750.—Natchez massacre of French and their destruction.—War of Chickasaws. See LOUISIANA: 1719-1750.

1721.—First treaty of Cherokees with South Carolina. See CHEROKEES.

1726.—Iroquois under English control. See NEW YORK: 1726.

1744.—Sale of Shenandoah valley to Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1744.

1754.—Struggles with colonists. See U. S. A.: 1754.

1756.—Alliances with French in French and Indian War. See CANADA: 1756.

1759-1794.—Cherokee wars in Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1759-1761.

1763-1764.—Pontiac's War. See PONTIAC'S WARS.

1765-1768.—Treaty with Indians at German Flats and Ft. Stanwix.—Cession of Iroquois claims to Western Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Kentucky. See U. S. A.: 1765-1768.

1765-1795.—Delawares at their height.—Oppose advance of pioneers. See DELAWARES.

1775-1787.—Unrest caused by war.—Treaty with British, 1787. See MICHIGAN: 1775-1796.

1778.—Border wars of Indians with Tories against Americans.—Cherry valley.—Joseph Brant (Mohawk chief).—Massacre at Wyoming (Va.).—Zebulon Butler's campaign against Indians.—Colonel Alden's campaign. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June-November); 1778 (July).

1778-1779.—Clark's conquest of northwest Indians. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: Clark's conquest, etc.

1779.—Peace made with Micmacs who helped French against New England.—General Sullivan's and General Clinton's expedition against Senecas.—Broadhead's battle.—Western New York opened for settlement. See U. S. A.: 1779 (August-September).

1782.—Battles of Wyandottes with Americans in Kentucky. See KENTUCKY: 1775-1784.

1790-1795.—Disastrous expedition of Hamar and St. Clair.—Wayne's decisive victory.—Greenville treaty. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF UNITED STATES: 1790-1795.

1800-1815.—Wars of Chippewas on English settlers.—Final peace. See OJIBWAS.

1811.—Harrison's campaign against Tecumseh.—Battle of Tippecanoe. See U. S. A.: 1811; 1812; 1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

1813-1814.—Creek War. See U. S. A.: 1813-1814 (August-April); LOUISIANA: 1813-1815.

1817-1818.—Massacres by Seminoles.—Towns destroyed by Jackson. See FLORIDA: 1812-1819.

1819-1842.—Treaties with Americans ceding lands in Michigan. See MICHIGAN: 1805-1842.

1819-1899.—Government appropriations for education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education; United States: North American Indians.

1823.—Law as to right of occupancy. See COMMON LAW: 1823.

1825.—Treaty at Prairie du Chien.—Settlement of boundaries. See WISCONSIN: 1812-1825.

1825-1838.—Removal of Creek and Cherokees from Georgia. See GEORGIA: 1825-1838.

1830-1837.—Establishment of reservations in Oklahoma.—Claims of Five civilized tribes to territory.—Migrations of Choctaws and Cherokees to Indian Territory. See OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837; 1830-1844.

1831-1832.—Black Hawk War. See ILLINOIS: 1832.

1833-1874.—Pawnees cede their territory to United States. See PAWNEE FAMILY.

1835-1845.—Seminole War. See FLORIDA: 1835-1843.

1837-1867.—Cession of lands in Minnesota to United States. See MINNESOTA: 1805-1867.

1838-1839.—Cherokees forcibly removed west. See CHEROKEES.

1845-1861.—Progress in Indian Territory.—Comanche troubles with Texans. See OKLAHOMA: 1845-1861; TEXAS: 1850-1861: Troubles with Indians and Mexicans.

1851.—Treaty of Traverse de Sioux between United States and Sioux Indians. See DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1851-1859.

1853-1865.—Question of western territory.—Troubles with whites in Wyoming. See U. S. A.: 1853-1854; WYOMING: 1851-1865.

1855-1858.—Treaty of Nez Percés with Americans.—Attack of Coeur d'Alenes. See IDAHO: 1834-1860; 1858-1867.

1858-1868.—Wars of Delawares with English. See DELAWARES.

1860-1865.—Massacres of western pioneers.—War of Sioux Indians (1862).—"Kit" Carson's victory over Navahos.—"A generation ago every American boy knew of Sitting Bull and Geronimo and was full of their bloody exploits on the war-trail. A youth of the present generation [1921], when asked about living Indians, will name such 'chiefs' as Thorpe or Bender, and will tell you of how they won championships at Olympic meets or mowed down batsmen in world series. Between the two attitudes of mind lies a wonderful transformation, not only in the status of the Indian race but in the whole of the great West."

—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, p. 100.—"The steady westward march of population was accompanied by the inevitable Indian massacres, which had characterized similar movements from the earliest days of American frontier building. During the second year of the [Civil] war the Sioux Indians killed eight hundred men, women, and children in Minnesota, and destroyed property to the value of \$5,000,000. [See DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1862-1865.] Escaping punishment here, they pillaged in the Valley of the Missouri, where they laid in wait for immigrant bands, who were obliged to move under military escort."—E. D. Fite, *History of the United States*, p. 404.—"In the far southwest the Navahos, a fierce tribe of the Athabascan family, who had long been accustomed to attacking the white settlements of New Mexico, continued their forays after the territory had passed into the possession of the United States in 1849. They were finally subdued by 'Kit' Carson in 1863. . . . In all these encounters with the red men in the sixties and seventies the whites, under Generals Hancock, Custer, Sheridan and Miles, of

Civil War fame, resorted, perhaps of necessity, to great cruelty, and despite their depredations much sympathy for the Indians was aroused throughout the nation. General Miles has left it as his testimony that he had never known an Indian war in which the whites were not the aggressors."—*Ibid.*, p. 405.—See also OKLAHOMA: 1860-1865.

1864-1877.—Wars in Oregon Territory. See OREGON: 1861-1878.

1865.—West an "Indian country."—"At the close of the Civil War the population of the region beyond the Mississippi, excluding the older States of Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, and parts of Minnesota and Louisiana—constituting about two-thirds of the United States proper—was only a million and a half; and vast areas existed that were peopled only by nomadic savages who won a livelihood by slaying the swarming buffaloes. . . . It is hard for Americans of this generation [1921] to realize that for years after the Civil War most of the Far West continued to be 'Indian country,' and that travellers who crossed the Great Plains and the mountains beyond ran imminent risk of leaving their bones bleaching in the buffalo-grass and of having their scalps swing in the smoke of wigwams—even in times of so-called 'peace.' In the West, as formerly in the East, the history of how the aborigines were conquered and dispossessed is a long and complicated story of encroachments upon the Indian's lands, of warfare, of treaties 'made to be broken,' a story that does little credit to Americans and their government. However, in the words of Chittenden: 'It was the decree of destiny that the European should displace the native on his own soil. No earthly power could prevent it.'—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 100-101.

1865-1876.—Wars with Modocs, Comanches, Nez Percés, Arapahoes, and Kiowas.—Cheyenne War (1868).—Custer and battle of Washita river.—Peace commission.—Exploitation of Indian by government agents.—Board of Indian Commissioners created.—"However, the Indians were not altogether blameless in most of the scores of petty wars that occurred in the quarter-century following 1865. Despite attempts to idealize the red men, their normal existence was a state of warfare. . . . At the close of the Civil War the whole Western Frontier was ablaze, and nearly every important tribe from the Canadian border to the Red River of the South was on the war-path. In the Indian campaigns of that year about \$40,000,000 was expended, yet very few hostiles were either killed or captured. The next quarter-century witnessed wars with the Modocs [1872-1873. See also MODOCS], Comanches [1874-1875. See also SHOSHONEAN FAMILY; KIOWAN FAMILY], Nez Percés [1877. See also NEZ PERCÉS], Arapahoes, Kiowas, and other tribes, in the course of which many hundreds of 'contacts' occurred between troops and hostiles, but the tribes that caused the most persistent trouble were the Apaches of the arid Southwest and the great Sioux confederacy of the upper Missouri country. . . . In 1868 the warlike Cheyennes swept through western Kansas like a devastating storm, and in a single month killed or captured over eighty men, women, and children, while again and again they wiped out gangs of workmen employed in the construction of the new railroad to the Pacific. The fate of the captured women and girls was particularly revolting, and the stories of how some of them were finally rescued exceeds in adventurous interest most fiction. General Sheridan, of Winchester fame, personally took the field against the Cheyennes and other bands, but it was generally easy for the hostiles to

evade the troops, for the Indians depended mostly upon game for food and were mounted upon swift ponies that were usually able to out-travel the slow-going horses of the troopers, while, when hard pressed, a band could easily scatter and later meet again at an appointed rendezvous. Sheridan, in fact, found the task of catching his enemy so difficult that he compared it to 'chasing the *Alabama*.' In September a thousand hostiles under Chief Roman Nose made the mistake of attacking a band of fifty scouts intrenched on a sandy island in the Arickaree fork of Republican River, and were beaten off after a desperate struggle, largely because of the determined resourcefulness of Colonel George A. Forsyth. Near the end of the year General George A. Custer, with the Seventh Cavalry, carried out a winter campaign when the snow was deep and the Indian ponies were weak from lack of proper food. By good management he surprised Black Kettle's band of Cheyennes and Arapahoes in camp along the Washita River, killed more than a hundred warriors, took many prisoners, almost a thousand ponies, also hundreds of buffalo-ropes and bows, arrows, and other savage paraphernalia. The surviving Cheyennes and Arapahoes made peace soon after. In the previous spring peace had been concluded with the Kiowas, Apaches, Sioux, and certain other tribes by what was known as the Peace Commission. [See also DAKOTA TERRITORY: 1866-1870]. By these treaties the Indians conceded certain rights of transit through their country, but reservations were set apart for their use, and the Bozeman Trail in the Powder River country was given up by the whites."

—P. S. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 102-105.—See also U. S. A.: 1866-1876.—"Even after the tribes accepted the guardianship of the government they were often mistreated by rapacious Indian agents and contractors. For years an 'Indian Ring' preyed upon the reservation Indians, cheating them in the amount and quality of the supplies they were supposed to receive. The blankets given them were likely to be of shoddy, the cattle fed to the wards of the nation were apt to be leaner than Pharaoh's kine, and many of the supplies for which the government paid never reached the red men at all. More than one bloody outbreak was due to dissatisfaction and hunger caused by such cheating. As already related, some of the facts regarding this 'ring' came to light in the impeachment proceedings against Secretary of War Belknap, but a thorough investigation of the abuses was never made, partly because certain politicians were anxious to preserve the existing state of affairs. Furthermore, unscrupulous white men encroached upon the Indians' lands, stole their horses, slaughtered the game upon which they depended for food, debauched their squaws, cheated them in trades, sold them 'firewater,' and taught them all the vices of civilization but few of the virtues."—*Ibid.*, p. 101.—"Under President Grant a Board of Indian Commissioners was created, and in general better Indian agents were appointed, but dishonesty still lurked in the Indian Bureau, and the Indians were still often cheated in the matter of supplies. Furthermore, encroachments on the Indians' lands continued, with much killing of the game upon which the aborigines largely depended for subsistence. In 1874-76 the discovery of gold in the Black Hills, on the Sioux reservation, precipitated a great rush of prospectors to that region and helped to bring on the last great Indian war."—*Ibid.*, p. 105.

1866-1876.—War of Sioux under Red Cloud.—Treaty. See WYOMING: 1866 (June-December); 1868-1876.

1866-1883.—Post-war treaties in Oklahoma.—Cattle industry developed. See OKLAHOMA: 1866-1870; 1866-1883.

1869.—Rise of Bannocks.—Treaty. See IOWA: 1869-1878.

1876.—Revolt of Sioux under Sitting Bull.—Battle of Little Big Horn.—Death of Custer. See U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

1877.—Apache subjugation in Arizona. See ARIZONA: 1877.

1885-1891.—Dawes Bill.—Education Act.—Hostilities of Indians. See U. S. A.: 1885-1891.

1885-1918.—Yaqui revolts in Mexico. See MEXICO: 1885-1908.

1886.—Apaches under Geronimo conquered.—“In the far Southwest the Apaches, an offshoot from the Athapascan family of the far Canadian northland, indulged in frequent bloody forays against scattered ranches and prospectors, and displayed unsurpassed cunning and a pitiless ferocity that spared neither sex nor age. Although less

of the western tribes began to hold ‘ghost dances,’ and their medicine men were constantly prophesying the coming of a Messiah who would destroy the white men and bring back the buffalo herds. The delusion gained such a foothold that a widespread outbreak seemed imminent. The Sioux became especially uneasy, and it was known that Sitting Bull was once more engaged in stirring them up. Indian policemen were sent to arrest him, but some of his followers defended him, and Sitting Bull was slain (December 15, 1890). A couple of weeks later a considerable attack took place at Wounded Knee, but the Sioux suffered heavily, and this defeat and the energetic action of General Nelson A. Miles sufficed to bring to an end what proved to be the last of our many Indian wars. The submission of the Plains tribes to the inevitable was due almost as much to the disappearance of the buffaloes as to the campaigns of the soldiers. These mighty, shaggy, lumbering beasts were to these red men what manna was to



GROUP OF APACHE INDIANS

(American Museum of Natural History, New York)

numerous than the Sioux, they dwelt in a more difficult country, full of mountain and desert fastnesses, while, when hard pressed, they were often able to escape over the border into Mexico. Thither they were frequently followed by American forces, while Mexican troops co-operated against the common foe. Such Indian leaders as Cochise, Victorio, Juh, and Geronimo won fame in these outbreaks, while on the side of the white man the most noted names were those of Generals Crook and Miles. It was not until 1886 that the final outbreak was suppressed. In that year the Chiricahua Apaches, the most incorrigible of all, with their leader Geronimo, were deported to Florida and Alabama, where they were subjected to military imprisonment, being subsequently transferred to Fort Sill, Oklahoma, on the Kiowa reservation. At the last-mentioned place they engaged in successful farming, and developed an ability to make money and to save it.”—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, p. 111.

1888-1890.—“Ghost-dances” and Sioux uprising.—Death of Sitting Bull.—“About 1888 many

the Children of Israel during their sojourn in the Wilderness—and more, for from them the Indians obtained not only most of their food, but also clothing, bowstrings, harness for ponies and dogs, and skins for lodges. While the buffaloes were plentiful it was generally easy for bands on the war-path to evade the slow-moving soldiers, but when the herds of ‘Plains cattle’ disappeared, the old system of warfare became impossible. Lack of food was the main factor that forced Sitting Bull and his band to return from Canada.”—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own times*, pp. 108-109.

1889-1901.—Tribal ownership in Oklahoma.—Its abuse.—Government allotment of Oklahoma land.—United States purchase of Cherokee outlet. See OKLAHOMA: 1889-1898; 1891-1901.

1893-1899.—Negotiations and agreements with Five Civilized Tribes.—Work of Dawes Commission.—In his annual Message to the Congress of the United States, December 7, 1896, President Cleveland made the following reference to the work of a commission created in 1893, for nego-

tiating with what are known as the Five Civilized Tribes of Indians: "The condition of affairs among the Five Civilized Tribes, who occupy large tracts of land in the Indian Territory and who have governments of their own, has assumed such an aspect as to render it almost indispensable that there should be an entire change in the relations of these Indians to the General Government. This seems to be necessary in furtherance of their own interests, as well as for the protection of non-Indian residents in their territory. A commission organized and empowered under several recent laws is now negotiating with these Indians for the relinquishment of their courts and the division of their common lands in severalty, and are aiding in the settlement of the troublesome question of tribal membership. The reception of their first proffers of negotiation was not encouraging, but through patience and such conduct on their part as demonstrated that their intentions were friendly and in the interest of the tribes the prospect of success has become more promising. The effort should be to save these Indians from the consequences of their own mistakes and improvidence and to secure to the real Indian his rights as against intruders and professed friends who profit by his retrogression. A change is also needed to protect life and property through the operation of courts conducted according to strict justice and strong enough to enforce their mandates. As a sincere friend of the Indian, I am exceedingly anxious that these reforms should be accomplished with the consent and aid of the tribes and that no necessity may be presented for radical or drastic legislation."—*United States, messages and documents (Abridgment, 1896-1897)*.

The Act of March 3, 1893, by which the commission was created, set forth its character, its duties and its powers, as follows: "The President shall nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint three commissioners to enter into negotiations with the Cherokee Nation, the Choctaw Nation, the Chickasaw Nation, the Muscogee (or Creek) Nation, the Seminole Nation, for the purpose of extinguishment of the national or tribal title to any lands within that territory now held by any and all of such nations or tribes, either by cession of the same or some part thereof to the United States, or by the allotment and division of the same in severalty among the Indians of such nations or tribes, respectively, as may be entitled to the same, or by such other method as may be agreed upon between the several nations and tribes aforesaid, or each of them, with the United States, with a view to such an adjustment, upon the basis of justice and equity, as may, with the consent of such nations or tribes of Indians, so far as may be necessary, be requisite and suitable to enable the ultimate creation of a State or States of the Union which shall embrace the lands within said Indian Territory. . . . Such commissioners shall, under such regulations and directions as shall be prescribed by the President, through the Secretary of the Interior, enter upon negotiation with the several nations of Indians as aforesaid in the Indian Territory, and shall endeavor to procure, first, such allotment of lands in severalty to the Indians belonging to each such nation, tribe, or band, respectively, as may be agreed upon as just and proper to provide for each such Indian a sufficient quantity of land for his or her needs, in such equal distribution and apportionment as may be found just and suited to the circumstances; for which purpose, after the terms of such an agreement shall have been arrived at, the said commis-

sioners shall cause the land of any such nation, or tribe, or band to be surveyed and the proper allotment to be designated; and, secondly, to procure the cession, for such price and upon such terms as shall be agreed upon, of any lands not found necessary to be so allotted or divided, to the United States; and to make proper agreements for the investment or holding by the United States of such moneys as may be paid or agreed to be paid to such nation, or tribes, or bands, or to any of the Indians thereof, for the extinguishment of their [title?] therein. But said commissioners shall, however, have power to negotiate any and all such agreements as, in view of all the circumstances affecting the subject, shall be found requisite and suitable to such an arrangement of the rights and interests and affairs of such nations, tribes, bands, or Indians, or any of them, to enable the ultimate creation of a Territory of the United States with a view to the admission of the same as a State in the Union."

A subsequent Act, of March 2, 1895, authorized the appointment of two additional members of the commission; and an Act of June 10, 1896, provided that "said commission is further authorized and directed to proceed at once to hear and determine the application of all persons who may apply to them for citizenship in any of said nations, and after said hearing they shall determine the right of said applicant to be so admitted and enrolled. . . . That the said commission . . . shall cause a complete roll of citizenship of each of said nations to be made up from their records, and add thereto the names of citizens whose right may be conferred under this act, and said rolls shall be, and are hereby, made rolls of citizenship of said nations or tribes, subject, however, to the determination of the United States courts, as provided herein."

A further Act of Congress, known as the Curtis Act, June 28, 1898, ratified, with some amendments, an agreement made by the commission with the Choctaws and Chickasaws, in April, 1897, and with the Creeks in September of that year, to become effective if ratified by a majority of the voters of those tribes at an election held prior to December 1, 1898. In the annual report, for 1899, made by the commission (of which the Hon. Henry L. Dawes, of Massachusetts, is chairman, and which is often referred to as "the Dawes Commission,") the following account of results is given: "A special election was called by the executives of the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations to be held August 24, and the votes cast were counted in the presence of the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes at Atoka, August 30, resulting in the ratification of the agreement by a majority of seven hundred ninety-eight votes. Proclamation thereof was duly made, and the 'Atoka agreement,' so called, is therefore now in full force and effect in the Choctaw and Chickasaw nations. Chief Ispashecher of the Creeks was slow to call an election, and it was not until November 1, 1898, that the agreement with that tribe was submitted in its amended form for ratification. While no active interest was manifested, the full-bloods and many of the freedmen were opposed to the agreement and it failed of ratification by about one hundred and fifty votes. . . . The Cherokees now began to realize the sensations of 'a man without a country,' and again created a commission at a general session of the national council in November, 1898, clothed with authority to negotiate an agreement with the United States. The earlier efforts of this commission to conclude an agreement with that tribe were futile, owing to the disinclination of the

Cherokee commissioners to accede to such propositions as the Government had to offer. The commission now created was limited in its power to negotiate to a period of thirty days. The United States Commission had advertised appointments in Mississippi extending from December 10, 1898, to January 7, 1899, for the purpose of identifying the Mississippi Choctaws, a duty imposed upon the commission by the act of June 28, 1898, but on receiving a communication from the chairman of the Cherokee Commission requesting a conference it was deemed desirable to postpone the appointments in Mississippi and meet the Cherokee Commission, which it did on December 19, 1898, continuing negotiations until January 14, 1899, producing the agreement which is appended hereto. In the meantime the Creeks had, by act of council, created another commission with authority to negotiate an agreement with the United States, and a conference was accorded it immediately upon conclusion of the negotiations with the Cherokees, continuing to February 1, 1899, when an agreement was concluded. The agreement with the Cherokees was ratified by the tribe at a special election held January 31, 1899, by a majority of two thousand one hundred six votes, and that with the Creeks on February 18, 1899, by a majority of four hundred eighty-five. While these agreements do not in all respects embody those features which the commission desired, they were the best obtainable, and the result of most serious, patient, and earnest consideration, covering many days of arduous labor. The commissions were many times on the point of suspending negotiations, there having arisen propositions upon the part of one of the commissions which the other was unwilling to accept. Particularly were the tribal commissioners determined to fix a maximum and minimum value for the appraisement of lands, while this commission was equally vigorous in its views that the lands should be appraised at their actual value, excluding improvements, without limitations in order that an equal division might be made. The propositions finally agreed upon were the result of a compromise, without which no agreement could have been reached. The desirability, if not the absolute necessity, of securing a uniform land tenure among the Five Tribes leads the commission to recommend that these agreements, with such modifications and amendments as may be deemed wise and proper, be ratified by Congress. . . . The Choctaw and Chickasaw governments, in a limited way, are continued, by agreement, to March 4, 1906, and certain of their laws are therefore effective within the territory of those tribes. A similar condition exists as to the Seminoles, with which an agreement was concluded at the close of the year 1897. To supply needed laws to replace various tribal statutes which had by Congress been made inoperative, the laws of Arkansas pertaining to certain matters have been extended over Indian Territory. The Federal laws have been made to apply to still other subjects, and officials under the Interior Department are charged with the enforcement of rules and regulations governing still further matters, and so on. So complicated and complex a state of affairs does this system of jurisprudence present that the people are dazed and often unable to determine what is law and who is authorized to enforce it. Indeed, none other than an able lawyer can reasonably hope to understand the situation, and even he must be content to look upon certain phases of it as not being susceptible of solution. Conditions are not yet ripe for the immediate installation of a Territorial or State government. 'Tis

a consummation devoutly to be wished,' but wholly impracticable at this time for various reasons, not the least of which is found in the fact that there are four non-citizens in Indian Territory to every citizen. The non-citizen does not own a foot of soil, save as provisions have recently been made for the segregation and sale of town sites, and with a voice in legislation, the non-citizen would soon legislate the Indian into a state of innocuous desuetude. On the other hand, it would be manifestly unjust and at ill-accord with the spirit of our institutions to deny the right of franchise to so great a number of people, in all respects otherwise entitled to enjoy that prerogative. Another very serious obstacle to the establishment of a territorial form of government is the lack of uniform land tenures. The commission indulges in the hope and belief that at no great distant date some method may be devised whereby the lands of all the Five Tribes may be subjected to a uniform tenure. It will be seen that the legislative feature of the popular form of government is not possible at this time, and while legislation by Congress for all the petty needs of the Territory is impracticable in the highest degree, the more urgent requirements of the people must be met by this means for the present. The judicial branch is well represented by the United States courts. . . . The commission, in conclusion, most earnestly urges the importance of adequate appropriations for pushing to an early completion the work contemplated by the various laws and agreements under which a transformation is to be wrought in Indian Territory. The all-important and most urgent duty now devolving upon the Government of the United States incident to the translation of conditions among the Five Tribes is the allotment of lands in severalty, and the most pressing and essential preliminary steps toward that end are the completion of citizenship rolls, the appraisement of lands, and the subdivision of sections into forty-acre tracts, all of which have been already discussed in detail in this report. The commission believes that the enrollment of citizens is progressing as rapidly as the nature of the work will permit, and unless some unforeseen obstacle arises to prevent, the rolls in four of the nations will be completed and delivered to the Secretary during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, and very material progress made in the fifth."—*Sixth Annual Report of the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes, 1899, pp. 66-67, 9-29.*

1898.—*Outbreak in northern Minnesota.*—An alarming outbreak of hostility on the part of some of the Indians of the Leech Lake Reservation in northern Minnesota occurred in October, 1898, provoked, as was afterwards shown, by gross frauds and abuses on the part of certain of the officials with whom they had to deal. They had been shamefully defrauded in the sale of their timber lands, which the government assumed to undertake for their benefit; but the immediate cause of trouble appeared to be a scandalous practice on the part of deputy marshals, who made arrests among them for trivial reasons, conveyed prisoners and witnesses to the federal court at St. Paul, in order to obtain fees and mileage, and left them to make their way home again as they could. The outbreak began on the arrest of a chief of the Pillager band of Chippewas, on Bear Island. He was to be taken to St. Paul as a witness in a case of alleged whiskey-selling; but his followers rescued him. The marshal, thereupon, called for military aid, and a company of U. S. infantry was sent to the Reservation. They were ambuscaded by the Indians and suffered a loss of 5 killed and 16



wounded. The Pillager band was joined by Indians from neighboring tribes, and all in the region were dangerously excited by the event, while the whites were in great dread of a general Indian war. But reinforcements of troops were promptly sent to the scene, and peace was soon restored,—measures being taken to remedy the wrongs of which the Indians complained.—See also MINNESOTA: 1898-1899.

1901-1902.—Citizenship for the Five Civilized Tribes.—End of tribal autonomy.—By an act of March 3, 1901, all Indians of the Five Civilized Tribes were made citizens of the United States. The last of the proceedings for ending the autonomy of the Five Civilized Tribes, making them citizens of the United States and dividing their tribal lands among them individually, was finished in the summer of 1902, by the Cherokee Council, which ratified agreements already accepted by the other four tribes. (See also OKLAHOMA: 1898-1902.) According to William Dudley Foulke, who investigated the circumstances, the Creek nation has suffered grievous frauds in the final settlement of their land affairs, by the operation of the Curtis Act, in the matter of the sale of town sites. Foulke's account of the case is given in an article entitled "Despoiling a Nation," published in *The Outlook*, January 2, 1908.

1906.—Reservations in Wyoming. See WYOMING: 1906.

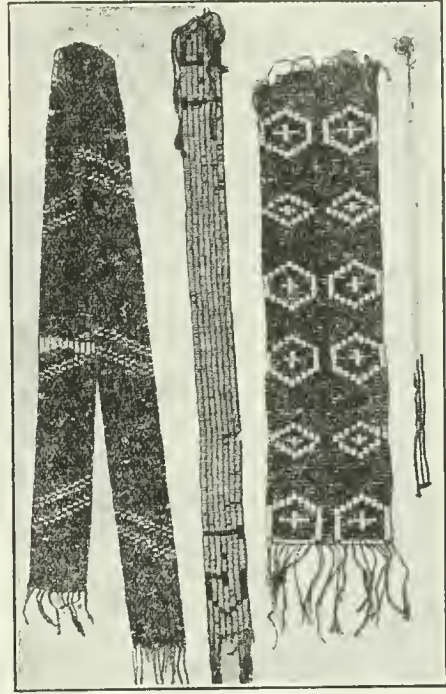
1908.—Under jurisdiction of Oklahoma. See OKLAHOMA: 1907-1908.

1913.—Work of commissioner of charities.—Indian orphans defended against exploiters of their land. See OKLAHOMA: 1913.

1918-1919.—Part played in World War.—"It is not necessary in establishing the patriotic and heroic part of the Indians in the World War to make such unwarrantable statements as that they purchased over \$60,000,000 worth of Liberty bonds. I feel that their actual investment of \$25,000,000 in this way is a magnificent showing. No one questions the war-time evidence of the Indian's Americanism or that it carries great weight in the plea for his citizenship. . . . A bill approved by this bureau, which became a law in October, 1919, provides that Indians who served in the Military or Naval Establishments of the United States during the war against Germany, and who have been honorably discharged, may be granted full citizenship by courts of competent jurisdiction."—*United States report of the commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior*, June 30, 1920, pp. 8-9.

1919.—Industrial life.—"Because of economic necessity the Indian now appreciates the importance of finding work without loss of time and near home. The value of vocational training in Indian schools is reflected in the increased efficiency of pupils, many of whom are taking their places in the business and industrial life of their community side by side with their white brothers. Many Indians have been placed in automobile factories, and reports indicate that they make good workmen. Indians are employed on the railroads in many capacities, ranging from engineer to shopmen. Thousands work on farms on and adjacent to reservations. Increased acreage in cotton will furnish work for the Indians of the Southwest. The annual colony of student workers in the beet fields of Colorado and vicinity was maintained from June to October, 1919. In Box Butte County, Nebr., at least 700,000 bushels of potatoes were harvested as the work of one community of Indians. A few Indians are active Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. field workers. A number are

lawyers, physicians, and clergymen in many denominations. Some are in social club work at their homes. There are many clerks in Government and private offices, and teachers in Government, public, and other schools. There are Indian superintendents of Indian schools and supervisory officers in Indian field work."—*United States report of commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior*, June 30, 1920, p. 19.—In the lists which give the occupations of Indians in the United States we find every conceivable sort of work: bankers, brokers, chauffeurs, civil



WAMPUM BELTS

(American Museum of Natural History, New York)

and mining engineers, stock raisers, dairymen, and owners of log and timber camps. Among the women we find farm and dairy laborers, dress-makers, saleswomen, laundresses, and clerical workers. In 1919, there were 1,223 reported as basket makers, 160 pottery makers and 4,028 weavers. One may readily ask how the Indians happen to choose such occupations and how they are prepared for them. In 1879 under the influence of Capt. R. H. Pratt an industrial training school for Indians was founded at Carlisle, Pa. Its aims are to familiarize the Indian boy and girl with the conditions of life among white people and to teach them the arts and crafts of white civilization. In 1914 there were 955 students and 44 instructors. The object of Carlisle and of the discipline used on the reservations is to make the Indian self-supporting and to educate him for citizenship. The people in Indian Service are so poorly paid that many of them are often forced to leave it to secure more remunerative employment.

1920.—Existing schools and education.—"The peak of attendance in Indian schools was reached in 1915, when 26,128 Indian children were enrolled, and there has been a gradual yearly decrease since then, both in attendance and the num-

ber of Government schools. Under new rules governing enrollment, published in my last annual report, the following schools were abolished: The Otoe, Ponca, and Shawnee Schools in Oklahoma; the Cushman School, Tacoma, Wash.; the Southern Ute School, Ignacio, Colo.; the Siseton, Yankton, and Hope Schools, South Dakota, and Martin Kenel School, North Dakota; the Oncida School, Wisconsin; the White Earth School, Minnesota; the Kickapoo School, Kansas; as well as a number of Government day schools in many localities. These reductions do not mean that Indian children are deprived of facilities for their education. Whenever one of our schools is abandoned its place is taken by the public and private school, thus merging the child of the Indian into the same educational processes as that of the whites. In 1913 there were enrolled in public and private

work, while the women have confined themselves largely to household duties. This is well exemplified by the fact that last year [1919] 36,459 Indians cultivated 702,126 acres of land, producing crops worth \$11,037,589, as compared with 28,051 Indians who cultivated 558,503 acres in 1912, producing crops worth \$3,250,288. Moreover, by the constantly growing use of modern agricultural machinery, improved methods, etc., the Indians have made distinct industrial gains, and have also won the respect of their white neighbors by their habit of sustained industry and the acquisition of improved homes. . . . It is our chief purpose in every way possible to induce and assist the Indian to live upon and cultivate his allotment and thus by his own efforts and industry arrive at the satisfactions of an independent home life and a station of progressive influence in the community.



HOPI WOMAN GRINDING CORN, WALPI, ARIZONA

schools 25,988, and at present about 29,123 Indian children. This figure, however, does not show all the Indian children who are attending schools, other than Government, but only those of whom reports are made. [Out of 88,420 children, the total number attending schools was 61,800.]—*United States report of commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920, p. 13.*—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments; 20th century: General education: United States: North American Indians; Religious bodies, etc.

1920.—Review of agricultural developments.—**Land tenure.**—Government aid and instruction.—**Live-stock improvement.**—“Agriculture is the basis of prosperity among the whites, and is even more essential to Indian welfare. The early explorers of this country found the Indians cultivating the soil, although the women did most of the work, the men being engaged in hunting and fishing when not on the warpath. However, as the Indians have advanced under the tutelage of the Government, the men have gradually assumed this

But this is not always practicable, and is then supplemented by the leasing policy of the bureau which works a fortunate advantage to the Indian, because in many cases he does not have the means to develop his land agriculturally and place upon it improvements in buildings, fencing, and other physical essentials. . . . Where Indians are competent they are permitted to manage their own leases and to handle the funds derived therefrom. There were in round numbers 40,000 agricultural leases executed, covering about 4,500,000 acres of Indian lands; and the increased rentals which have been obtained by the revenue from leases will amount to a little over \$8,000,000. . . . The American Indian is not the same problem he was a generation ago. Of this there can be no doubt, in view of existing conditions on the reservations where stand the gravestones of Custer and his band, or among the tribes that joined in the atrocities of Geronimo. Children of chieftains who once trained for war are now occupied with vocations of peace. Indian welfare has become largely a social and economic question. The Indian's

progress in self-support justifies the broader policy of making him a producer beyond his needs and an important contributor to the world's supplies. He is, in fact, fulfilling this expectation in many ways, but perhaps in nothing more encouragingly than by his activities in stock-raising.

"An interesting chapter could be written on the Indian as a crop grower, with his tillage of nearly a million acres and his general use of modern farm implements and methods; but his larger opportunities are in live stock, to which the greater part of most of the reservations is better adapted than to farming. . . . A systematic survey of the reservation ranges was made by experienced Indian Service stockmen, which disclosed conditions requiring constructive action, such as the correction of overstocked ranges, the maintenance of grazing areas at normal carrying capacity, water development to increase capacity, winter feeding and protection, the selection of suitable breeds, and the revision of lease contracts accordingly. . . . Altogether the most important future problem is a greatly enlarged water supply. Millions of acres of practically unused reservation land could, and should, be utilized for grazing with proper water conservation and development. Much has recently been accomplished, but very much more should be done. Liberal appropriations are required, and should be made by Congress. . . . Indians, as a rule, have had very little to start with, except their allotments of land, and great assistance has been given them in long-time loans from both tribal moneys and appropriations made by Congress for that purpose, termed 'reimbursable funds.' . . . There has been expended on the Crow Reservation in Montana about \$82,000 in reimbursable funds for individual Indians, of which approximately 95 per cent. has been repaid. The Indians of the Standing Rock Reservation have been operating under this plan for several years with remarkable enterprise and success, and it has become the yearly practice for the superintendent to negotiate regular steer purchases for the Indians as individuals. Nearly 50,000 Indians are now engaged in stock raising, and their live stock increased in value from less than \$23,000,000 in 1912 to approximately \$40,000,000 in 1919. The character of the Indian's land and his native instincts point to his successful future as a stock grower; but, while he loves animal life and is the natural friend of the herd and flock, he has needed sympathetic instruction and protection. He has not understood the comparative values of quality and quantity, but has placed too much merit in numbers alone. . . . In all phases of stock raising the Indian Service is placing the Indians' activities in line with the most advanced practice of the live-stock industry. . . . The younger Indians in large numbers have for some years received excellent vocational training in our Government schools, where the course in agriculture is made prominent, and through intelligent application, energy, and ambition are adding modern methods and leadership to the live-stock business on all the reservations. . . . The year's fiscal operations for the Five Civilized Tribes were the largest in their history, involving the handling of \$47,668,996.02, including receipts and disbursements of all classes of funds. Indian money belonging to individual Indians was expended for their maintenance, farms, buildings, live stock, and equipment in the sum of \$1,966,758."—*United States report of commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920, pp. 21-23, 27-28, 30.*

1920.—Oil and gas in reservations of Five Civilized Tribes.—"During the year [1919-1920]

about 3,500 oil and gas mining leases of restricted lands and 1,700 assignments were disposed of. . . . The income of restricted Indians from their oil and gas leases amounted to \$4,774,556.31. Although there was considerable activity in development work during the year, the production fell off. Owing to the fact that the price of oil was the highest ever received in Oklahoma, the Indians received a larger revenue from their leases than in the preceding year. . . . The Osage Reservation, under which the oil and gas is reserved to the tribe until 1931, unless otherwise provided by Congress, comprises approximately 1,500,000 acres, of which 680,000 acres on the east side were leased for oil under a blanket lease authorized by Congress, which expired March 16, 1916. On June 30, 1919, new leases had been made covering approximately 1,433,848 acres for gas and 470,804 for oil."—*United States report of the commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920, pp. 31-33.*

1920.—Review of missionary work among North American Indians. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: North America; MORAVIAN, OR BOHEMIAN, BRETHREN: Saxony and America.

1920.—Facts on Oklahoma Indians.—"The Choctaw word 'Oklahoma' is destined to hold a prominent, permanent, and honored place among the many Indian terms that are written into the annals of every State in the Union. Its meaning is at once suggestive of the large Indian population within the prosperous Commonwealth of that name, now considerably more than double that of any other State, and of which the Five Civilized Tribes are an important local factor, since they embrace more than five-sixths of their race in Oklahoma. Prior to 1830, these tribes, composed of the Choctaw, Chickasaw, Cherokee, Creek, and Seminole Indians, occupied different sections of the Southern States east of the Mississippi River. They are of the old Iroquoian and Muskogean families, who in earlier times produced many valiant leaders in war, besides others of notable inventive and literary genius, and to-day they fill with credit various important places of trust and furnish men of distinction in the highest councils of the Nation. These Indians had made considerable progress in communal activities before accepting, under treaties, lands west of the Mississippi and, after removal, re-established their tribal government, held and owned in common the land within their respective nations, and controlled their own affairs largely independent of the Federal Government. But their productive acres were attractive, and their practice of leasing them admitted large numbers of whites, many of whom were desirable settlers, but among them were adventurers and fortune hunters who introduced conditions beyond the control of tribal governments and made it necessary for Congress to take steps for the correction of lawless tendencies. In 1803, therefore, the Dawes Commission was appointed, having in view a gradual transition from tribal government and communal estates to the allotment of land in severalty, the development of individual competency as a basis for citizenship, and the establishment of law and order as an essential to statehood. To this end the securing of agreements with the Five Tribes, the preparation of a complete roll of their members, the survey and allotment of their extensive real property, and the adjustment of some 10,000 contests between claimants, became an immense task covering practically one-third of all the Indians in the United States. The passage of over 200 laws by Congress relating to these Indians is suggestive of the scope of their

large interests and the difficulty of administering them.

"On the final rolls of these tribes were 101,506 persons, of whom 26,774 were classified as full bloods. They had a little less than 20,000,000 acres of land, of which nearly 16,000,000 acres were allotted to enrolled members, and about 150,000 acres reserved for town sites, schools, churches, and other purposes. Sales of town lots have been made from more than 300 town sites for approximately \$5,000,000. The sales of unallotted tribal land have occurred entirely within the last decade. . . . These have been held each year and are now practically completed, covering over three and a half million acres for considerably more than \$20,000,000. In addition the sale of Choctaw and Chickasaw lands containing coal and asphalt deposits has brought nearly two millions, and leases and royalties for the mining of these deposits about five millions more. During the last seven years nearly 2,000,000 acres of unallotted tribal lands have been sold, the tribal affairs of the Cherokee and Seminole Nations practically closed, and the Creek, Chickasaw, and . . . Choctaw tribal relations are fast approaching dissolution. Following the disposition of tribal property and the termination of tribal affairs our administrative work in eastern Oklahoma relates chiefly to restricted Indians who, by my order of August 6, 1919, removing unconditionally restrictions on all allottees of one-half Indian blood, now number only 21,213. Their allotments comprising 2,638,819 acres are restricted as to alienation and subject to governmental supervision. The distribution of tribal funds, including payments in equalization of allotments made to the Five Civilized Tribes, now exceeds \$26,000,000. These Indians have also shared in the recent marvelous returns from oil and gas in the great Oklahoma districts, and up to 1919 there had been collected for the benefit of their individual members from leases and royalties approximately \$32,000,000. Income from other sources to that date swells their receipts of individual moneys to \$60,000,000. . . . Here we had in a sovereign State thousands of Indians who had received full United States citizenship, but whose lands and other property were still held under the protecting arm of the Government. . . . A more liberal practice was begun with reference to Indians who were qualified to look after their business affairs. This tentative plan brought encouraging results and largely decided . . . the 'Declaration of Policy' of April 17, 1917, which provides that a broad, liberal policy shall henceforth prevail to the end that every Indian of 21 years or over, as soon as ascertained to be as competent to transact his own business as the average white man, shall be given full control of his lands and funds and thus cease to be a ward of the Government. This policy was further greatly enlarged by the subsequent declaration to give a fee patent to, or release from United States control in other ways, every allottee (21 years of age and competent) who had at least one-half white blood. Under these broader policies, the total number of Indians released from Government supervision has reached nearly 21,000, Oklahoma sharing a large percentage. In the years prior to 1913 somewhat over 6,000 fee patents had been issued, and from that year to the date of the new policy about 3,542 fee patents were issued, approximately 9,500. It will be seen that under this liberal procedure many more Indians have been released from Government control since 1917 than were released in all prior years."—*United States report of the commissioner of Indian affairs to the*

*secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920, pp. 38-40.*

1920.—*Troubles in New Mexico.*—"One of the troublesome matters of long standing has been the disputes between the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and the encroaching whites and Mexican squatters who have located on Indian lands and claim title or the right to remain thereon. . . . These Indians have lost considerable through the encroachments of the white settlers and adverse decisions of the courts. Notwithstanding the appointment of special attorneys for these Indians, but little seems to have been accomplished in removing the transgressors and quieting the titles to their lands. During the past [1919] year a plan was formulated whereby the Department of Justice will cooperate to remove the squatters and quiet title in the Indians. A number of suits have recently been filed, not only for the purpose indicated, but to settle the rights of the Indians to the use of water from irrigation ditches constructed by them years ago and which the whites have appropriated. In addition to the foregoing steps for the relief of these Indians a draft of legislation has been prepared for submission to the Congress which, in effect, would, if enacted, place the affairs of the Indians of the State of New Mexico under more direct governmental supervision and prevent further alienation of their lands."—*United States report of the commissioner of Indian affairs to the secretary of the interior, June 30, 1920, pp. 54-55.*

1922.—*Bursum Bill.*—"An event of historic importance in the long history of the relations of the United States with the Red Indians took place . . . in New Mexico . . . Nov. 5 [1922], when 120 delegates from the 20 pueblos met in solemn council to protest against the injustice of the Bursum Indian Bill. . . . Briefly, the situation is this: The Pueblo Indians of New Mexico hold patented land grants, bestowed upon them by the Spanish crown, confirmed subsequently by the Republic of Mexico, and by the American government for the most part by act of Congress in 1858. These original grants in most instances were approximately 17,000 acres including irrigable, non-irrigable, and grazing lands. Conflicting with these patented Indian grants are certain valid Spanish and Mexican grants, made by Spanish and Mexican governors and officials; squatter occupations made prior to 1848 under the Mexican and Spanish governments, and subsequent occupations based upon Indian deeds or alleged Indian deeds. In addition to these there are the more recent encroachments upon Indian lands of squatters who are without any title whatsoever. So far as the law is concerned, the Indians are left without legal redress by the terms of the bill; they are simply deprived (should the bill pass the House) of all the acres of land now in the possession of non-Indian claimants, and of all water rights in excess of present usage on irrigated and cultivated fields, with no possibility of recovering water rights which have been seized and held by non-Indian settlers during the last four years."—*Bursum Bill (Christian Science Monitor, Nov. 29, 1922, p. 9).*—In New Mexico it is considered necessary for a white man to possess at least twelve acres in order to make a living. Already many of the Indians have been crowded back until they have but one acre per capita, and the rest have not more than two and a half.

1923.—*Report of Department of the Interior.*—A tabulation completed Mar. 19, 1923, by the Department of the Interior gives the number of distinct Indian tribes or remnants of Indian tribes in the United States at 371, with a total Indian population of 340,917. The report shows that

50,000 Indians are engaged in farming and in raising crops for their own support, while 50,000 Indian families have abandoned their teepees and live in houses. The government is educating 59,500 Indians: 19,000 children go to boarding schools, 5,500 to day schools, and 35,000 to the public schools. In addition, 6,420 Indian children are enrolled in mission schools at the various reservations. There are also 78 hospitals and sanitoriums maintained for the Indians.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *Native races of the Pacific states*.—A. H. Keane, *Man, past and present*.—D. G. Brinton, *American race*.—Idem, *Library of aboriginal American literature*.—M. Dobrzhoffer, *Account of the Abipones*.—E. F. Im Thurn, *Among the Indians of Guiana*.—G. Catlin, *North American Indians*.—A. F. Chamberlain, *Linguistic stocks of South American Indians (American Anthropologist, Apr., 1913)*.—K. von der Steinen, *Unter den Naturvölkern Zentral-Brasiliens*.—L. Cope, *Calendars of the Indians north of Mexico (Pamphlet, 1919)*.—E. Huntington, *Red man's continent (Chronicles of America Series, 1919)*.—W. E. Safford, *Narcotic plants and stimulants of the ancient Americans*.—P. Gottfredson, *History of Indian depredations in Utah*.—C. A. Eastman, *Indian heroes and great chieftains*.—C. R. Enock, *Secret of the Pacific*.—A. C. Parker, *Senecas in the War of 1812 (Proceedings of the New York State Historical Association, 1916, p. 78)*.—A. H. Ahel, *American Indian as slaveholder and secessionist*.—I. C. Beaulieu, *Tributes to a vanishing race*.—F. Boas, R. B. Dixon, and others, *Anthropology in North America*.—G. Bruhl, *Culturvölker Amerikas*.—D. Charnay, *Ancient cities of the New World*.—J. Deniker, *Races of man*.—W. H. Holmes, *Handbook of the Indians north of Mexico*.—A. B. Hulbert, *Historic highways of America*.—Marquis de Nadaillac, *L'Amérique préhistorique*.—E. J. Payne, *History of the new world called America. —Journal of American Ethnology and Archaeology*.—E. Barce, *Land of the Miamis*.—G. B. Grinnell, *Pawnee stories and folk-tales*.—A. Muckleroy, *Indian policy of the republic of Texas, II (South-western Historical Quarterly, Oct., 1922)*.

**INDICTIONS.**—The indiction "was a cycle of 15 years, used . . . by the Romans, for appointing the times of certain public taxes; as appears from the title in the Code, 'De tributo indicto.' It was established by Constantine, A.D. 312, in the room of the heathen Olympiads; and was used in the acts of the General Councils, Emperors, and Popes."—W. Hales, *New analysis of chronology, v. 1, bk. 1*.—"The indictions . . . are separately reckoned as indiction 1, indiction 2, &c., up to 15; when they recommence with indiction 1. . . . Doubt exists as to the commencement of the indictions; some writers assigning the first indiction to the year 312; the greater number to the year 313; others to 314; whilst some place it in the year 315. In 'L'Art de vérifier les Dates,' the year 313 is fixed upon as that of the first indiction. There are four descriptions of indictions. The first is that of Constantinople, which was instituted by Constantine in A.D. 312, [?] and began on the 1st of September. The second, and more common in England and France, was the Imperial or Cæsarean indiction, which began on the 24th of September. The third kind of indiction is called the Roman or Pontifical, from its being generally used in papal bulls, at least from the ninth to the fourteenth century; it commences on the 25th of December or 1st of January, accordingly as either of these days was considered the first of the year. The fourth kind of indiction, which is to be found in the register of the parliaments of Paris, began

in the month of October. . . . After the 12th century, the indiction was rarely mentioned in public instruments. . . . But in France, in private charters, and in ecclesiastical documents, the usage continued until the end of the 15th century."—H. Nicolas, *Chronology of history, pp. 6-7*.—See also **CHRONOLOGY: Medieval cycle**.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 17*.

**INDICTMENT:** In American law. See **COURTS: United States: State courts**.

**INDIFFERENTISM,** one of the ten heads under which are listed the eighty propositions held erroneous by Pope Pius IX. See **PAPACY: 1864**.

**INDIGENT POOR.** See **CHARITIES**.

**INDIGO.** See **CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Dyes: Synthesis of natural color**.

**INDIRECT TAX.** See **TAXATION: Direct and indirect taxes**.

**INDIVIDUALISM.**—This philosophy "recognizes without stint the full, free, and equal right of every citizen to the unimpeded use of all his energies, activities, and faculties, provided only he does not thereby encroach upon the equal and correlative right of every other citizen."—G. Allen, *Individualism and socialism*.—This "philosophy [is] similar to that of the anarchists in that both start from the same premise that individual rights and freedom of action is the important thing. The two . . . [philosophies], however, part company in respect to their attitude towards the legitimacy of the State. The anarchist denies that the State has any right to be and that the individual is, therefore, justified in opposing it as an unwarrantable interference with his rights. [See also **ANARCHISM: 1839-1894**.] The individualist holds that this might be true if men were perfect and always acted with justice in their relations with each other. Inasmuch, however, as men are not perfect, they hold that some exterior control is essential. They thus justify government as a necessary evil. In doing so they logically hold that this evil should be reduced to the lowest possible term. They hold thus to the principle that that government is the best that governs the least. . . . In applying this philosophy individualists have sought to draw a distinction between what they term the essential and the non-essential functions of government. Admitting that some government is necessary, but looking upon that government almost as an evil, they have sought to determine, largely by *a priori* reasoning, those functions which modern conditions render essential that governments should perform. These they term the essential functions of government: all other functions actually performed by government are non-essential, and, in their opinion, should be reduced to the lowest possible term, if not wholly eliminated. The chief of these so-called essential functions are: the enactment and enforcement of law, the administration of justice, the maintenance of order, the protection of life and property and the safeguarding of the community from foreign aggression. The essential functions of government, in a word, are those of the law giver and administrator, the policeman and the soldier. These functions they hold all governments should perform. All other functions they hold to be not only non-essential, but ones which the government should not attempt to perform. . . . [This doctrine] dominated political thought during the latter part of the eighteenth and the first part of the nineteenth centuries [in England and America], and exerted a profound influence upon governmental action. It counted Herbert Spencer among its most distinguished adherents. In his 'Coming

Slavery,' 'Social Diseases and Worse Remedies,' and other writings, Spencer vigorously combated the idea that the government should interfere in any way for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. To him and his followers all legislative and governmental action having for its purpose the determination of labor conditions in factories and mines, with a view to the prevention of the monstrous abuses that were crushing out the lives of little children and reducing labor in general to the condition of mere brutes, were fundamentally wrong in principle. To them these laws represented an unjustifiable interference with individual liberty. The same was true of laws having for their purpose the protection of the public health and indeed all efforts to improve living conditions through governmental action. This attitude towards government was but one phase of the general emphasis that was laid at that time upon the idea of natural law, the idea that human conduct was subject to a so-called natural law, and that, as far as possible, human conduct should be left to the uncontrolled working of this law. In the biological field it found its expression in the principles of evolution, that progress is achieved through the slow workings of natural law of selection, . . . through the life and death struggle of individuals, the selection of the fit and the elimination of the unfit through this process. In the economic field it furnished the basis for the great school of 'laissez faire,' or the Manchester school, as it was known in Great Britain, that led to the opinion that industrial conditions, the ownership of property and economic conditions generally, should be determined by the free play of economic forces; that competition, the working of the natural law of supply and demand should be the factors regulating economic life; that it was a mistake for the government to interfere in any way with the free working of these natural laws. It was this philosophy that furnished the strongest argument for the establishment of free trade, the destruction of trade monopolies, and other restrictions hampering the free development of commerce and industry."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government of modern states*, pp. 171-174.—See also COLLECTIVISM; ECONOMICS: 20th century; EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries; Scholasticism.

**INDO-ARYANS.** See INDIA: People.

**INDO-CHINA.**—Indo-China is a French possession in Asia, consisting of the colony of Cochin-China, the protectorates of Cambodia, Annam, Tonkin and Laos; Kwang-Chau-Wan, leased from Chian, and Battambang, ceded by Siam in 1907. It is bounded by China on the north; by the Gulf of Tongking and the China sea on the east and south; by Burma on the northwest; and by the Gulf of Siam on the southwest. (See ASIA: Map.) The total area is about 310,344 square miles, and the population in 1914 was about 16,000,229. The chief exports are rice, fish, pepper, hides, coal, cotton, rubber and sugar, while the principal imports are tin, cotton tissues and cotton thread.

**Geography.** — **Primitive races.** — **Territorial government.**—"Before the arrival of the French, Cochin-China comprised the whole of the coast lands from Tonkin nearly to the foot of the Pursat hills in South Camboja. . . . From the remotest times China claimed, and intermittently exercised, suzerain authority over Annam, whose energies have for ages been wasted partly in vain efforts to resist this claim, partly in still more disastrous warfare between the two rival states."—A. H. Keane, *Eastern geography*, pp. 99, 103.—

The "term Annam (properly An-nan) appears to be a modified form of Ngannan, that is, 'Southern Peace,' first applied to the frontier river between China and Tonkin, and afterwards extended not only to Tonkin, but to the whole region south of that river after its conquest and pacification by China in the third century of the new era. Hence its convenient application to the same region since the union of Tonkin and Cochin-China under one dynasty and since the transfer of the administration to France in 1883 is but a survival of the Chinese usage, and fully justified on historic grounds. [See also ANNAM.] Tonkin (Tongking, Tungking), that is, 'Eastern Capital,' a term originally applied to Ha-noi when that city was the royal residence, has . . . been extended to the whole of the northern kingdom, whose true historic name is Yüeh-nan. Under the native rulers Tonkin was divided into provinces and subdivisions bearing Chinese names, and corresponding to the administrative divisions of the Chinese empire. . . . Since its conquest by Cochin-China the country has been administered in much the same way as the southern kingdom. From this State Tonkin is separated partly by a spur of the coast range projecting seawards, partly by a wall built in the sixteenth century and running in the same direction. After the erection of this artificial barrier, which lies about 18° N. lat., between Hatinh and Dong-koi, the northern and southern kingdoms came to be respectively distinguished by the titles of Dang-ngoai and Dang-trong, that is, 'Outer' and 'Inner Route.' The term Cochin-China, by which the Inner Route is best known, has no more to do with China than it has with the Indian city of Cochin. It appears to be a modified form of Kwe-Chen-Ching, that is, the 'Kingdom of Chen-Ching,' the name by which this region was first known in the 9th century of the new era, from its capital Chen-Ching. Another although less probable derivation is from the Chinese Co-Chen-Ching, meaning 'Old Champa,' a reminiscence of the time when the Cham (Tsiam) nation was the most powerful in the peninsula."—*Ibid.*, pp. 98-99.—"In the south-eastern extremity of Cochin-China, and in Camboja, still survive the scattered fragments of the historical Tsiam (Cham, Khiam) race, who appear to have been at one time the most powerful nation in Farther India. According to Gagelin, they ruled over the whole region between the Menam and the Gulf of Tongking. . . . Like the Tsiams, the Cambojans, or Khmers, are a race sprung from illustrious ancestry, but . . . [by 1881 they were] reduced to about 1,500,000, partly in the south-eastern provinces of Siam, partly forming a petty state under French protection, which is limited east and west by the Mekong and Gulf of Siam, north and south by the Great Lake and French Cochin-China. During the period of its prosperity the Cambojan empire overshadowed a great part of Indo-China, and maintained regular intercourse with Cisgangetic India on the one hand, and on the other with the Island of Java. The centre of its power lay on the northern shores of the Great Lake, where the names of its great cities, the architecture and sculptures of its ruined temples, attest the successive influences of Brahmanism and Buddhism on the local culture. . . . The term Camboja itself (Kampushea, Kamp'osha) has by some writers been wrongly identified with the Camboja of Sanskrit geography. It simply means the 'land of the Kammen,' or 'Khmer.' . . . On the eastern slopes, and in the lower Mekong basin, the dominant race are the Giao-shi (Giao-kii) or Annamese, who are of doubtful origin, but resemble the Chinese more

than any other people of Farther India. Affiliated by some to the Malays, by others to the Chinese, Otto Kanze regards them as akin to the Japanese. According to the local traditions and records they have gradually spread along the coast from Tongking southwards to the extremity of the Peninsula. After driving the Tsians into the interior, they penetrated about 1650 to the Lower Mekong, which region formerly belonged to Camboja, but is now properly called French Cochinchina. Here the Annamese, having driven out or exterminated most of the Cambojans, have long formed the great majority of the population.—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Asia, v. 3, ch. 22.*—"The half-civilized races who inhabit the mountains and uplands of Indo-China are known by different names among their neighbours. The Birmans call them 'Karens,' the Laotians, 'Kha,' the Cambodians, 'Stieng,' or 'Pnong,' the Annamites, 'Man,' or 'Moï.' 'Moï,' which can be translated by 'savage,' is perhaps the most convenient label for the whole complex of these primitive folk. . . . They are to be found scattered between the eleventh and the twentieth degrees of latitude, from the frontiers of China to the boundaries of Cambodia and Cochinchina."—H. Baudesson, *Indo-China and its primitive people, pp. 3-4.*—"Tonkin and Cochinchina, the deltas of the Red River and of the Mekong, . . . were united in the first years of the [nineteenth] century under the rule of the Emperor Gia Long, and are inhabited chiefly by Annamites. Their social order is the same, and it has been little disturbed by the partition of the empire since the coming of the French. It is essentially democratic, with self-governing communes as its basis. This Annamite commune is important, because it is the unit of administration and the responsible agent of the government for the collection of taxes, the raising of troops, and the execution of the law. It offers the unvarying framework of society for each advance of the population into unoccupied districts. Its honors and duties belong to the notables, who are inscribed on the tax rolls. The higher notables form the communal council, and elect one of their number mayor. As soon as their choice is accepted by the government the mayor represents the commune in all questions raised by the central administration; he carries out the laws, is chief of police, and guardian of the tax rolls. Cambodia also belongs to Indo-China, and lies on the Mekong, above Cochinchina. It is the feeble remainder of an ancient kingdom, and yet its people affect to despise the encroaching Annamites, claiming their own origin in an earlier, perhaps an Aryan, emigration. Their social organization also differs from that of Annam. When the French protectorate began they did not have the commune. Instead of a lettered aristocracy reaching the higher official positions nominally through severe competitive examinations, they had a semifeudal nobility. And administrative affairs were centralized instead of being left to local authorities. The problem of government which the French must solve in all this region has been determined quite as much by the way they came into their power as by the structure of the society they found."—H. E. Bourne, *French colonial experiment (Yale Review, May, 1899).*

**B.C. 218-A.D. 1886.—Native rule.—French penetration and conquest.**—"Almost the first distinctly historic event was the reduction of Lu-liang, as Tonkin was then called, by the Chinese in 218 B.C., when the country was divided into prefectures, and a civil and military organization established on the Chinese model. . . . Early in

the ninth century of the new era the term Kwe-Chen-Ching (Cochin-China) began to be applied to the southern, which had already asserted its independence of the northern, kingdom. In 1428 the two States freed themselves temporarily from the Chinese protectorate, and 200 years later the Annamese reduced all that remained of the Champa territory, driving the natives to the uplands, and settling in the plains. This conquest was followed about 1750 by that of the southern or maritime provinces of Camboja since known as Lower (now French) Cochinchina. In 1775 the King of Cochinchina, who had usurped the throne in 1774, reduced Tonkin, and was acknowledged sovereign of Annam by the Chinese emperor. But in 1798 Gia-long, son of the deposed monarch, recovers the throne with the aid of some French auxiliaries, and in 1802 reconstitutes the Annamese empire under the Cochinchinese sceptre. From this time the relations with France become more frequent. . . . After his death in 1820 the anti-European national party acquires the ascendancy, the French officers are dismissed, and the Roman Catholic religion, which had made rapid progress during the reign of Gia-long, is subjected to cruel and systematic persecution. Notwithstanding the protests and occasional intervention of France, this policy is persevered in, until the execution of Bishop Diaz in 1857 by order of Tu-Duc, third in succession from Gia-long, calls for more active interference. Admiral Rigault de Genouilly captures Tourane in 1858, followed next year by the rout of the Annamese army at the same place, and the occupation of the forts at the entrance of the Donnai and of Gia-diñh (Saigon), capital of Lower Cochinchina. This virtually established French supremacy, which was sealed by the treaty of 1862, ceding the three best, and that of 1867 the three remaining, provinces of Lower Cochinchina. It was further strengthened and extended by the treaty of 1863, securing the protectorate of Camboja and the important strategical position of 'Quatre-Bras' on the Mekong. Then came the scientific expedition of Mekhong (1866-1868), which dissipated the hopes entertained of that river giving access to the trade of Southern China. Attention was accordingly now attracted to the Song-koi basin, and the establishment of French interests in Tonkin secured by the treaties of peace and commerce concluded with the Annamese Government in 1874. This prepared the way for the recent diplomatic complications with Annam and China, followed by the military operations in Cochinchina and Tonkin [see FRANCE: 1875-1889], which led up to the treaties of 1883 and 1884, extending the French protectorate to the whole of Annam, and forbidding the Annamese Government all diplomatic relations with foreign powers, China included, except through the intermediary of France. Lastly, the appointment in 1886 of a French Resident General, with full administrative powers, effaced the last vestige of national autonomy, and virtually reduced the ancient kingdoms of Tonkin and Cochinchina to the position of an outlying French possession."—A. H. Keane, *Eastern geography, pp. 103-104.*

**1787-1891.—French attempts to assume control.—Conflict with native rulers.—Increasing control of native government by French.**—"Three times they [the French] were prevented by a crisis in Europe from establishing themselves [in Indo-China]. In 1787 a treaty was actually signed at Versailles, with the son of Gia Long, which offered the port of Tourane in full property for assistance in driving from the throne a successful usurper. Pigneaux de Béhaine, a missionary

bishop, who negotiated the arrangement, hoped it would lead to the restoration of French prestige in the East, compromised by the disasters in India. In a memorandum which he addressed to the ministry, he argued that such a possession would enable France to gain so large a share of the China trade that the profits of the English would be greatly diminished, and that 'from this as a base it would be easy to prevent them from extending their empire to the East.' The failure of the governor of Pondicherry [centre of French authority in India] to further the plans of the ministry injured the success of the scheme, and finally the Revolution made such distant action impossible. Again in March, 1847, two ships arrived at Tourane, sent by Louis Philippe, to top the persecution of the missionaries, and to demand guarantees for the security of other Frenchmen. An outbreak followed, and the French destroyed the native fleet. But the fall of the Orleanist monarchy early the next year gave no time to take advantage of this incident. Once more in 1858-9, when the expedition under Rigault de Genouilly had seized Tourane and Saigon, Napoleon's Italian campaign intervened, and Tourane was abandoned, though Saigon was successfully defended against heavy attacks. . . . [The] treaty . . . made at Hué, June 6, 1884, . . . with some modifications, has formed the basis of French power in Tonkin-Annam ever since. The negotiators of the treaty were greatly influenced by the notion that Annamite misgovernment in Tonkin had made the name of Annam so hated that it was feasible to bring Tonkin almost directly under French rule. And so the connection with the court of the emperor was practically severed, and the native provincial authorities placed under the control of French residents and assistant-residents. The protectorate in its older form still continued in Annam, except that the customs service passed into the hands of the French, and a French resident-general was permitted to live, with his escort, within the citadel at Hué. But even these radical measures did not bring peace to Tonkin, and until peace returned nothing could be done to develop the country's resources. In fact not even any roads were built, except in the outskirts of the towns, and these chiefly to furnish an exercise ground for the officials. Until 1891 the military expenses were the principal item in the account. In 1887 they amounted to fifty million francs out of a total of sixty-two; in 1889 they were thirty-seven million out of forty-nine; and in 1891, twenty-two out of thirty-nine. So bad was the state of affairs that when Governor-General Lanessan visited Hanoi in 1891 he could see from his windows smoke rising from burning villages just across the Red River. Nor was the condition of Cambodia much better. For many years after the treaty of 1863, the protectorate had remained merely nominal. If the terms of the treaty were closely adhered to the French resident could not legally interfere in the internal administration of the country. And the men who successively occupied the position failed to gain ascendancy enough in the court of King Norodom to compensate for the legal weakness of their situation. . . . When the resident, to strengthen his position, tried to take a seat in the council of ministers, the king resisted stubbornly, but all the while he was covertly using the guarantee his throne received from the protectorate to render himself absolute. His court became more luxurious, and since his revenue did not increase, his officers, the mandarins, were not paid, and were forced to pillage the people. Roads and bridges, no longer repaired, soon almost disappeared. From this desperate situation M. Thomson, the governor

of Cochin-China, attempted to rescue the country by the treaty of June 17, 1884, negotiated under the guns of French ships. The remedy was too drastic; it attempted to revolutionize Cambodian society from top to bottom. Furthermore it was justly believed to be an ill-concealed device for annexing Cambodia to Cochin-China, dictated by officials eager to extend their jurisdiction. It is not astonishing that Cambodia, from king to peasant, was profoundly stirred by such an attack upon traditional privileges and national susceptibilities. Insurgent bands appeared everywhere. The peaceful inhabitants, impartially afraid of the French, fled to the forests. In less than two years the country looked like a desert. Finally the resident was authorized to inform King Norodom that the treaty might be considered a dead letter, though it was not to be abrogated. Possibly the resistance of the Cambodians would not have been so obstinate had not the French government by its hesitancy showed that it was not sure of its policy. Though the treaty was made in the spring of 1884, the law approving it was not passed until July 17, 1885, and the decree providing for its promulgation was not issued until January 9, 1886. Furthermore, it was only in 1891, when Lanessan came out as governor-general, that the treaty was thoroughly put in force."—H. E. Bourne, *French colonial experiment* (Yale Review, May, 1899).

1893-1921.—Cost of French administration.—Stagnant state of colony before 1895.—Reform.—Prosperity.—“At first there appeared to exist no reasonable ground for any hope that France was destined to be more successful in Indo-China than she had been elsewhere. Frenchmen showed no desire to emigrate to the Colony or to invest their capital in its industries. Such interest in its affairs as found expression from time to time in the French Press rested almost entirely upon political considerations; and the French people at large were too much occupied with the dazzling prospect of extending French influence in Africa to spare a moment's thought for the unexciting task of developing the resources of territory already under their flag in Asia. In the early nineties the actual state of French Indo-China was sufficiently discouraging. During the eight years 1887-95 France had been called upon to cover deficits in the Local Budgets to the extent of forty millions of francs—an amount which brought the total cost of the Colony to the mother country in the thirty-five years which had elapsed since Admiral Rigault de Genouilly destroyed the forts of Saigon to the enormous sum of 750 millions of francs, roughly to £30,000,000. In 1896 it became necessary to raise an Indo-Chinese loan of eighty millions of francs in order to discharge pressing obligations and to meet the cost of important public works of which the Colony stood in urgent need. In the domain of administration the conditions were most unsatisfactory. Very few of the French officials possessed a competent knowledge of the native languages; the Civil Service was recruited largely under a system of direct transference from the Home Service and by the temporary appointment of military and naval officers, with the result that many important posts were filled by men who not only had no special familiarity with the people and the institutions of Indo-China, but were completely ignorant of the general principles of colonial government. The few men who were really competent to formulate the policy and to direct the administration of the local Government were frequently passed over by the Colonial Office in order that places might be found for the relatives and friends of persons having strong political influence in Paris. Perhaps the



most significant symptom of the mismanagement of the Colony's affairs was that the people had lost confidence in the administration of justice and had practically ceased carrying up important civil disputes for settlement by the Courts. In the year 1893 Tonkin, in which civil government had been in operation for seven years, was still in a state of disorder and was patrolled by military columns; in Annam and in Cambodia the French Protectorate was merely nominal, and no French administration existed; Laos had just been acquired; and Cochin-China, the only Province in which there was any effective civil establishment, was beginning to agitate for separation from the Colony. To complete this sketch of French Indo-China as it was in 1893 (and I may mention that my facts are taken exclusively from French sources) it is only necessary to add that a stagnant local trade was almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, and that, of the external commerce of the Colony, the share of France was less than one fifth. . . . The administrative reforms effected since 1895 . . . have the chief claim on our attention, for they represent, both in regard to their operation and the manner in which they were introduced, a new and highly significant element in the colonial expansion of France. In December, 1896, M. Paul Doumer was appointed Governor-General of Indo-China. He found the office one of comparative insignificance; he left it five years later one of the most important and active posts within the gift of the French Government. Shortly after his arrival in the Colony he formulated a programme of reforms, of which the principal items were: 1. The improvement of the financial situation of Indo-China, and the creation of a financial policy suited to the country and its needs. 2. The pacification of Tonkin. 3. The organization of a Government-General. 4. The completion and the reform of the administrations of the Protectorates. 5. The extension of the influence of France and the development of its interests in the Far East, particularly in the countries adjoining the Colony—that is, in Siam and China."—A. Ireland, *Far Eastern tropics*, pp. 146-151.—"It is not enough to say that French Indo-China is to-day one of the most important Colonies of France, that it has attained a degree of prosperity which the most ordinary prudence in the direction of its affairs should suffice to increase from year to year; in order to do justice to the remarkable progress which has been made in the past decade, emphasis must be laid on the fact that there is no record of any Colony whose whole character has been so completely changed in so short a time. The commercial changes, though interesting in themselves, are the least important of those which have taken place, and they may be briefly dismissed. The value of the total exterior commerce of the Colony increased from 162 millions of francs in 1893 to 400 millions in 1902. Of these sums, the share of France increased from 30 millions, or less than one fifth, to 148 millions, or more than one third. It is true that a certain proportion of these increases may be attributed to the importation from France on Government account of large quantities of material for Public Works; but, on the other hand, the exports of the Colony doubled in value in the ten years under review, and the value of the exports to France increased very nearly fourfold. In the same period the value of the coasting trade rose from 54 millions of francs to 156 millions."—*Ibid.*, pp. 140-150.—Imports in 1920 were £21,940,000, exports, £23,620,000. In 1921 there were 1,265 miles of railways, two thirds being owned by the government.

See also SIAM.

ALSO IN: *Journal officiel de l'Indo-Chine française*.—J. L. de Lanessan, *L'Indo-Chine française*.—C. Lemire, *Les cinq pays de l'Indo-Chine française, l'établissement de Kouang-Tchéou, le Siam*.—F. F. duc de Montpensier, *Nôtre France d'extrême-orient*.—H. Russier and H. Brenier, *L'Indochine française*.

INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE AND RACE. See ARVANS; PHILOLOGY: 9; 10; 21.

INDOMITABLE, British battle-cruiser. It was in action off Dogger Bank in the North sea, January 24, 1915.

INDONESIA, name for the Malay peninsula. See PACIFIC OCEAN: B.C. 2500-A.D. 1500.

INDONESIAN, term used in ethnology to designate certain peoples of the East Indies and Polynesia, who are Caucasian in type. This includes certain tribes of Borneo, Java, Sumatra, the Philippines and the Malay peninsula. See MALAY, MALAYSIAN, OR BROWN RACE; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: People.

Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Oceanic: Indonesian.

INDULGENCE, Declarations of. See ENGLAND: 1672-1673; 1687-1688.

INDULGENCES. See PAPACY: 1516-1517.

Tetzel's sale. See PAPACY: 1517; Tetzel and the hawking of indulgences.

Luther's attack. See GERMANY: 1517-1523.

Sale in Switzerland. See PAPACY: 1519-1524.

INDUS, river in northwestern India, stretching from the Kailas peaks to the India ocean. It first became known to Europeans through the conquests of Alexander. In recent years immense irrigation projects have been undertaken by the British government. See INDIA: Map; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1876-1913.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT INSURANCE. See SOCIAL INSURANCE.

INDUSTRIAL ARBITRATION. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL; NEW ZEALAND: 1890-1909; U.S.A.: 1898 (June).

INDUSTRIAL ART SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: England, Ireland, Scotland.

INDUSTRIAL BLACKLIST. See BLACKLIST: Industrial.

INDUSTRIAL BOARD, National: United States. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1919-1920.

INDUSTRIAL CODE, Germany (1869). See DEMOCRACY: Tendencies of the 19th century; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1848-1918.

INDUSTRIAL COMBINATIONS, Capitalistic and Labor. See TRUSTS; LABOR ORGANIZATION; LABOR PARTIES; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS.

INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION: United States (1896-1902). See RAILROADS: 1890-1902; U.S.A.: 1898 (June).

New York. See NEW YORK: 1915.

INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCES: United States. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1919-1920.

INDUSTRIAL COUNCILS. See WHITLEY COUNCILS: Organization and method.

INDUSTRIAL COURTS: Germany. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Germany: 1890-1908.

Great Britain. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Great Britain: 1889-1920.

New Zealand. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: New Zealand: 1892-1913.

United States. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1920-1921: Kansas court; KANSAS: 1917-1923.

**INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT (1907).** See **ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL:** Canada: 1900-1918.

**INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION:** Australia. See **EDUCATION:** Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Australia.

England. See **EDUCATION:** Modern: 19th century: England: Mechanics' institutes.

United States. See **EDUCATION:** Modern: 19th century: United States: Industrial education; Secondary education.

See also **EDUCATION:** Modern: 19th century: Fellenberg, etc.; Modern developments: 20th century: Vocational education: Industrial education in the United States; Y.M.C.A.: 1868-1910.

**INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE.** See **INSURANCE:** Industrial insurance.

**INDUSTRIAL PLAN.** See **COLORADO:** 1915.

**INDUSTRIAL RECONSTRUCTION.** See **WORLD WAR:** Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: a, 1.

**INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.**—The commission was created by act of Congress, August 23, 1912. It consisted of three employers, three representatives of labor, and three representing the general public, all of whom were appointed by President Wilson. "The term of the commission . . . [was] three years and at least one report . . . [had to] be made to Congress within the first year, one within the second year, and a final report not later than three years after the approval of the act. The Department of Commerce and Labor . . . [was] authorized to cooperate with the commission in any manner and to whatever extent the Secretary of Commerce and Labor . . . [might] approve. Its duties [were defined by section four of the act] as follows: 'The commission shall inquire into the general condition of labor in the principal industries of the United States including agriculture, and especially in those which are carried on in corporate forms; into existing relations between employers and employees; into the effect of industrial conditions on public welfare and into the rights and powers of the community to deal therewith; into the conditions of sanitation and safety of employees and the provisions for protecting the life, limb, and health of the employees; into the growth of associations of employers and of wage-earners and the effect of such associations upon the relations between employers and employees; into the extent and results of methods of collective bargaining; into any methods which have been tried in any state or in foreign countries for maintaining mutually satisfactory relations between employees and employers; into methods for avoiding or adjusting labor disputes through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations; into the scope, methods, and resources of existing bureaus of labor and into possible ways of increasing their usefulness; into the question of smuggling or other illegal entry of Asiatics into the United States or its insular possessions, and of the methods by which such Asiatics have gained and are gaining such admission, and shall report to Congress as speedily as possible with such recommendations as said commission may think proper to prevent such smuggling and illegal entry. The commission shall seek to discover the underlying causes of dissatisfaction in the industrial situation and report its conclusions thereon.'—*Commission on industrial relations (American Labor Legislation Review, Oct., 1912).*—The members of the commission were appointed June 26, 1913. "The chairman was Frank P. Walsh. . . . Representing the pub-

lic, besides Mr. Walsh, were Professor John R. Commons, . . . and Florence J. Harriman. The labor men were John B. Lennon, . . . Austin B. Garretson, . . . and James O'Connell. . . . The three labor men were recognized as of the conservative wing of the labor movement, the radicals not being represented at all. The members representing manufacturers were Harris Weinstock, . . . S. Thurston Ballard, . . . and Richard H. Aishton. . . . The methods used by the Commission were numerous. They held hearings in all parts of the country, and heard men and women on all sides of every question that came up for public discussion. For instance, at the time of the outbreak of the Bayonne strike, the Commission sent two investigators to the scene of the trouble, who took testimony from all sides. In Texas, testimony was taken on the condition of the farmers; in other parts of the south, child labor was investigated. In Colorado the situation that led to Ludlow was gone into thoroughly, and . . . John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was quizzed in Washington and New York. The matter of the great 'foundations' was investigated; in New York, the leaders of the Socialist Party, the I. W. W., and the American Federation of Labor were asked their opinions of their various methods of solving the social problem. The debate between Morris Hillquit and Samuel Gompers was one of the high spots of the investigation. The Commission submitted three reports. The main report was written by Director of Investigations, Basil M. Manly, and was signed by Commissioners Walsh, Lennon, O'Connell and Garretson; in addition to the report, there were supplemental statements by Walsh, by Garretson, and a third, signed by Lennon and O'Connell. The minority report of Commons and Mrs. Harriman, was signed by Weinstock, Ballard and Aishton. There were dissenting opinions on various of the points by Weinstock, Aishton and Ballard."—*American Labor Year Book, 1916, p. 270.*

These reports may be summed up as follows: "The wealth of the United States, the Commission found, increased in the years 1890 to 1912, from 65 to 187 billions, or 188 per cent. This increase was not generally spread over the whole of the population but was localized within the capitalist class. The aggregate income of the workers in manufacturing, mining and transportation increased in the years 1880-1909 95 per cent, or from 2,516 millions to 4,916 millions. The increase in population must be taken into account. The incomes of two thirds of the families of the American working class were less than \$750 a year; the incomes of nearly one third of the families were under \$500 annually. These figures are based upon what Manly calls 'the most exhaustive investigation ever made.' The report decided that the least figure upon which an American family can live in anything approaching decency is \$700 per year. . . . The summary of the distribution of wealth in the country is as follows: (1) One third of the adult male workers earn less than \$10 per week; between two thirds and three fourths earn less than \$15, and only about one tenth earn \$20 per week or more. (2) One half of the women workers earn less than \$6 per week. (3) There are forty four families with annual incomes of \$1,000,000 or more. (4) The rich 2 per cent of the people own 60 per cent of the national wealth. (5) The middle class, 33 per cent of the people, own 35%. (6) The poor 65 per cent of the population own 5% of the national wealth. The unit of the family is breaking up, the investigators found; 79 per cent of

the fathers of working class families earned less than \$700 per year. 'In brief, only one fourth of these families could have supported their families on the barest subsistence level without the earnings of other members of the family, or income from outside sources.' Thirty per cent of the families kept boarders in order to eke out their incomes. In 77 per cent of the families two or more persons occupied each a sleeping room; in 37 per cent, three or more; and in 15 per cent, four or more. The condition of children, if taken as an index of the welfare of the people, shows an alarming situation. Children whose fathers earn less than \$10 per week, died during the first year at the rate of 256 per thousand. Those whose fathers earned \$25 or more per week died at the rate of only 84 per thousand. Thus, children of the very poor die at three times the rate as compared to that of the children of the moderately well off. In six of the largest cities of the country, from 12 to 20 per cent of the children are noticeably underfed and ill nourished. In four industrial towns studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, more than 75 per cent of the children quit school before reaching the seventh grade. In the families of the working class, '37 per cent of the mothers are at work and consequently unable to give the children more than scant attention. Of these mothers, 30 per cent keep boarders and 7 per cent work outside the home.' In agriculture, the situation is similar. In 1910, 37 per cent of the farms in the country were tenant operated, an increase of 32 per cent in 20 years. The conditions of the tenant farmers are considered hopeless. They have no future before them. They are badly nourished, uneducated, and exploited. The causes of industrial unrest, therefore, are summed up as follows: (1) Unjust distribution of wealth and income. (2) Unemployment and the denial of an opportunity to earn a living. (3) Denial of justice in the creation, in the adjudication and the administration of law. (4) Denial of the right to form effective organizations. . . . In the great basic industries, the workers are unemployed at least one fifth of the time, and at times there are armies of men, numbering hundreds of thousands, who are unable to find work, or who have been so beaten down by circumstances that they can no longer do efficient work. This unemployment arises from two great causes, the inequality of the distribution of income, and the denial of access to the land and tools of production except under prohibitive circumstances. Another point that causes discontent among workers is the denial of justice to the workers. 'Many witnesses, speaking for millions of workers as well as for themselves, have asserted with the greatest earnestness that the mass of workers are convinced that laws necessary for their protection against the most grievous wrongs cannot be passed except after long and exhausting struggles; that such beneficent measures as become laws are largely nullified by the unwarranted decisions of the courts; that the laws which stand upon the statute books are not equally enforced; and that the whole machinery of the Government has frequently been placed at the disposal of the employers for the oppression of the workers; that the Constitution itself has been ignored in the interest of the employers, and that constitutional guaranties erected principally for the protection of the workers have been denied to them and used as a cloak for the misdeeds of corporations.' . . . An examination of the evidence, says the report, shows that every one of the charges is fully justified. Large num-

bers of instances are given to show the correctness of this statement, with the corroboration of leading authorities. The Commission found also that the right of the workers to organize was frequently abridged, and that very often men had to sell their birthrights before being permitted to engage in any occupation. Chairman Walsh, in a supplementary report, says: 'We find the basic cause of industrial dissatisfaction to be low wages; or, stated in another way, the fact that the workers of the nation through compulsory and oppressive methods legal and illegal, are denied the full product of their toil. We further find that unrest among the workers in industry has grown to proportions that already menace the social good will and the peace of the nation. Citizens numbering millions smart under a sense of injustice and of oppression, born of the conviction that the opportunity is denied them to acquire for themselves and their families that degree of economic well being necessary for the enjoyment of those material and spiritual satisfaction which alone make life worth living.' The statement of Commissioner Garretson and the one signed by Commissioners Lennon and O'Connell are supplemental to the main report, and agree in the main with it. Mr. Walsh dissents from the Commons-Harriman report because it 'does not comply with the law creating the Commission.' That report is mainly an argument and recommendations, but it contains no findings as to social and industrial conditions. Many of the statements in the main report with regard to corporate control over politics are endorsed, and others added. But certain practices of unions, admitted and alleged, are condemned; such as violence, intimidation, graft, etc. 'We condemn the conditions found in Colorado, which show the control of corporations over labor and politics, and we find there a system that has taken hold throughout the country.' The other reports are merely supplementary and complementary to the main dissenting report.—*American Labor Year Book*, 1916, pp. 270-274.—'The chief remedies advocated in the Manly report were an inheritance tax, confiscating all fortunes in excess of \$1,000,000, exemption of land improvements from taxation, depriving the courts of the power to declare laws unconstitutional, and prosecution by the Federal Trade Commission of all cases of unfair treatment of labor. The minority report, written by Prof. John R. Commons and signed by him, by Mrs. J. Borden Harriman and in large part by the three employer members of the Commission, emphasized the necessity of working out a method for the enforcement of existing labor laws before placing new laws on the statute books. This method was said to be found in the administration of all state or Federal labor laws through industrial commissions advised by councils representing both employers and employees. A supplementary report by the three employer members of the Commission emphasized the wrongs committed by the unions. All three reports agreed in acknowledging the necessity for labor organizations.'—*American Year Book*, 1915, p. 436.

**INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION: Definition.**—Material and social phases.—'By the Industrial Revolution we mean that great transformation which has been brought about during the past one hundred and fifty years, by discoveries and inventions which have altered fundamentally all the methods of production and distribution of the means of life, and consequently revolutionised all the economic functions of society. . . . The Industrial Revolution has two

phases: one material, the other social; one concerning the making of things, the other concerning the making of men. A man's work and the conditions under which it is performed are tremendous factors in determining his character. Though the Industrial Revolution opened the way for the production of the means of life without the consumption of all human energy, man, startled and stunned by the sudden changes in the methods of working and living, was unable to organize his life so that all might share in the benefits of the new inventions. The Industrial Revolution, with its factory system, and its increased facilities for intercourse, wrought wonderful changes in the social organism. It brought with it long hours, overwork, over-crowding, and other evils. It called into existence suddenly the factory towns, with their want of corporate life, their vile sanitary conditions, and filthy hovels. Men were forced rapidly into new relations, in which the old formulæ, maxims, and moralisings became useless and void. [See also LABOR REMUNERATION: Development of wages system.] The old economic order and basis of life were swept away, and in the confusion—"the wreck of matter and crush of world"—it seemed as if man had become utterly powerless to adjust himself to the new conditions, to conquer and control them as he had the forces of Nature. For a while after this industrial convulsion, and the demolition of the old order, man seemed paralysed. Economists, moral teachers, and social leaders groped in darkness amid confusion. Man had become a machine—a producer of things, a commodity to be bought and sold. His character, his powers of love and joy and admiration, his desire for freedom from misery, pain, and wretchedness, were made secondary to the production of marketable commodities. . . . [These] bitter wrongs . . . called forth the scathing denunciations of Carlyle, Kingsley, and Ruskin."—C. Beard, *Industrial revolution*, pp. 1-3.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Industrial revolution.

ALSO IN: A. Toynbee, *Lectures on the industrial revolution*.

England: Primary causes.—Development of mechanical technique.—Commercial changes.—Influence of coal on metal and other industries.—Resultant changes in various industries.—“No single formula can adequately describe the complexity of forces and reactions that gave the movement its profound significance. There were changes in the relation between industry and agriculture, readjustments in the textile trades brought about by the rise of the cotton industry, technical developments in the metal industries which gave the whole group of metal trades a more important place in industrial society. None of these transformations were sudden: there were many reciprocal influences, so that particular inventions were at once cause and effect. The development of a mechanical technique was of the utmost importance in both textile and metal industries, but the older writers simplified unduly when they ascribed such exclusive importance to single inventions. It is well known to-day that no great mechanical achievement is the result of a single invention, though some brilliant conceptions will frequently direct endeavor so fruitfully into certain channels that we think currently in terms of the controlling patent or invention. But every great accomplishment is really the achievement of a group of inventors, and consists of a series of inventions. In the period of the Industrial Revolution mechanical achievement was relatively slower than it is to-day. The struggle

of inventors was more desperate, and relatively less fruitful in results. It is therefore peculiarly important to think in terms of protracted mechanical endeavor when studying the rise of the modern mechanical technique of the textile and metal industries. The inventive efforts of the period were stimulated by commercial changes and by the realization of the importance of mineral deposits whose significance had been well-nigh overlooked. Commercial changes were relatively more important in creating the new cotton industry: the iron and coal deposits were the direct incentive to the fundamental metallic inventions. In seeking so-called primary causes for the Industrial Revolution one may conceivably choose any one of three: the mechanical achievement; the commercial changes; or physiographic factors that were in a sense the basis of both the commercial change and the development of the mineral industries. It is wiser, perhaps, to abandon the search for a single cause, recognizing that the interplay of factors was in reality essential. The commercial changes that underlay the industrial transformation were not specifically associated with England; they might have stimulated industrial development in France. [See COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1766-1921.] The intensity and importance of the changes in England were due to the unusual conjunction of factors making for change in a number of related industries. All the factors favorable to change were present in England, and the conjunction of factors did not occur in any other country. The development of trade with India had brought to Europe the fine cotton fabrics that had been known casually to the ancient world, but almost entirely unknown to the middle ages. These cottons appealed strongly to the consuming public and made their way rapidly. The woolen, linen, and silk industries all suffered from the competition with these new fabrics and attempts were made to restrict the use of cottons by protective legislation. The restriction was carried farther in England than on the Continent, and, though some measure of success was obtained at first, the failure was the more complete in the end. The protective barrier erected for the benefit of the woolen industry fostered the growth of a domestic cotton industry which found an element of advantage in the climate of which no one had been aware. The cotton industry was thus a new industry in every sense, and because it was new it was wholly free from the restrictive influences of craft customs and legislative regulation. It was free to adopt any forms of organization that might be convenient and suitable. The growth of the cotton industry was the occasion of many changes in the textile trades; changes in the relative importance of the various textile products, changes in the forms of organization, and changes in the technique of production. The changes in the metal industries were largely the outcome of the attempt to use coal as fuel. The forests were being seriously depleted by the demand for charcoal, and early in the seventeenth century it was clearly recognized that the iron industries must needs decline unless other fuel were found and made available. There was coal in abundance. At some of the iron workings coal was bedded with the iron and was a necessary but unimportant by-product. There was thus a strong incentive to use coal. The early experiments of Dudley were a direct outcome of such circumstances. The difficulties were great: mechanical and metallurgical. Successful utilization of coal would be possible only in an entirely transformed iron industry; an in-

dustry with much more mechanical equipment and more exact metallurgical knowledge. The great achievements of the Industrial Revolution were made possible by several generations of patient endeavor in the metal industries. . . . As a result of these changes the metal industries became much more significant than they had been for centuries. The full effects of the change have appeared only in the last half of the nineteenth century, but they are undoubtedly a result and should be regarded as a part of the Industrial Revolution. In 1700 the metal industries were of very subordinate importance in all European countries. The textile group was by far the most significant of the general groups now utilized in classification, and among the textiles the woolen industries (i.e., both woolen and worsted) were far in the lead. The cotton industry was of subordinate importance, almost negligible. The leather industries were probably more important than metals in France and in England, and though in Germany the metals were in all probability a greater factor in general industrial development we have no grounds for supposing that metals outranked leather even in Germany. The relative position of the different industries in 1700 represents the culmination of the general factors in industrial development that became notable in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Throughout the long period of five centuries the textile industries had grown in importance as specialized occupations. All three branches of the old textile trades had shared in the prosperity, though in many ways the woolen industry had undergone the most considerable transformation. The development of the silk industry was, however, a notable feature of economic growth in Italy and France; comparable in magnitude and character of technical advance to the development of the woolen industries in northern France, Flanders, and England. The Industrial Revolution brought a twofold dislocation: the rise of the new cotton industry resulted in the subordination of all the other branches of the textile manufacture to cottons—cotton was king; the reorganization of the metal trades gave them an entirely new place in the social order, raising them from a relatively low rank to substantially coördinate importance with the textile trades. The changes in the textile trades took place very early in the course of the general movement, the rise of the metal trades to their new position took place only in the latter half of the nineteenth century."—A. P. Usher, *Industrial history of England*, pp. 251-255.—See also INVENTIONS: 18th century: Industry.

ALSO IN: D. H. MacGregor, *Evolution of industry*, ch. 1.—J. F. Rees, *Social and industrial history of England*, pp. 11-16.—W. Cunningham, *Growth of English industry and commerce in modern times*, ch. 1.—G. H. Perris, *Industrial history of England*, ch. 1.

England: Inventions in textile industry.—"On the eve of the revolution, the increased demand for English-manufactured goods was still supplied by the antiquated methods of domestic industry. Although foreign trade had increased enormously, industrial organization remained the same as it had been for more than two centuries. Cotton and woolen cloth were still produced in the scattered cottages of domestic weavers and weaver-farmers who still used the hand-card, the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, and the cumbersome hand-loom. Primitive conveyances were used to collect the finished goods from the domestic shops in the hamlets and towns, and to deliver them at the seaports. The extent to which the increased demand for manufactured goods pressed upon these

inadequate methods of production is revealed by a study of the process of cloth making in its details. The raw material of the textile industry, whether it be wool from sheep, the boll of the cotton, or the crushed stems of flax, is a tangled mass of fibers. The first requisite is to straighten out the threads of this fiber by combing or carding. This process was done by hand under the domestic system. The second step is spinning. This involves drawing out the fibers which the first step has separated, until they form a slender cord, meanwhile twisting the fiber-cord sufficiently to cause the separate fibers to take hold upon one another, thus making a thread of greater strength. This process was done either on the old high wheel, whirled by hand and wound on the spindle, or on the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, operated by the treadle, while the material was drawn out by hand, and twisted and wound upon the flyer. The third step was weaving. For this process it was necessary to select firmly threads for the 'warp' upright threads, and soft, or loosely spun threads for the 'woof,' or 'weft.' This was wrapped on a shuttle, and thrown by hand between the two diverging planes of warp-threads. The weaving process was followed by processes of finishing, fulling, shearing, and dyeing, according to the kind of cloth desired. In order to keep a continuous supply of material flowing through the successive steps in these processes of manufacture, it was necessary to secure a close articulation of the various stages. It was just here that the system broke down as a means of supplying the growing commercial plans, for spinners could not keep the weavers supplied with enough thread to permit their meeting increased orders for cloth. Under the domestic organization of industry, spinning was done by women and younger children in the home with the antiquated spinning-wheel. The rate at which they could produce sufficient thread to keep the weaver constantly busy, required a ratio of about six spinners to one weaver. Naturally this proportion of labor was not always found, and it was frequently necessary to hunt up outside help to relieve the pressure upon the spinners. This necessitated delays and inconveniences. The lack of adjustment between the supply of spun material and demand for it on the part of weavers, was still further accentuated by the invention of Kay's drop-box and flying-shuttle in 1738. . . . So keenly felt was this need for better spinning processes, that the Royal Society offered a prize for the invention of a machine that would spin several threads at the same time. Although this reward was never claimed a series of brilliant mechanical inventions appeared shortly after the middle of the eighteenth century, and as soon as the manufacturing difficulties which we have enumerated were overcome, production increased by leaps and bounds. . . . It is hardly possible to exaggerate the importance of these inventions [in the textile trades], for they 'explain the world in which we live, with its busy cities, its gigantic factories filled with complicated machinery, its commerce and vast fortunes, its trade-unions and labor parties, its bewildering variety of plans for bettering the lot of the great mass of the people.' . . . Inventions were first introduced in cotton manufacture, and applied to the spinning process, which we have observed was already out of adjustment with the weaving process. In 1770 James Hargreaves, a Lancashire weaver, patented the 'spinning-jenny,' a machine which he had completed in 1764. . . . But shortly afterwards, a new and more effective spinning device was brought to perfection by Richard Arkwright.

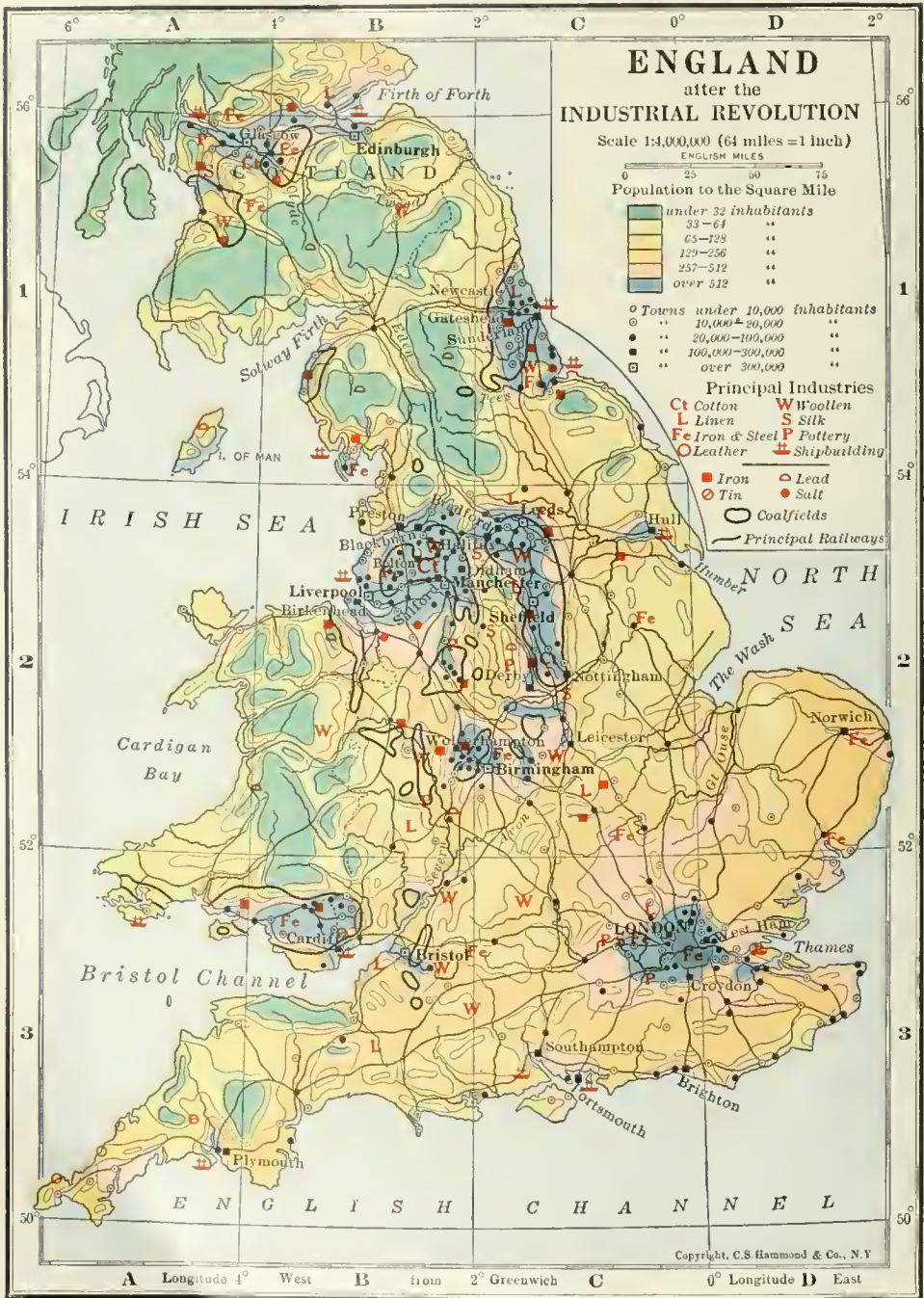
[See INVENTIONS: 18th century: Industry.] . . . Finally, in 1779, Samuel Crompton succeeded in combining the principles of the Arkwright and Hargreaves machines, and produced the 'mule,' which spun very fine cotton thread and made the manufacture of muslins possible. . . . The mechanism has now been improved to such an extent that twelve thousand spindles may be worked at once by one spinner. By 1811 there were more than four and a half million spindles worked by 'mules' in English factories. The comparatively sudden, and remarkably powerful stimulus given to English textile industry by these inventions, was accelerated by the invention of the cotton-gin in 1792, a device which opened up for commercial uses an enormous supply of raw cotton which had hitherto been unsatisfactorily cleaned by hand methods. It will be observed that these inventions affected the spinning process and increased the output of spun materials, yet no corresponding improvement had been made in the weaving process. Consequently the weavers now lagged behind, and were not able to utilize the greatly increased supply of thread to meet the demand for cloth goods, for Kay's shuttle had been the last advance in the weaving process. It was not until 1785 that a Kentish clergyman, Cartwright, patented his 'power-loom,' a machine which performed the same sort of service for the weaving process that the spinning inventions had performed for the spinning process. Although the principle was right, the machine caused the disappearance of domestic hand-weavers, as the other inventions had abolished the hand-spinners, and soon the factory system was in full operation. At first, water-power was used to operate these heavy-running mechanisms. But this sort of power was not always sufficient, or available, and the discovery of some other source of motive power was necessary before the revolution in manufacturing processes could be completed. This need was finally met by Watt's steam engine, patented in 1769, but not introduced into factory manufacture until 1785. During the fifteen year period, 1788-1803, the cotton trade trebled itself, due to the introduction of these improved industrial processes. But it should be noted that mechanical inventions were first introduced into cotton manufacture, only subsequently into woolen manufacture, and then irregularly into other manufacturing processes—that is, improvements were not introduced into all fields at once. Nevertheless, the industrial revolution proceeded, on the whole, with a rapidity quite remarkable, in view of the comparative absence of innovations in industry during mediæval and ancient times."—F. S. Chapin, *Historical introduction to social economy*, pp. 171-177.

ALSO IN: G. T. Warner, *Landmarks in English industrial history*, ch. 15.—A. D. Innes, *England's industrial development*, ch. 18.—E. Cressy, *Outline of industrial history*, ch. 5, 7.

**England: Factory system.—Its social evils.**—Capital was "needed to make this new machinery available. It was much too expensive for the old cottage weavers to buy and use. Capital had, therefore, to be brought into manufacturing which had been previously used in trade or other employments. Capital was in reality abundant relatively to existing opportunities for investment, and the early machine spinners and weavers drew into partnership moneyed men from the towns who had previously no connection with manufacturing. Again, the new industry required bodies of laborers working regular hours under the control of their employers and in the buildings where the machines were placed and the

power provided. Such groups of laborers or 'mill hands' were gradually collected where the new kind of manufacturing was going on. Thus factories, in the modern sense, came into existence—a new phenomenon in the world. These changes in manufacturing and the organization of labor came about earliest in the manufacture of cotton goods, but the new machinery and its resulting changes were soon introduced into the woolen manufacture, then other textile lines, and ultimately into still other branches of manufacturing, such as the production of metal, wooden and leather goods and, indeed, into nearly all forms of production. Manufacturing since the last decades of the eighteenth century is therefore usually described as being done by the 'factory system,' as contrasted with the domestic system and the gild system of earlier times. The introduction of the factory system involved many changes; the adoption of machinery and artificial power, the use of a vastly greater amount of capital, and the collection of scattered laborers into great strictly regulated establishments."—E. P. Cheyney, *Introduction to the industrial and social history of England*, p. 183.—"Scarcely any evil associated with the factory system was entirely a new evil in kind. In many domestic industries the hours were long, the pay was poor, children worked from a tender age, there was overcrowding, and both home and workshop were rendered less desirable from the combination of the two under a single roof. In many, not in all, for there were home workers who were very prosperous, and in his halcyon days the hand-loom weaver was in the enviable position of a man who had something valuable to sell and could make very comfortable terms for himself. [See also AGRICULTURE: Modern: British Isles: 17th-18th centuries.] But the home worker at the worst, even in cases where to those who examine the economic forces on which his livelihood depended, he seems to have been at the end of a shorter chain than he realised, was in many respects his own master. He worked long hours, but they were his own hours; his wife and children worked, but they worked beside him, and there was no alien power over their lives; his house was stifling, but he could slip into his garden; he had spells of unemployment, but he could use them sometimes for cultivating his cabbages. The forces that ruled his fate were in a sense outside his daily life; they did not overshadow and envelop his home, his family, his movements and habits, his hours for work and his hours for food. What the new order did in all these respects was to turn the discomforts of the life of the poor into a rigid system. Hours were not shortened, the atmosphere in which they worked was not made fresher or cleaner, child labour was not abolished. In none of these respects was the early factory better than the home, in some it was worse. But to all the evils from which the domestic worker had suffered, the Industrial Revolution added discipline, and the discipline of a power driven by a competition that seemed as inhuman as the machines that thundered in factory and shed. The workman was summoned by the factory bell; his daily life was arranged by factory hours; he worked under an overseer imposing a method and precision for which the overseer had in turn to answer to some higher authority; if he broke one of a long series of minute regulations he was fined, and behind all this scheme of supervision and control there loomed the great impersonal system. . . . It was not only the life of the men that was swallowed up in the factory. Women and children were shut out





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from the daylight as well. The home life of Lancashire is described as follows at the end of our time. The factory woman has had no time, no means, no opportunities of learning the common duties of domestic life. 'Even if she had acquired the knowledge, she has still no time to practise them. In addition to the twelve hours' labour is an additional absence from home in the going and the returning. Here is the young mother absent from her child about twelve hours daily. And who has the charge of the infant in her absence? Usually some little girl or aged woman, who is hired for a trifle and whose services are equivalent to the reward. Too often the dwelling of the factory family is no home; it sometimes is a cellar, which includes no cookery, no washing, . . . no decencies of life, no invitations to the fireside.' This point had been put in a letter to the Home Office from a Manchester correspondent as early as 1800. 'The people employed in the different manufactures are early introduced into them, many at five and six years old, both girls and boys, so that when the former become Women they have not had any opportunity of acquiring any habits of Domestic economy or the management of a family. . . . The greater part of the Working and lower class of people have not wives that can dress a joint of meat if they were to have it given them. The consequence is that such articles become their food that are the most easily acquired, consequently their general food now consists of bread and cheese.' The writer goes on to mention that in a family known to him, 24s. out of 26s. or 28s. a week earned by its members are spent on bread.—J. L. and B. Hammond, *Town labourer*, pp. 18-19, 23-24.

See also ENGLAND: 1812-1813; 1816; LABOR REMUNERATION: Development of wages system.

ALSO IN: H. de B. Gibbins, *Industry in England*, ch. 23.—R. H. Gretton, *English middle class*, ch. 9.—F. McVey, *Modern industrialism*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—W. Smart, *Economic annals of the nineteenth century*, ch. 1.

England: Effect on agriculture. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: British Isles: 17th-18th centuries; Late 18th to early 19th centuries.

England: Mining inventions.—Increase in the use of iron and coal.—Rise of urban population.—'The smelting of iron by means of coke and coal and the use of steam made mining much more important, and also aided in the work by clearing the mines of water, by boring new shafts, and by raising the bawn coal from the pits. With the increased demand for coal, shafts had to be made deeper, and the dangers associated with mining increased. The explosions from fire-damp caused attention to be paid to ventilation; the danger of naked lights led finally to the invention of the Davy lamp in 1815. [See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Artificial light.] Working on a large scale now commenced on all the coal-fields, whereas a century earlier the only coal-fields extensively worked were those of the Tyneside, where the sea afforded an easy export of the coal to London. Now that coal was important for manufactures as well as for house fuel, larger quantities were required, for the new industries naturally developed in the coal areas, and the coal output was trebled by the end of the century. In 1800 more than ten million tons were raised. One of the most important uses of coal was in the iron industry, which now became associated with those areas which produced both coal and iron ore. . . . Iron-smelting had been declining during the first half of the century, and pig-iron was being imported; but in 1815 the export of

iron reached 91,000 tons. In 1765 Anthony Bacon obtained a ninety-nine years' lease of the mineral rights in the Merthyr Tydvil area, and laid the foundations of the great South Wales iron industry; the Darbys at Coalbrookdale, and Roebuck at Carron, improved their works considerably; and great developments also took place in South Yorkshire and in the Black Country of South Staffordshire. Iron began to be used for almost all ordinary purposes. Iron pots and pans had been cast at Coalbrookdale as early as 1709, and John Wilkinson of Bersham, one of the first of the great British ironmasters, added many further improvements. He and Darby were jointly interested in the first iron bridge which was built over the Severn at Broseley and opened in 1779; Rennie was responsible for the construction of an iron bridge over the Thames at Southwark in 1815. Iron was also employed in the construction of ships, the first iron vessel being launched in 1790. One difficulty in the use of iron articles was the lack of accuracy in their construction. Watt found it difficult at first to get the cylinders of his new engines bored correctly. This led to improvements in engineering. Bramah invented the hydraulic press; Maudsley, the most famous of all these early engineers, produced the slide rest for holding tools firmly to the lathe; Whitworth secured uniformity in the pitch of screws; Nasmyth perfected the steam-hammer, which did away with much heavy manual labour. Most important of all these engineering triumphs was the standardisation of the various parts of a machine, that is, the making of each separate part true to a standard pattern, so that all the copies of each part of a machine should be exactly alike. If a part of a machine was broken before this change was made, a new part had always to be specially constructed to replace it, and while this part was being made the machine was at a standstill; after the parts were made to a standard pattern it was possible to order, and be supplied with, a new part which could be inserted in the machine without delay. . . . Other trades also benefited by the new developments. The increase in exports stimulated the shipbuilding and shipping trades. The tonnage of the shipping of the United Kingdom increased by over 60 per cent. between 1793 and 1813. [See also COMMERCE: Commercial Age: 1766-1921.] The new factories and the new towns with their teeming population of artisans furnished employment to large numbers of bricklayers, carpenters, and other members of the building trades; and to the makers of building materials. The effect of these changes and developments soon became visible upon the face of the country. It was much easier to take the raw materials to the areas of cheap power production than *vice versa*, and this led to a rapid growth of population in what had formerly been the backward areas north of the Trent. Both slopes of the Pennines were in touch with important coal-fields and had an ample supply of water. The dampness of the Lancashire climate was an additional advantage to cotton-spinners, and this area became the seat of the cotton industry. The West Riding and the west of England could both count upon local coal supplies and thus retained the woollen industry, which was already leaving the eastern counties because they lacked the necessary fall of water for the use of water-power, and were devoid of coal. Iron and hardware developed on the Northumberland, South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire, and South Wales coal and iron fields. Silk went to Cheshire, and framework knitting to the Midlands, where subdivision of

labour gave silk hosiery to Derby and woollen hosiery to Leicester. The coal-fields of Scotland also became busy hives of industry. There was not only a great transference of labour to fresh areas of the country, but also a remarkable increase in the total population of the country. It is not easy to say exactly how great this increase was, for no census was taken in these days. The population of England in 1760 was probably less than 7,000,000; in 1821, it had risen to just over 12,000,000. The rate of increase of population in the first half of the eighteenth century was probably never more than 18 per cent., but in the second half the rate of increase was 57 per cent. The fastest rate of increase was between 1801 and 1811, when the population increased at the rate of 21½ per cent. This increase took place chiefly in the larger towns; the rural population, which in 1811 had been 35 per cent. of the whole population of the country, sank by 1831 to 28 per cent. Many towns developed with startling rapidity, especially those like Sheffield, Birmingham, Manchester, and Leeds, which had never been incorporated and therefore hampered by gild restrictions. While the total population of the country as a whole rose about 30 per cent. between 1801 and 1821, and the population of London 40 per cent., the population of Liverpool, Glasgow, and Bradford actually increased by 75 per cent.—F. W. Tickner, *Social and industrial history of England*, pp. 535-538.

See also INVENTIONS: 19th century: Industry.

France.—“France was the first of continental countries in which the great modern industrial transition—the introduction of machinery, the widespread displacement of the handicraft system, the rise of the factory—took place. Yet even there the transformation was much belated. Despite the fact that French commerce increased more rapidly during the eighteenth century than did English, and at the close of the century surpassed the English in volume, France not only failed to achieve in the eighteenth century that reconstruction of manufactures which lent distinction to England, but did not experience even the beginnings of the transformation until the following century was somewhat advanced. The advantage in respect to available capital, skilled labour, fuel supply, industrial liberty, and stability of political conditions lay wholly with England. The first cotton mill, it is true, was set up in France in 1785, and during the Consulate and the Empire persistent attempt was made to extend the utilisation of spinning and weaving machinery; but much the larger portion of textile manufacturing prior to 1825 was carried on under the strongly entrenched household, handicraft system. In 1834 there were only 5,000 mechanical looms in all France. But thereafter advance was rapid, and in 1846 the number was 31,000. Similarly, in the metal industries there was some attempt at modernization in the days of Napoleon, but the first rolled iron plates were not produced in France until 1819; and it was only after 1830 that coke-smelting, puddling, and other improvements in iron manufacture were widely introduced. In 1830 there were in the country 29 blast furnaces employing coke and 379 employing charcoal. Not until 1864 did the number of coke furnaces (220) surpass that of charcoal furnaces (210). In 1810 there were in France only some fifteen or sixteen steam-engines, all employed in pumping. In 1830 there were 625; in 1839, 2,450; in 1850, 5,322; in 1860, 14,513. Extensive application of steam-power came first in mining

and in metal works, and only very slowly in the manufacture of textiles. Against the introduction of machinery substantially the same sort of protest was made that had been voiced in England, but with scarcely more effect. After 1825-30 the transition set in upon an extended scale, and if the French industrial revolution can be dated from any fairly specific point, the years mentioned would probably be as accurate as any that could be indicated. An important factor in the inauguration of the new era was the removal, in 1825, of the prohibition upon the export of machinery from England, with the result that French manufacturers after that date were able more readily to obtain mechanical appliances from England and to copy them for their own use. In many instances, of course, these appliances had been brought in clandestinely before the embargo was raised, the more by reason of the fact that, in pursuance of her protective policy, France had been playing into England's hand by imposing on imported machinery duties running up to 100 per cent. About 1825-30 came the beginning of large-scale production of iron, and at the same time the output of coal was much increased. France is not rich in minerals, and the development of the heavier forms of manufacture has on this account always been relatively slow. Coal is found only in a few districts, principally in the north, and in geological formations more broken and more expensive to work than in England. Iron is more abundant, especially since the discovery of the rich basin of Brey in Lorraine. But coal and iron are not found side by side, as they are in England, and there has been discovered no cheap mode of conveying the one to the other. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, iron resources were developed rapidly after 1825, and to such an extent that by 1840 the country was obliged to eke out the inadequate coal supply by importations from England and Scandinavia. By 1825 the recovery from the shock of the Revolution and the Napoleonic wars was reasonably complete, and the general prosperity of the land gave a strong impetus not only to the metal industries but also to the manufacture of textiles and of finer wares. French industry has inclined always, as it does to-day, toward the production of articles for mass consumption. On that account, in part, machines never so completely displaced hand labour, or the factory system the handicraft system, as beyond the Channel. None the less, the general results of the revolution—the depression of handicraft industry, the reduction of wages, the cheapening of manufactured commodities, the differentiation of capital and labour, and the stimulation of organisation (although contrary to law) on the part of the labouring classes—followed substantially the lines already marked out in England.”—F. A. Ogg, *Economic development of modern Europe*, pp. 214-216.

Germany.—“In Germany, or rather in the Germanies, the Industrial Revolution was even more backward than in France. While the Continent had, been disturbed by wars (1793-1815), English manufacturers had been perfecting their machinery until now they could undersell German producers. The first political result of the Industrial Revolution in Germany was, therefore, a demand for a protective tariff. Each little state placed duties on imported manufactures, in order to encourage domestic industry. There were so many German states, however, that this multiplicity of customs duties seriously interfered with commerce. Hoping to overcome this difficulty, Prussia in 1818 established a uniform tariff for all

parts of the Prussian kingdom, with a 10 per cent duty on manufactured goods, and 20 per cent on colonial products. Prussia then invited other German states to adopt the same regulations and to unite their customs administrations with hers. After much hesitation most of the German states joined with Prussia, and on 1 January, 1834, the *Zollverein*, or Customs Union, went into effect between Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, and fourteen other German states. Hanover, Baden, Nassau, Brunswick, Luxemburg, and Frankfort-on-Main entered the union later; Austria remained outside. German merchants might now trade as freely within the *Zollverein* as though Germany were a united nation, and still German manufacturers were protected against their British and French competitors by the common customs tariff. [See *TARIFF*: 1833; *GERMANY*: 1817-1840.]

... Under the auspices of the *Zollverein*, German industry increased by leaps and bounds, and machine-production rapidly took the place of hand-labor. In the years 1836-1840 the raw cotton annually used by German manufacturers amounted only to 185,000 cwts.; fifteen years later more than 500,000 cwts. were being spun every year. And the spinning machines were so improved that in 1852 each spindle was working twice as rapidly as in 1836. The industrial class increased in numbers; the bourgeoisie grew richer and more powerful; and by 1848 the middle class in Germany was following the example of the middle class in France and England, in demanding a voice in the government. The effect of the Industrial Revolution in Germany was primarily to unify the country, and then to bring about political reform."—C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and social history of modern Europe*, v. 2, pp. 95-96.

ALSO IN: T. B. Veblen, *Imperial Germany and the industrial revolution*.—F. A. Ogg, *Economic development of modern Europe*, pp. 219-226.

India. See *INDIA*: 1912-1922; *ASIA*: European influences, etc.: 2.

Italy.—"In 1770 Italy was, like Germany, divided into a number of . . . little states. The industry and commerce which had made the Italian cities great in the Middle Ages had fallen a prey to misgovernment and war. Annexed to France for a few years, Italy came out of her period of captivity little better off than when she entered it. It was not until 1800, when some of the northern states were united under a single ruler, that any great improvement took place. In 1870, when the whole peninsula was at last united under Victor Emmanuel II, modern Italy came into being. [See *ITALY*: 1867-1870; 1870-1901.] The new agricultural methods which England had adopted a century before were introduced by some of the larger landowners, factories sprang up, and railroads were built. Steamboats disturbed the quiet canals of Venice, Milan became a railroad center and factory city, and Naples a busy port. Romance and robbers gave place to the commonplace security of a modern state. Italy has one serious handicap—she has very little coal. Coal is desirable for many industries, but cheap coal and plenty of it is necessary for the manufacture of steel and iron goods. . . . Machines and railroads, high buildings and steamships, are all made of steel, and to import these things places a heavy tax on the wealth of a country, for the freight on them is a serious item in addition to the profits which the country producing them adds to their cost. For this reason Italy has not developed as fast industrially as her northern neighbors. The manufacture of silk and cotton goods are her most important in-

dustries outside of agriculture."—E. L. Osgood, *History of industry*, p. 312.

Japan. See *ASIA*: European influences, etc.: 2.

Russia.—"In Russia, all the eastern half of Europe, the Industrial Revolution began a hundred years after it commenced in Great Britain. This was not because the Russians lacked the materials for industrial development, since they, like the Chinese, had abundance of coal and iron and they had one of the largest supplies of petroleum in the world. Their backwardness was owing to comparatively low civilization, their unwillingness to take up manufacturing, and their lack of aptitude and skill. In Russia almost all the people, generation after generation, had done little more than carry on a rude agriculture; few of them had any education or any industrial training, so that it was not easy for Russian capitalists to find skilled and industrious workmen, and what they could produce was often not to be made so cheaply or well as it could be in Great Britain or the German Empire. They were also immensely hampered by vast distances and lack of railroads and good transportation. Nevertheless, in the latter half of the nineteenth century, the Industrial Revolution began in Russia. Factories were established and artisans trained and gathered together, mostly in the western parts bordering on Germany and Austria-Hungary, and the center of Russian industrial life was in what had been the old Kingdom of Poland. In the early years of the twentieth century Petrograd, Lodz, and Warsaw had their tall chimneys, their slums, their proletariat, together with the dark, strange problems which the Industrial Revolution had brought to western Europe long before. . . . Especially under the guidance of Count Sergyey Witte, who became Minister of Finance in 1893, a large industrial development went forward. The Dual Alliance had just been made between Russia and France, and a great amount of capital was loaned by the French. Rapid increase of the Russian agricultural population, obliged to support itself upon holdings of land not sufficiently large, drove increasing numbers of Russian peasants to the cities in search of work. Tariffs were levied to protect new industries, factories multiplied, and the population of the cities rapidly increased. Railroads were constructed or extended, until Russian mileage exceeded that of any European country; though, because of the large distances within the empire, railway facilities continued to be more inadequate than in any other great country of Europe."—E. R. Turner, *Europe*, pp. 110-120, 428.—See also *EUROPE*: Modern: Russia in the nineteenth century.

ALSO IN: J. Mavor, *Economic history of Russia*.—F. A. Ogg, *Economic development of modern Europe*.

United States: Cotton gin.—First factory.—Manufacturing centers.—"For a time no response to [the English industrial revolution] . . . was seen in American industry. There was from colonial days a good deal of manufacturing of the old kind, ironware, hats, shoes, nails, and farm implements being some of the notable products. The lack of capital, the profits of agriculture, and the ability of British manufacturers to undersell served to delay the introduction of the new system. But in spite of the difficulties, some advance was made. In 1793, the year Whitney invented the cotton gin, Samuel Slater, in partnership with Moses Brown, set up at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, the first successful cotton factory in the United States. It was supplied with machinery of the British design, and its example was imitated in many other

places, although the enterprises struggled along with many drawbacks."—*Short history of the United States*, p. 349.—See also U.S.A.: 1793: Whitney's cotton-gin.—"With the stimulus given to manufacturing by the embargo and the war [of 1812] the Industrial Revolution began. Machinery was introduced into manufacturing, and the factory system was set up. Some of the machines were invented here, some were imitations of the machines long in use in England, and some were English machines with improvements by American inventors. As it was against the law for anyone to send machines out of England or even a drawing of a machine, many of the machines produced here were constructed by workmen from memory, with the help of only such rough sketches as they had been able to smuggle out of England. Steam engines were employed to run the machinery, better spinning machines were introduced or invented, roller printing of cottons was substituted for hand printing, and power looms were set up. The number of machines in use increased very rapidly, and the quantity of goods kept pace with this increase. In 1808 there were only eight thousand spindles employed in the manufacture of cotton yarn; in 1815 there were five million. At the same time that machinery was introduced the factory system came in, just as it had in England. To Francis C. Lowell belongs the honor of establishing the first complete factory in this country. In 1814 he brought all the processes of spinning and weaving under one roof in his factory at Waltham, Massachusetts. His example was soon followed by others. Such industrial establishments as this required large investments of capital, and we find that by 1815 fifty million dollars had been invested in the manufacture of textiles alone. The labor for these factories came in part from the craftsman class in the cities and in part from the sons and daughters of the farmers. The conditions were much better than they had been in the early factories in England, and the pay was much higher. Although the wages paid did not equal what a skilled craftsman could earn under the handicraft system, they were much better than those usually paid unskilled labor. A large proportion of the factories centered in New England at such places as New Bedford, Lowell, Lawrence, Holyoke, and Fall River. There were two reasons for this: in the first place, many of the factories still used water power, and this the streams of the New England states were amply able to supply; in the second place, many of the men who invested in these manufacturing enterprises were New England merchants, and they naturally located their plants in the neighborhood of their homes. Another great manufacturing center was Philadelphia. In and about this city much industry had been carried on under the old systems, and these same establishments were transformed to meet the new methods of production. . . . Our industrial establishments increased in number and in size. One industry after another was taken out of the home and into the factory. The domestic system, except as an adjunct to the factory, ceased to exist in the more settled parts of the country. A long series of labor-saving machines imported from abroad or invented here improved the quality of our goods, increased the quantity of the output, and reduced the cost of production."—E. L. Osgood, *History of industry*, pp. 372-375.—See also CONNECTICUT: 1818-1820; U.S.A.: 1897: Industrial revolution.

ALSO IN: K. Coman, *Industrial history of the United States*, pp. 65-72, 116-118.

United States: Invention of saw-gin and agricultural implements. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1776-1833.

General results.—Enormous growth of wealth.—Rise of classes.—Factional interests.—One of the consequences "of the industrial revolution has been the enormous growth of wealth in the modern world [and the creation of the state known as Capitalism (q. v.)]. While this wealth has not been adequately shared by the labouring classes or even by the masses generally, a larger portion of human society has been emancipated from all fear of want than ever before in human history. In other words, the enormous wealth of modern times has stimulated luxury and self-indulgence in some classes of society almost beyond belief. . . . [Another consequence has been our modern form of social life.] Finally, our industrial system has tended . . . to generate antagonism between economic classes. Class conflicts have been an increasingly disturbing factor in our social order. Class interest has become . . . a warry of contending factions. Worse still, a tradition of class hatred has been growing up within Western nations, sedulously fostered by some of the non-privileged, and often unwisely stimulated by the privileged. Thus a gulf, not only in actual conditions of life, but also in feeling, has been developing between the socially more fortunate and socially less fortunate—a gulf which the sympathy and understanding necessary for social solidarity finds it difficult to bridge. The tradition of the solidarity of class threatens to strangle the tradition of the solidarity of humanity."—C. A. Ellwood, *Social problem*, pp. 81-83.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Industrial revolution; Revolutionary period.

Effect on status of women. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1815-1900.

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING. See INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

INDUSTRIAL WELFARE COMMISSIONS. See OREGON: 1902-1915; KANSAS: 1915.

INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.—The beginnings of this labor organization may be traced from a meeting of radical labor leaders, among whom T. J. Haggerty and Clarence Smith were the most prominent, in Chicago in 1904. Early in the next year preparations were made for the summoning of a more general and representative body and the first convention was held in Chicago, June, 1905. Here their official name, usually abbreviated to I. W. W., was adopted and a platform drawn up. From the first, the problem of internal harmony in the new labor body presented itself and a number of delegates led by Daniel de Leon founded a rival organization at Detroit. It was evident that the chief inspiration of the original movement came from the west and that the western miners constituted its backbone. However, that powerful body, the Western Federation of Miners, already occupied this field and the rivalry between the two organizations was destined to constitute much of their later history. The second convention (1906) brought eighty-three delegates representing 60,000 members. A struggle at once began between the "revolutionary camp" and the "reactionaries", whereupon the revolutionists abolished the office of president, putting a revolutionist in the chair. A new executive board was elected and on adjournment "the old officials seized the general headquarters, and with the aid of detectives and police held the same, compelling the revolutionists to open up new offices."

Constitution.—"The constitution itself has un-

dergone very few changes since it was drawn up in 1905. Perhaps the most radical change was made at the Tenth Annual Convention, in 1916. Originally the whole structure and plan of the organization could be summed up as follows: The unit of organization was the local union, and in each district or territory where five local unions existed a district council was formed. An unlimited number of locals, with a minimum membership of 3,000, however, could form a National Industrial Union. Two or more National Industrial Unions formed a department. The Constitution to-day, as changed at the Tenth Annual Convention, provides that the unit of organization is an industrial union. Each industrial union is to have its own by-laws to cover its own industry and to organize branches in its own industry. Their jurisdiction has no limit. Five or more branches in any given locality may form an industrial union district council, this to serve practically the same purpose as the former local district council, and might be compared to a Central Labor Council of the A. F. of L. [American Federation of Labor]. However, the component parts are more closely allied. Although the constitution provides for industrial departments, up to the present time, no such department has been formed. The constitution also calls for a General Recruiting Union, which takes in workers in industries not having enough members to form an industrial union of their own. The officers provided for by the Constitution are General Secretary-Treasurer, and a General Executive Board composed of seven members. These are all the national officers provided for. Each Industrial Union provides for its own officers somewhat on the same general plan; a general secretary-treasurer and an Organization Committee of five members. Each branch of an industrial union elects its secretary and a local Organization Committee. However, the regular officials in the different industrial unions may differ slightly. Some of the outstanding features of the constitution are that none but wage workers are eligible to membership; also that no officer of the I. W. W. may run for any political office without permission granted through a referendum of the entire organization; and a free transfer system—that is, any member belonging to one industrial union is allowed to transfer into any other industrial union without paying an additional fee. The Constitution also fixes the initiation fee at a maximum of \$5.00. Provisions are also made for the monthly dues, the per capita to be paid to General Headquarters and the disposition to be made thereof, together with other minor matters in connection therewith."—*American Labor Year Book, 1919-1920, pp. 196-197.*—See also AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR; LABOR ORGANIZATION.

Relation to other political and economic organizations.—"It can be stated that the I. W. W. stands by itself in its relation to other political and economic organizations inasmuch as it recognizes the class struggle and is revolutionary in character. While not recognizing the necessity for political action, it is non-political rather than anti-political. The I. W. W. is not definitely opposed to political action, but it does not recognize it as a fundamental factor in the class struggle."—*American Labor Year Book, 1919-1920, p. 197.*

Organization and membership.—"The organization is now [1920] composed of twelve industrial unions, the General Recruiting Union, and a few locals that have not been formed into industrial unions as yet. The General Recruiting Union,

with twelve branches, has about 4,000 members. The Metal Mine Workers' Industrial Union No. 800, with approximately five open branches and a large number of field delegates, has about 15,000 members. The headquarters of this industrial union is at Butte, Mont. The Construction Workers' Industrial Union No. 573, with the same number of branches, and headquarters at Chicago, Ill., has a membership of about 5,000. The Agricultural Workers' Industrial Union No. 400 has but a few branches. However, as this industrial union is comprised of migratory workers, a large number of delegates travel from place to place and very few stationary branches are formed. There are three central points and the headquarters is at Chicago. This union has approximately 6,000 members. The Lumber Workers' Industrial Union No. 500, with headquarters at Portland, Ore., was at one time the strongest branch of the I. W. W. Before the persecutions, starting in the fall of 1917, the membership totalled between forty and fifty thousand. The advent of the Four L's, a government organization organized by the Spruce Production Corps of the United States Army, made great inroads through the use of various tactics. The arrest of everyone found carrying an I. W. W. card followed. However, at the present time, the rate of increase in the membership of No. 500 is greater than the decrease, and the membership is now estimated at 20,000. The Metal and Machinery Workers' Industrial Union No. 300, with headquarters at Chicago, composed largely of skilled mechanics, never exceeded at any time two to three thousand members. Many unskilled workers from the large steel mills and manufacturing plants, which began laying off men as soon as the armistice was signed and war contracts cancelled, are now coming into this union, and the Metal and Machinery Workers' Industrial Union promises to become a very powerful factor in the future of the I. W. W. Their membership can safely be estimated at 4,000. There are approximately 2,000 railroad men organized into the Railroad Workers' Industrial Union No. 600, the headquarters of which union is also at Chicago. The growth of this union is very rapid considering the conservative element employed in this industry. The Hotel, Restaurant, and Domestic Workers' Union, an industry which is largely organized by the A. F. of L., is also making good progress. The membership of this union is estimated at 1,000 and is composed mostly of household workers and of some of the lower paid workers in hotels and restaurants. The Marine Transport Workers' Union No. 100 on the Atlantic Coast, and No. 700 on the Pacific Coast, have fluctuated widely in membership. The increase in membership in this industry during the last month or two has been remarkable and the future holds great promise. The membership of each union is about 2,000. The Ship Builders' Union on the Pacific Coast was formed during the war and is largely a war industry. The membership of this union numbered about 1,000 before the closing of the hall in Seattle. The present membership is hard to estimate, but the reports show that it has not fallen off to any great extent. A large number of new members have been taken in since the close of the war. Textile Workers' Industrial Union No. 1000, with headquarters at Paterson, N. J., has a membership of about 1,000. Great strides have been made in this industry recently, several new branches having been formed in the New England states. The latest addition to the industrial unions of the I. W. W.

is the Printing and Publishing Workers' Industrial Union No. 1200, recently organized in New York City. There are perhaps six or eight local unions that have never been transferred to industrial unions. This is largely due to the fact that the persecutions and arrests started about the time that reorganization was taking place. The largest of these is Local 8, of Marine Transport Workers, in Philadelphia. This local has a membership of 5,000. The other locals, mainly in the North-east, have a total membership of about 2,000, and are comprised largely of marble workers, bakers, rubber workers, and some textile workers."—*American Labor Year Book, 1919-1920, pp. 195-196.*

Recent tendencies.—"The mutual hostility between the Western Federation of Miners and the I. W. W. has not lessened since 1907. This antagonism has been most acute in the Arizona, Nevada and Montana mining camps. . . . It is not unnatural that there should be increasing friction between the two organizations, inasmuch as the Western Federation has become on the whole more conservative, while the I. W. W. has grown constantly more revolutionary. In June, 1910, the W. F. M. voted for affiliation with the American Federation of Labor and the alliance was finally consummated in May, 1911. 'What the mine owners failed to do by force,' declares the I. W. W., 'they have accomplished through Civic Federation methods.' . . . The bitterness between the two organizations was most acute in the Butte (Mont.) mining fields. The situation reached a dramatic climax in the summer of 1914 when, on June 13, the Union Hall of Butte Miners' Union No. 1 (W. F. M.) was dynamited. . . . The most recent conflict between the I. W. W. and the Mine Workers was in the anthracite region around Scranton, Pennsylvania [April, 1916]. . . . The ninth I. W. W. convention, which met in Chicago, Sept. 21, 1914, was not an important one. It was in session less than a week and there were not more than twenty-five delegates present. . . . The European war had broken out less than two months before this convention met and the delegates did not fail to adopt a resolution against war. [See U.S.A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war.] . . . Only two constitutional amendments of importance were passed at the ninth convention. One was a further development of the machinery of the referendum and constituted a victory for the decentralist boosters of the 'rank and file.' The other amendment expressed in more specific terms than ever before the attitude of the organization toward agreements between employers and employees. It replaced the former blanket prohibition with a clause which specifically defines the kinds of agreement which *must* be avoided, and, inferentially, permits the making of agreements which are free from the objectionable features specified. . . . No convention was held in 1915. The tenth convention met at Chicago in the latter part of November, 1916. . . . There were in attendance about 25 delegates, including three members of the General Executive Board and the General Secretary. The delegates were almost entirely from the East and Middle West, only one coming from the Pacific Coast. The editor of *Solidarity*, commenting upon the character of the convention, says that 'the tenth convention is remarkable as denoting the decline of the "soap-boxers" as the dominant element.' 'The dominant tone,' he says, 'was constructive rather than controversial and the general demand was for such constitutional and other changes as would make

for greater efficiency in the work of the organization,' and he approvingly quotes one delegate as exclaiming, 'The I. W. W. is passing out of the purely propaganda stage and is entering the stage of constructive organization.'—P. F. Brissenden, *I. W. W.: A study of American syndicalism, pp. 318-319, 324-325, 329-330, 338.*—"Several of the individual States, . . . [of the United States] have passed so-called 'criminal syndicalism' laws and the United States Senate on May 6, 1918, passed a so-called anti-*sabotage* bill which the newspapers declared was aimed at the I. W. W. The State laws referred to are quite generally understood to be directed against that organization. None of these statutes, however, mentions the I. W. W. by name. . . . So-called 'criminal syndicalism' or *sabotage* laws have been enacted by the States of Idaho, Minnesota, North Dakota, Montana, South Dakota, and Nebraska. In the State of Washington a 'syndicalism bill,' and in Arizona a '*sabotage*' law, were passed by the State legislatures in 1918 but were vetoed by the governor in each case. . . . [In 1918] the Industrial Workers of the World, as represented by more than one hundred of its members and officials, was on trial for its life in Chicago. The indictment charged the defendants with conspiring to hinder and discourage enlistment and in general to obstruct the progress of the war with Germany. The specific number of crimes alleged to have been intended runs up to more than seventeen thousand. . . . On August 17 the case went to the jury which, after being out fifty-five minutes, returned a verdict of 'guilty, as charged in the indictment.' On August 30 Judge K. M. Landis imposed sentence. W. D. Haywood and fourteen others were sentenced to twenty years imprisonment and \$20,000 fine each. Thirty-three others were given six years and fined \$5,000 each on the first count; ten years and \$5,000 each on the second count; two years and \$10,000 each on the third count; and ten years and \$10,000 each on the fourth count. Thirty-three others were given five years and fines of \$5,000 apiece on each of counts 1 and 2 and \$10,000 each on counts 3 and 4. Twelve more were sentenced to one year and one day, with fines of \$5,000 each on the first and second counts and \$10,000 each on the third and fourth counts. Two of the defendants were given ten-day sentences. All sentences run concurrently. The fines imposed aggregate \$2,570,000 and costs. . . . The activities of the I. W. W. are by no means confined to the United States and Canada. The organization has been gradually extending its propaganda in most English-speaking countries. This study is primarily concerned with the I. W. W. in the United States. But in any case it would be impossible to present any adequate record of its work in other countries because of the difficulty of getting at the facts of the situation. The announcements from the Chicago headquarters make reference to four foreign jurisdictions, viz.: its British, New Zealand, Australian and South African 'administrations.' It is unlikely that the 'British Administration' amounts to anything. The writer has happened upon vague references to an 'I. W. W. local' in London, but has not been able to either disprove or verify them. It is in the British colonies of South Africa and Australia that the I. W. W. has made headway with its propaganda and organizing work. After the outbreak of the European War the I. W. W. in Australia became the object of no little attention on the part of the government because of their anti-militarist agitation. Finally in Australia several of the



Wobblies were arrested, tried and convicted on charges of high treason. . . . Some idea of the nature and seriousness of that propaganda may be had from the meagre reports which have reached this country. A writer in the *Sunset Magazine* says that the striking coal miners 'had Australia at their mercy. . . . In vain did the government plead with the strikers for coal to start troop and wheat ships. . . . As a last resort, the leaders . . . were arrested. . . . The Industrial Workers of the World, the militant aggressive organization whose doctrine of a general rebellion is rapidly spreading through the "paradise of labor," demanded the release of the miners [and] threatened to burn down Sydney if their demands were not complied with. They made good. Night after night the incendiary work went on in Sydney. . . . Terrorized by the handful of industrial rebels, the commonwealth was forced to yield. The strike leaders were finally released [and] the demands of the strikers were granted.' A month later the *New York Times* published some special correspondence on the subject. It appears that in October, 1916, charges were preferred against 15 I. W. W.s in New South Wales. These charges involved, according to this report, treason and wholesale arson in Sydney, amounting to \$1,250,000. The chief issue involved was the conscription policy of the government, to which the I. W. W. was opposed. They were brought to trial on October 10th. The warrant against them charged that they were preaching *sabotage* by means of surreptitious pamphlets and openly upon the streets. Further, the warrant alleged, says the *Times* correspondent, "that they plotted rebellion against the King; that they conspired to burn down buildings in Sydney, . . . endeavored to put force or restraint upon the Parliament of New South Wales, [and that] they endeavored to intimidate and overawe Parliament.' Their anti-war campaign at last became so obnoxious to the government that the House of Representatives, in December, 1916, passed a statute, called 'The Unlawful Associations Act,' which practically made it a criminal offense to be a member of the I. W. W.; . . . the apparent intention of the authorities being to arrest all prominent I. W. W. speakers and hold them for the duration of the war. In Australia as in the United States there were prior to the war two I. W. W. organizations in existence: a political I. W. W. and a non-political I. W. W. In that country, however, the political group (counterpart of the Detroit wing in the United States) has been by all odds the more influential. Although both these groups were pretty well smothered by the war and the *Unlawful Associations Act*, the I. W. W. industrial union idea made its appearance in another form in the summer of 1918. In July of that year representatives of some of the most powerful unions of New South Wales held a conference in Sydney. This so-called 'Industrial Conference Board' drew up a constitution for an organization on the I. W. W. model, adopted the I. W. W. preamble almost word for word, and launched 'The Workers Industrial Union of Australia.'"—P. F. Brissenden, *I. W. W.: A study of American syndicalism*, pp. 344-345, 7-8, 339-343.—"In many respects the 11th Annual Convention of the I. W. W., held at Chicago May 5-16, 1919, was the most remarkable in the history of the organization. Emerging from two years of systematic persecution, the I. W. W. held its most successful convention, with more delegates present, with a greater spirit of solidarity; and formulated a more thorough and concrete plan of organization than

was possible in previous conventions. . . . Some of the more important matters decided at the Convention are as follows: . . . The official adoption of the universal delegate system is already in operation. This is a system of organizing that originated with the I. W. W. and is typical of its democratic spirit. This system makes it possible to organize the workers in the most hostile territory or industry. The idea is to make every member of the I. W. W. a job delegate or organizer. The job delegates receive no pay but are empowered to initiate new members and collect dues. Travelling delegates are members under pay who travel from job to job to consult with job delegates and keep them supplied with literature, due books, etc. When this system is perfected, every member will carry universal credentials and will, therefore, be enabled to initiate a worker into his respective industrial union. A resolution was passed barring any member addicted to intoxicating liquors from holding office in the organization. The Convention voted that no officer should hold office for two consecutive years. This means that if a member holds office for one year, he must return to his work before being eligible again to office. It also voted that paid officials could not act as delegates to the general convention. The policy of papers published by any subdivision of the organization is to be controlled by the General Executive Board, and no I. W. W. paper is authorized to accept commercial advertising. The Convention went on record as being opposed to any member or group of members taking part in or helping to build up any labor organization outside of the I. W. W. This does not prevent a member from holding a membership in any labor body and in no way interferes with his political beliefs."—*American Labor Year Book*, 1919-1920, pp. 198-199.—See also CENTRALIA RIOTS.

Publications.—"The I. W. W. press is an important factor in the organization. . . . [Formerly] there were seven foreign language papers in the field and two English papers. . . . Attempts were made to keep them in the field as long as possible, and all sorts of subterfuge was resorted to in order to get them out at all. However, at the present time, although third-class mailing privilege is all that is allowed, the papers are being started up again and we have eight foreign papers in the field and four English papers namely: Swedish, *Nya Varlden*; Spanish, *La Nueva Solidaridad*; Hungarian, *Felszabadulos*; Russian, *Golos Truzenika*; Jewish, *Der Industrial Arbeiter*; Italian, *Il Nuovo Proletario*; English, *The New Solidarity*; \**The One Big Union Monthly*, *The Industrial Unionist*, Seattle, Wash.; *The Rebel Worker*, New York; *Der Klassenkampf*, Jewish. In addition to these papers, four pamphlets dealing directly with the Chicago trial, have been published since the close of the trial."—*American Labor Year Book*, 1919-1920, pp. 194-195.

Law in United States concerning aliens.—Subject to deportation under alien anarchist law. See U. S. A.: 1920 (June).

ALSO IN: C. H. Parker, *I. W. W. (Atlantic Monthly, Nov., 1917)*.—J. G. Brooks, *American syndicalism: The I. W. W.*—P. F. Brissenden, *Launching of the Industrial Workers of the World*.

INDUSTRIALISM. See EUROPE: Modern; Birth of scientific spirit; INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION; LABOR ORGANIZATION.

INE, Ini, or Ina (d. 729), king of the West Saxons, 688-726.

Dooms of. See DOOMS OF INE.

**INEFFABILIS**, papal bull. See **BULLS, PAPAL**: 1854.

**INEXPIABLE WAR**, of Carthaginian mercenaries against Hamilcar Barca. See **CARTHAGE**: B.C. 241-238.

**INFALLIBILITY**, Papal. See **PAPACY**: 1869-1870.

**INFANT GUARDIANSHIP ACT** (1886). See **WOMAN'S RIGHTS**: 1870-1911.

**INFANT MORTALITY**. See **STATISTICS**: Vital statistics.

**INFANT PROTECTION**. See **CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION**; **AUSTRALIA**: 1912.

**INFANT SCHOOLS**. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 18th century: France: Infant schools; Rousseau; 19th century: England; Froebel; 19th-20th centuries: Spread of kindergarten idea; Modern developments: 20th century: New ideas, etc.

**INFANTRY**: Ancient.—Carthaginian, Egyptian, Greek, Macedonian, Roman, Oriental. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 7; 2; 3; 6; 9; 10; 11; 4.

Medieval. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 13; 15.

Modern. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 17; 37; **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: u, 3.

**INFILTRATION TACTICS**, infantry manoeuvre used by the Germans in 1918. Small groups of picked troops advanced after a short bombardment, and were followed closely by the artillery and by other troops. Each section of the Allied troops found itself outflanked. Much more effective than the old massed attack, the system gained much ground, although it expended the best troops.

**INFLEXIBLE**, British battle cruiser. It was in action off the Falkland islands, 1914, and was damaged, 1915, in the effort to force the Dardanelles. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: IX. Naval operations: f, 2; f, 3; f, 4.

**INFLUENZA EPIDEMIC**. See **NEW YORK CITY**: 1918; **PUBLIC HEALTH**: China; **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3.

**INGÆVONES**, early tribe in Germany. See **GERMANY**: As known to Tacitus.

**INGAGO**, Battle of (1881). See **SOUTH AFRICA**, **UNION**: 1806-1881.

**INGALLS**, John James (1833-1900), American senator. Delegate to first Kansas constitutional convention, 1859; secretary of the territorial council, 1860; and of the state senate, 1861; member of Kansas legislature, 1862-1863; judge-advocate of Kansas militia during Civil War, 1863-1865; member of United States Senate, 1873-1897; and president pro tempore of the senate, 1887-1891.

**INGE I**, king of Norway, 1136-1161.

**Inge II**, king of Norway, 1205-1207.

**Inge I**, the Good, king of Sweden, 1090-1112.

**Inge II**, king of Sweden, 1118-1129.

**INGENUI, LIBERTINI**.—"Free men [among the Romans] might be either persons born free (ingenui) and who had never been in slavery to a Roman, or persons who had once been slaves but had been emancipated (libertini)."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquities*, ch. 3. See also **SERFDOM**: 3rd-5th centuries.

**INGERMANLAND**. See **INGRIA**.

**INGERSOLL**, Charles Jared (1782-1862), American lawyer. See **U. S. A.**: 1808.

**INGERSOLL**, Jared (1722-1781), American stamp agent and admiralty judge. See **CONNECTICUT**: 1765.

**INGERSOLL**, Robert Green (1833-1899), American lawyer, author and lecturer. He lectured and wrote on religious topics in which he opposed Christianity. His collected works were

published in twelve volumes in 1900. Among them are: "The Gods, and Other Lectures," "Some Mistakes of Moses," and "Lectures Complete."—See also **AGNOSTICISM**.

**INGLE**, Richard, English seaman interested in tobacco trade. See **MARYLAND**: 1643-1649.

**INGOLDSBY**, Richard (d. 1759), British general. Served in the War of the Austrian Succession. See **BELGIUM**: 1745.

**INGRES**, Jean Auguste Dominique (1780-1867), French painter. See **PAINTING**: Europe (19th century).

**INGRIA**, or **Ingermanland**, ancient name of a region in northwestern Russia, forming part of the government of St. Petersburg. Originally it belonged to Novgorod. From 1617 to 1702 it was governed by Sweden, but was regained by Russia in the wars of Peter the Great.

**INHERITANCE TAX**. See **DEATH DUTY**; **TAXATION**: Local taxation in the United States.

**INIES**, or **Tachies**, Indian tribe. See **TEXAS**: Aboriginal inhabitants.

**INIGO LOPEZ DE RECALDE**. See **LOYOLA**, **St. IGNATIUS** OF.

**INIS-FAIL, INIS-EALGA**, early names for Ireland. See **IRELAND**: Geographical description.

**INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM**: Definition.—"The referendum has been described as a condition precedent to the taking effect of a law; the initiative is a condition precedent to the referendum. The referendum, itself in the nature of a contingency, is made to depend upon a contingency, and that is the filing with representative local officials of a petition signed by a definite number of persons, asking that the citizens residing within a given district shall have the opportunity to say yea or nay on the proposition that it shall be governed by the terms of a certain local by-law which the State legislature has proposed. Thus a prescribed number of signatures from ten to several thousand, according to the size of the district, its population, the desire to encourage or discourage the taking of the vote, the whims of the legislatures and other controlling influences and circumstances, must be secured in a locality before the election can be held. Sometimes the requirement is for a petition signed by a definite number of persons, as ten freeholders, one hundred qualified voters, two hundred resident taxpayers, etc. Again the law may require a certain percentage of the whole number of qualified electors registered within the district, or of the electors voting at the last election as 10 per cent, 15 per cent, 20 per cent, 25 per cent; or the literal condition may be one-tenth, one-fourth, one-third, two-fifths, three-fifths, a majority or even three-fourths of the legal voters. The legislature instead of enacting the law, requiring the referendum to be taken on a certain fixed date, on regularly recurring dates, or on the motion of local judges, commissioners, mayors and boards, places upon the shoulders of the people themselves the responsibility of deciding when the time has come for an election on the subject. The prohibition of special legislation in recent years and the restriction of the State legislatures' activities, in respect to localities, to 'general laws' have exerted a powerful influence to forward this development. . . . The initiative occurs in connection with propositions to incorporate cities and villages, to 'advance' or 'reduce' their grade, to organize levee districts and irrigation districts, to loan the public credit and issue bonds, to levy taxes for special purposes, to change city and county boundary lines, to remove county seats, to make the

enclosure of various species of live stock obligatory, to prohibit the manufacture or traffic in alcoholic liquors, to sell public lands and to enact a great variety of by-laws and enforce many different regulations having to do with local management."—E. P. Oberholzer, *Referendum in America*, pp. 369-371.

**Criticism.**—"The initiative and referendum depend on popular action, but the proportion of the people who act and in particular cases rule is never a majority. They are instruments of minority rule and usually of the rule of a very small minority. The ordinary mechanism of initiative operates so as to give to a small percentage of the voters the right to force the electorate either to accept or reject a specific legislative measure. . . . At its highest the vote on a proposed law is rarely over eighty per cent, not of the registered vote, but of the vote for governor, while it frequently falls below twenty-five per cent. The average is about sixty per cent. Hence the provision which has sometimes been used, that a proposed law shall not be considered adopted unless it receives a majority of all the votes cast at the election, makes the whole system practically inoperative and is vigorously opposed by the advocates of the initiative and the referendum. . . . In any event the great weakness of the initiative in its ordinary form consists in its failure to work sufficiently in favor of the popular political education. Measures submitted by this method to popular vote cannot in the very nature of the case receive that thorough ventilation and discussion which tends to inform and illuminate popular opinion."—H. D. Croly, *Progressive democracy*, pp. 306-307.—"The question is whether this system is one that ought to approve itself to the public for general adoption. It is argued that, in this way, subterranean influences of corrupt character can be avoided because the whole electorate can not be corrupted. It is argued that in this way prompt action is secured in deference to popular will, and that legislation, beneficial to the public and avoiding or abolishing special privilege, can not be obstructed or prevented by the hugger-muggering of political bosses acting under the inspiration of corrupt corporate managers. I do not mean to say that in the early use of such a device as this upon legislation, the results may not seem to be more directly under the control of the people than under the representative system when it was being used and abused by corrupt methods. However, the ease with which the so-called pure democracy can be turned to the advantage of the corruptionist has yet to be shown."—W. H. Taft, *Popular government*, p. 50.

**Early development and growth in Switzerland.**—The initiative and referendum are essentially Swiss institutions. "A popular vote under the name Referendum was known in the valleys of Graubünden and Wallis as early as the 16th century. Here existed small federations of communities who regulated certain matters of general concern by means of assemblies of delegates from each village. These conventions were not allowed to decide upon any important measure finally, but must refer the matter to the various constituencies. If a majority of these approved, the act might be passed at the next assembly. This primitive system lasted till the French invasion of 1798, and was again established in Graubünden in 1815. The word Referendum was also used by the old federal diets, in which there were likewise no comprehensive powers of legislation. If not already instructed the delegates must vote

'ad referendum' and carry all questions to the home government. The institution as now known is a product of this century. It originated in the canton of St. Gallen in 1830, where at the time the constitution was undergoing revision. As a compromise between the party which strove for pure democracy and that desiring representative government, it was provided that all laws should be submitted to popular vote if a respectable number of voters so demanded. Known at first by the name Veto, this system slowly found its way into several of the German-speaking cantons, so that soon after the adoption of the federal constitution five were employing the optional Referendum. Other forms of popular legislation were destined to find wider acceptance."

—B. Moses, *Federal government of Switzerland*, p. 119.—"Laws passed by the cantonal legislature may or must be referred to the people (referendum), who then have the right to reject or accept them, who, in other words, become the law-makers, their legislature being simply a kind of committee to help them by suggesting measures and by drafting them. The referendum is of two kinds, optional and obligatory. The optional referendum requires that a law must be submitted to popular vote if a certain number of the voters petition for it. The proportion varies in the different cantons, ranging from a twelfth to a fifth of all the voters. The obligatory referendum requires, as the name implies that all laws, or certain kinds of laws, shall be submitted without the need of petition. The obligatory form is the more democratic, requiring, as it does, a direct popular vote on every law. The initiative, on the other hand, enables a certain number of voters to propose a law or a principle of legislation and to require that the legislature submit the proposal to the people, even though it is itself opposed to it. If ratified the proposal becomes law. . . . By . . . [the initiative and referendum] Switzerland has more nearly approached democracy than has any other country. This system has been mainly developed since 1848, though its beginnings may be found earlier. Its growth constitutes the most important feature of Swiss political history in the last half century. It has been adopted wholly or in part in all of the representative cantons, with the exception of Freiburg. It has also been introduced into the federal government. In 1874 the federal constitution was revised, and at that time the federal referendum was established, and since 1891 a kind of federal initiative exists, that is, the people have the right to initiate constitutional amendments, not ordinary laws, but, as no sharp line separates the two, the power is practically unrestricted."—C. D. Hazen, *Europe since 1815*, pp. 588-590.—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Switzerland: 1848-1874; 1874-1921.

**Development in United States.**—The referendum was adopted by some of the states before the idea of the initiative had reached America. "The New York constitution of 1821 was referred to the electorate, and it further provided that amendments should likewise be submitted to the voters after having received legislative approval. By the middle of the nineteenth century the doctrine of the constitutional referendum was fairly fixed, and most of the constitutions since 1850, excepting those of Delaware (1897), Mississippi (1890), South Carolina (1895), and Virginia (1902), have been approved by popular vote. . . . The doctrine of popular referendum was also early extended to several important matters besides constitutions and amendments. . . . The leg-

islature of New York, in 1849, submitted the proposition of establishing free schools to the decision of the electors; and the question of woman suffrage was laid before the voters of Massachusetts in 1895. . . . It was not such a long step, therefore, from these and similar practices, to the adoption of a complete system of initiative and referendum, whereby the voters may initiate any measure or require the referendum on any legislative Act."—C. A. Beard, *American government and politics*, pp. 461-463.—"The nineteenth century closed with the initiative and referendum entrenched in the Constitution of only one State, South Dakota, but with a pertinacious agitation in progress in all parts of the Union. [See SOUTH DAKOTA: 1880-1912.] The ferment, of which the Farmers' Alliance movement was a prominent manifestation, and which came to influence and alter the entire form and character of the Democratic party, set forward on every side the work of the advocates of direct legislation. . . . Investigators in the field of comparative politics were pointing curious fingers at the initiative and referendum in Switzerland. It was made clear by such writers as Mr. Bryce and Woodrow Wilson that our political practice provided cases of popular law-making quite as interesting to the world. . . . The initiative and the referendum, to which has now been added the recall, *i.e.*, the removal of a public officer by vote of the people and the election of his successor [see RECALL], were in the hands of the 'reformer' at the end of the century. . . . and the movement is still in progress [written in 1912]. . . . Following South Dakota the people of Utah, on November 6, 1900, adopted an amendment to their Constitution which had been proposed by the legislature. It was arranged that the legal voters of the State, . . . may initiate legislation, and . . . 'require any law' passed by the legislature, unless it may have been by a two-thirds vote of the members of each house, to be submitted to the people. On similar terms the initiative and the referendum were authorized in 'legal subdivisions' of the State. . . . Meanwhile Oregon, the State in which the most enthusiasm for direct legislation has been evidenced and the most experience with it has been gained, was busily engaged in the work of changing its Constitution. The initiative and referendum amendment passed two successive legislatures, those of 1899 and 1901, and was adopted by the people on June 2, 1902, by a vote of 62,024 to 5,668. [See OREGON: 1902-1915.] Here as in South Dakota the legislative power of the State is vested in a bi-cameral representative assembly, but the people 'reserve to themselves' the right to propose and enact laws, and to call for a vote upon laws which have been enacted by the representative body. They may also initiate constitutional amendments, thus introducing a new feature into the general scheme for direct popular government in America. . . . The progress of the referendum was arrested in 1903, for in both Massachusetts and Missouri, in which States constitutional amendments were pending, the friends of the system met with defeat. . . . On the other hand, . . . a constitutional amendment was adopted by the people of Nevada [1904], introducing the referendum into the practice of that State. Ten per cent of the voters may call for the submission of 'any law or resolution made by the legislature.' A majority of those voting can approve or annul the measure. . . . Montana, another State imbued with the spirit of the frontier, instituted the reform in 1906. Here the people

may originate legislation, 'except as to laws relating to appropriations of money and except as to laws for the submission of constitutional amendments and except as to local or special laws as enumerated in Article V, Section 26.' The referendum may be invoked on acts which the legislature has passed, 'except as to laws necessary for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health, or safety,' and appropriation bills and those classes of special legislation excepted by the clause relating to the initiative. . . . By statutory legislation not founded upon constitutional authority the right of the initiative and referendum has been extended to towns and cities in Montana."—E. P. Oberholzer, *Referendum in America*, pp. 391, 396-397, 413-415.

"In 1907 the twin institutions, again travelling eastward, found lodgment in Maine. That year a constitutional amendment establishing them passed the State Legislature, and the next year was ratified by the people. The Initiative was instituted for the proposal of laws, but not for constitutional amendments, which were specifically exempted, upon petition of twelve thousand voters; the Referendum on legislative acts, by petition of ten thousand. It was provided that all acts of the Legislature, except those pertaining solely to its business, making appropriations therefor, or for the payment of salaries fixed by law, and measures of immediate urgency, shall be held for ninety days after the Legislature's adjournment, subject to the Referendum, which must be called for within that time. A measure proposed by the Initiative if passed by the Legislature without change is to stand enacted, without submission. But if such measure be not adopted it is then to be submitted, either alone, or together with one of the Legislature's drafting as an alternate choice. The Legislature may on its own motion enact measures conditioned upon their ratification by a Referendum vote. In all cases a majority of those voting only is necessary for approval. The use of both Initiative and Referendum was at the same time also extended to cities, with the requirement that the local ordinance establishing them be first approved by a majority vote of the citizens."—E. M. Bacon and M. Wyman, *Direct elections and law-making by popular vote*, pp. 41-42.—See also MAINE: 1875-1909.—"Oklahoma entered the Union in 1907, and its very long Constitution contained many radical provisions, the initiative and the referendum among the number. [See OKLAHOMA: 1907-1916.] . . . The legislature, as it was directed to do in the Constitution, has laid down rules for making the system effective. These are similar to the rules which are in use in Oregon, though some variant provisions are to be noted. The arguments are printed and distributed at the sole expense of the State. While in Oregon and Montana no limitation is placed upon the length of the arguments, except what is provided by the requirement that the private committees and organizations presenting them shall pay the cost of printing, Oklahoma stipulates that the statements shall not exceed 2,000 words on either side. . . . In Missouri, where the people had defeated a constitutional amendment in relation to the initiative and the referendum in 1904, the legislature revived the subject in 1907. The amendment when it was submitted this time—in November, 1908—was approved. Laws and constitutional amendments may be initiated by eight per cent of the legal voters 'in each of at least two-thirds of the Congressional districts in the State.' Submission of laws enacted by the legislature may be demanded within ninety days

by five per cent of the voters drawn from at least two-thirds of the Congressional districts, or the legislature, if it wish, may refer any law to the people on its own motion. Exception is made for 'laws necessary for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health or safety, and laws making appropriations for the current expenses of the State government, for the maintenance of the State institutions and for the support of public schools.' The system is made operative by legislation enacted in 1909. [See MISSOURI: 1912-1914.] . . . A new Constitution for the State of Michigan was adopted by the people in November, 1908. It contains some provisions which authorize a considerable enlargement of the popular share in law-making in that State, though it is doubtful if they will have practical use. Article V, Section 38, of the new Constitution provides: 'Any bill passed by the legislature and approved by the Governor, except appropriation bills, may be referred by the legislature to the qualified electors, and no bill so referred shall become a law unless approved by a majority of the electors voting thereon.' The people are also given a conditional right of initiative respecting constitutional amendments. . . . In 1910 the people of Arkansas adopted a constitutional amendment introducing the initiative and the referendum into the legislative system of that State. The plan in the main follows that which is in use in Oregon. . . . In 1910 the initiative and the referendum were adopted in great haste in Colorado. At an extra session the legislature, on September 2, [1910] referred a constitutional amendment to the people who approved it in November. . . . This amendment introduces the system in its favorite form. The initiative may be invoked by eight per cent of the legal voters on the subject of both laws and constitutional amendments; the referendum by five per cent of the legal voters. The referendum petition must be presented within a period of ninety days following the adjournment of the legislature. It may apply to entire acts or to items and parts of acts. The legislature itself may refer an act to the people. Exceptions are made for 'laws necessary for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health or safety, and appropriations for the support and maintenance of the department of State and State institutions.' Cities, towns and municipalities are vested with similar powers. Ten per cent can order the referendum and fifteen per cent can propose any measure in the local districts. The Arizona convention of 1910, in framing a constitution for the new State, whose admission to the Union has been sought at Washington [Arizona was admitted to the Union in 1912], adopted provisions on the subject of the initiative and referendum [passed, 1911].—E. P. Oberholtzer, *Referendum in America*, pp. 415-416, 422-425.—In 1911 California and New Hampshire adopted the initiative and referendum with some limitations. (See CALIFORNIA: 1911; 1920.) "Idaho in 1912 adopted a constitutional amendment authorizing the legislature of that state to establish the initiative and referendum, but up to the present time [1920] no legislation has been enacted in Idaho [because the self-enacting clause was omitted in the amendment]. Idaho may, therefore, be excluded from this list."—Illinois Legislative Reference Bureau, *Constitutional Convention Bulletin*, no. 1, pp. 80-81.—Nebraska, in 1912, adopted the initiative for statutes and for constitutional amendments and also the referendum. Ohio established the same reforms that

year, and in 1918 extended the referendum to federal amendments. Washington was another state that adopted the referendum, in 1912, and the initiative for statutes only. During the campaign of 1912, the initiative and referendum became important issues. Colonel Roosevelt came out in favor of them in his speech to the Ohio constitutional convention, and planks on the subject were embodied in the Progressive party platform of that year. The proposal for initiative and referendum was submitted to the voters of Mississippi in 1912 and failed, but was finally passed in 1914. North Dakota adopted them both in a limited form in 1914 and revised and extended the law in 1918. "Massachusetts [1918] provides for an indirect initiative both as to laws and constitutional amendments. . . . [It] has the most numerous limitations upon the use of the referendum. . . . The referendum is excluded from use with respect to a series of rights granted by the declaration of rights of that state. . . . Massachusetts excludes from the application of the initiative all of the matters . . . [not] subject to the referendum; measures relating to the recall of judges or 'to the reversal of a judicial decision' [etc.]."—Illinois Legislative Reference Bureau, *Initiative, referendum and recall (Constitutional Convention Bulletin, no. 2, pp. 85, 91-92)*.—"Maryland [1915] and New Mexico [1911] have only the referendum for state-wide legislation. Of the . . . [twenty-two] states having the initiative and referendum [in 1920] five do not apply the initiative to constitutional amendments. [These five states are: South Dakota, Utah, Montana, Maine and Washington.]"—Illinois Legislative Reference Bureau, *Constitutional Convention Bulletin, no. 1, pp. 80-81*.

**In city government.** See COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: 1907.

**Other countries.**—While the most important development of the initiative and referendum has taken place in Switzerland and in the United States the movement has not been altogether absent from other countries. The question has come under consideration in France, Norway, Sweden and England. The initiative and referendum are employed in New Zealand, and the referendum has been a part of the constitution of the Australian Commonwealth since the formation of the union.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1915.

See also RECALL.

ALSO IN: A. H. Eaton, *Oregon system*.—D. F. Wilcox, *Government by all the people, or the initiative, referendum and the recall as instruments of democracy*.—L. J. Jerome, *Initiative and referendum (Pamphlet of Massachusetts Direct Legislation League)*.—W. B. Munro, ed., *Initiative, referendum and recall*.—C. B. Galbreath, *Initiative and referendum (Ohio State Library, Legislative Reference Department, pamphlet)*.—C. A. Beard and B. E. Shultz, *Documents on the state-wide initiative, referendum and recall*.—A. L. Lowell, *Governments and parties in continental Europe, v. 2, pp. 238-300*.—L. F. Post, *Initiative and referendum (Proceedings of the National Municipal League, 1906, pp. 363-381)*.—W. S. U'Ren, *Results of the initiative and referendum in Oregon (Proceedings of the American Political Science Association, 1907, pp. 193-197)*.—J. D. Barnett, *Initiative, referendum and recall in Oregon*.—T. Curti, *Resultate des schweizerischen Referendums*.—J. M. Vincent, *Government in Switzerland, pp. 122-125, 46-47*.—S. Deploje, *Referendum in Switzerland (tr. by C. P. Trevelyan)*.—J. Boyle, *Initiative and referendum*.—W. E. J. Van Balveren, *Het referendum in Zwitserland*.—G. H. Haynes, *How*

*Massachusetts adopted the initiative and referendum* (*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1919, pp. 454-521).—J. Bourne, *Initiative, referendum and recall* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Jan., 1912).—A. Connors, *Initiative and referendum in 1915* (*American Political Science Review*, May, 1916).—F. Bonjour, *Démocratie Suisse*, pp. 84-157.

**INJUNCTIONS**, in labor disputes. See **COURTS**: United States: Right of court to issue injunctions; U.S.A.: 1908 (April-November).

**INK**, Invention of. See **BOOKS**: Writing materials.

**INKERMANN**, Battle of (1854). See **RUSSIA**: 1854-1856.

**INLAND NAVIGATION**. See **CANALS**; **COMMERCE**: Primitive: Transportation; Ancient: B.C. 1400; B.C. 1000-200; A.D. 200-600; Medieval: 12th-16th centuries; Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries; Commercial Age: 1770-1921; also specific names of rivers, as **AMAZON RIVER**, etc.

**INLAND WATERWAYS COMMISSION** (1907). See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES**: United States: 1907-1910.

**IMMEDIATISTAS**, name of political party. See **PHILIPPINE ISLANDS**: 1907.

**INNER AGA**, name of Turkish official. See **SUBLIME PORTE**.

**INNESS**, George (1825-1894), American landscape painter. See **PAINTING**: American.

**INNOCENT I** (d. 417), pope, 402-417.

**Innocent II** (d. 1143), pope, 1130-1143.

**Innocent III** (1161-1216), pope, 1198-1216. He restored papal authority in Rome and the states of the church and strengthened the power of the church over that of the state; forced Philip Augustus of France to take back his repudiated queen, 1200; inspired the fourth Crusade, 1202-1204; started a crusade against the Albigenses, 1208; deposed Otto IV, of the Holy Roman empire, 1210; forced John, king of England, to acknowledge papal sovereignty and pay a yearly feudal tribute, 1213; crowned Frederick of Sicily emperor of the Holy Roman empire, 1215; and presided over the fourth Lateran council, 1215. See **PAPACY**: 1122-1250; 1198-1216; 1198-1303; **ALBIGENSES**: 1200; **CRUSADES**: 1201-1203; **INQUISITION**: 1203-1525.

**Innocent IV** (d. 1254), pope, 1243-1254. Engaged in a feud with the Emperor Frederick II, and with his successors, Conrad and Manfred.

**Innocent V** (1225-1276), pope, 1276, January to June.

**Innocent VI** (d. 1362), pope, 1352-1362.

**Innocent VII** (1336-1406), pope, 1404-1406.

**Innocent VIII** (1432-1492), pope, 1484-1492.

**Innocent IX** (1519-1591), pope, 1591, October to December.

**Innocent X** (1574-1655), pope, 1644-1655. See **PAPACY**: 1644-1667.

**Innocent XI** (1611-1689), pope, 1678-1689.

**Innocent XII** (1615-1700), pope, 1691-1700. See **PAPACY**: 1682-1693.

**Innocent XIII** (1655-1724), pope, 1721-1724.

**INNSBRUCK**, capital of the Austrian Tyrol, taken by the Bavarians and French in 1809. See **GERMANY**: 1809-1810 (April-February).

**INNUIITS**, name of Eskimo tribe. See **ESKIMO FAMILY**.

**INOCULATION**. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Modern: 18th century: Preventive inoculation.

**INQUEST**. See **JURY**, **TRIAL BY**.

**INQUISITION**: 1203-1525.—**Definition**.—Relation to the age.—Origin of Holy Office.—St. Dominic and the Dominicans.—Episcopal inquisition.—Apostolical or papal inquisition.—Spanish inquisition and its terrible rule.—Estimate

of victims.—**Expulsion of Jews and Moors**.—"The most permanent defense of the Church against heresy was the establishment, under the headship of the Pope, of a system of courts designed to ferret out secret cases of unbelief and bring the offenders to punishment. These courts, which devoted their whole attention to the discovery and conviction of heretics, were called the Holy Inquisition. . . . The unfairness of the trials and the cruel treatment to which those suspected of heresy were subjected, through long imprisonment or torture,—inflicted with the hope of forcing them to confess their crime or to implicate others,—have rendered the name of the Inquisition infamous. Without by any means attempting to defend the methods employed, it may be remarked that the inquisitors were often earnest and upright men, and the methods of procedure of the Inquisition were not more cruel than those in the secular courts of the period. The assertion of the suspected person that he was not a heretic did not receive any attention, for it was assumed that he would naturally deny his guilt, as would any other criminal. A person's belief had, therefore, to be judged by outward acts. Consequently one might fall into the hands of the Inquisition by mere accidental conversation with a heretic, by some unintentional neglect to show due respect toward the Church rites, or by the malicious testimony of one's neighbors. This is really the most terrible aspect of the Inquisition and its procedure. If the suspected person confessed his guilt and abjured his heresy, he was forgiven and received back into the Church; but a penance of life imprisonment was imposed upon him as a fitting means of wiping away the unspeakable sin of which he had been guilty. If he persisted in his heresy, he was 'relaxed to the secular arm'; that is to say, the Church, whose law forbade it to shed blood, handed over the convicted person to the civil power, which burned him alive without further trial."—J. H. Breasted and J. H. Robinson, *Outlines of European history*, pt. I, pp. 483-484.—"In forming an estimate of the Inquisition, it is necessary to distinguish clearly between principles and historical facts on the one hand, and on the other those exaggerations or rhetorical descriptions which reveal bias and an obvious determination to injure Catholicism, rather than to encourage the spirit of tolerance and further its exercise. It is also essential to note that the Inquisition, in its establishment and procedure, pertained not to the spirit of belief, but to that of discipline. The dogmatic teaching of the Church is in no way affected by the question as to whether the Inquisition was justified in its scope, or wise in its methods, or extreme in its practice. . . . Heresy . . . was for society in those times what we call anarchy. Hence the severity with which heretics were treated by the secular power long before the Inquisition was established. As regards the character of these punishments, it should be considered that they were the natural expression not only of the legislative power, but also of the popular hatred for heresy in an age that dealt both vigorously and roughly with criminals of every type. . . . That such intolerance was not peculiar to Catholicism, but was the natural accompaniment of deep religious conviction in those, also, who abandoned the Church, is evident from the measures taken by some of the Reformers against those who differed from them in matters of belief."—J. Blötzer, *Inquisition* (*Catholic encyclopedia*, v. 8, p. 36).—"In the earlier ages of the Church, the definition of heresy had been committed to episcopal authority. But the cog-

nisance of heretics and the determination of their punishment remained in the hands of secular magistrates. At the end of the 12th century the wide diffusion of the Albigensian heterodoxy through Languedoc and Northern Italy alarmed the chiefs of Christendom, and furnished the Papacy with a good pretext for extending its prerogatives. Innocent III in 1203 empowered two French Cistercians, Pierre de Castelnau and Raoul, to preach against the heretics of Provence. [See also ALBIGENSES: 1209; 1210-1213; Results.] In the following year he ratified this commission by a Bull, which censured the negligence and coldness of the bishops, appointed the Abbot of Cîteaux Papal delegate in matters of heresy, and gave him authority to judge and punish misbelievers. This was the first germ of the Holy Office as a separate Tribunal. . . . Being a distinct encroachment of the Papacy upon the episcopal jurisdiction and prerogatives, the Inquisition met at first with some opposition from the bishops. The people for whose persecution it was designed, and at whose expense it carried on its work, broke into rebellion; the first years of its annals were rendered illustrious by the murder of one of its founders, Pierre de Castelnau. He was canonised, and became the first Saint of the Inquisition. . . . In spite of opposition, the Papal institution took root and flourished. Philip Augustus responded to the appeals of Innocent; and a crusade began against the Albigenses, in which Simon de Montfort won his sinister celebrity. During those bloody wars the Inquisition developed itself as a force of formidable expansive energy. Material assistance to the cause was rendered by a Spanish monk of the Augustine order, who settled in Provence on his way back from Rome in 1206. Domenigo de Guzman, known to universal history as S. Dominic, organised a new militia for the service of the orthodox Church between the years 1215 and 1219. His order, called the Order of the Preachers, was originally designed to repress heresy and confirm the faith by diffusing Catholic doctrine and maintaining the creed in its purity. It consisted of three sections: the Preaching Friars; nuns living in coventual retreat; and laymen, entitled the Third Order of Penitence or the Militia of Christ, who in after years were merged with the Congregation of S. Peter Martyr, and corresponded to the familiars of the Inquisition. Since the Dominicans were established in the heat and passion of a crusade against heresy, by a rigid Spaniard who employed his energies in persecuting misbelievers, they assumed at the outset a belligerent and inquisitorial attitude. Yet it is not strictly accurate to represent S. Dominic himself as the first Grand Inquisitor. The Papacy proceeded with caution in its design of forming a tribunal dependent on the Holy See and independent of the bishops. Papal Legates with plenipotentiary authority were sent to Languedoc, and decrees were issued against the heretics, in which the Inquisition was rather implied than directly named; nor can I find that S. Dominic, though he continued to be the soul of the new institution until his death, in 1221, obtained the title of Inquisitor. Notwithstanding this vagueness, the Holy Office may be said to have been founded by S. Dominic; and it soon became apparent that the order he had formed was destined to monopolise its functions. . . . This Apostolical Inquisition was at once introduced into Lombardy, Romagna and the Marches of Treviso. The extreme rigour of its proceedings, the extortions of monks, and the violent resistance offered by the communes, led to some relaxation of its original constitution. More authority had to be conceded to the bishops; and

the right of the Inquisitors to levy taxes on the people was modified. Yet it retained its true form of a Papal organ, superseding the episcopal prerogatives, and overriding the secular magistrates, who were bound to execute its biddings. As such it was admitted into Tuscany, and established in Aragon. Venice received it in 1289, with certain reservations that placed its proceedings under the control of Doge and Council. In Languedoc, the country of its birth, it remained rooted, at Toulouse and Carcassonne; but the Inquisition did not extend its authority over central and northern France. In Paris its functions were performed by the Sorbonne. Nor did it obtain a footing in England, although the statute 'De Haeretico Comburendo,' passed in 1401 at the instance of the higher clergy, sanctioned the principles on which it existed. . . . The revival of the Holy Office on a new and far more murderous basis, took place in 1484. We have seen that hitherto there had been two types of inquisition into heresy. The first, which remained in force up to the year 1203, may be called the episcopal. The second was the Apostolical or Dominican: it transferred this jurisdiction from the bishops to the Papacy, who employed the order of S. Dominic for the special service of the tribunal instituted by the Imperial Decrees of Frederick II. The third deserves no other name than Spanish, though, after it had taken shape in Spain, it was transferred to Portugal, applied in all the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, and communicated with some modifications to Italy and the Netherlands. Both the second and the third types of inquisition into heresy were Spanish inventions, patented by the Roman Pontiffs and monopolised by the Dominican order. But the third and final form of the Holy Office in Spain distinguished itself by emancipation from Papal and Royal control, and by a specific organisation which rendered it the most formidable of irresponsible engines in the annals of religious institutions. . . . Castile had hitherto been free from the pest. But the conditions of that kingdom offered a good occasion for its introduction. . . . During the Middle Ages the Jews of Castile acquired vast wealth and influence. Few families but felt the burden of their bonds and mortgages. Religious fanaticism, social jealousy, and pecuniary distress exasperated the Christian population; and as early as the year 1391, more than 5,000 Jews were massacred in one popular uprising. The Jews, in fear, adopted Christianity. It is said that in the 15th century the population counted some million of converts—called New Christians, or, in contempt, Marranos; a word which may probably be derived from the Hebrew Maranatha. These converted Jews, by their ability and wealth, crept into high offices of state, obtained titles of aristocracy, and founded noble houses. . . . It was a Sicilian Inquisitor, Philip Barberis, who suggested to Ferdinand the Catholic the advantage he might secure by extending the Holy Office to Castile. Ferdinand avowed his willingness; and Sixtus IV gave the project his approval in 1478. But it met with opposition from the gentler-natured Isabella. . . . Then Isabella yielded; and in 1481 the Holy Office was founded at Seville. It began its work by publishing a comprehensive edict against all New Christians suspected of Judaising, which offence was so constructed as to cover the most innocent observance of national customs. Resting from labour on Saturday; performing ablutions at stated times; refusing to eat pork or puddings made of blood; and abstaining from wine, sufficed to colour accusations of heresy. . . . Upon the publication of this edict, there was an exodus

of Jews by thousands into the fiefs of independent vassals of the crown—the Duke of Medina Sidonia, the Marquis of Cadiz, and the Count of Arcos. All emigrants were 'ipso facto' declared heretics by the Holy Office. During the first year after its foundation, Seville beheld 298 persons burned alive, and 79 condemned to perpetual imprisonment. A large square stage of stone, called the Quemadero, was erected for the execution of those multitudes who were destined to suffer death by hanging or by flame. In the same year, 2,000 were burned and 17,000 condemned to public penitence, while even a larger number were burned in effigy, in other parts of the kingdom. [See also Jews: Spain: 8th-15th centuries.] . . . In 1483 Thomas of Torquemada was nominated Inquisitor General for Castile and Aragon. Under his rule a Supreme Council was established, over which he presided for life. . . . In 1484 a General Council was held, and the constitution of the Inquisition was established by articles. . . . The two most formidable features of the Inquisition as thus constituted were the exclusion of the bishops from its tribunal and the secrecy of its procedure. . . . In the autumn of 1484 the Inquisition was introduced into Aragon; and Saragossa became its headquarters in that State. . . . The Spanish Inquisition was now firmly grounded. Directed by Torquemada, it began to encroach upon the crown, to insult the episcopacy, to defy the Papacy, to grind the Commons, and to outrage by its insolence the aristocracy. . . . The Holy Office grew every year in pride, pretensions and exactions. It arrogated to its tribunal crimes of usury, bigamy, blasphemous swearing, and unnatural vice, which appertained by right to the secular courts. It depopulated Spain by the extermination and banishment of at least three million industrious subjects during the first 130 years of its existence. . . . Torquemada was the genius of evil who created and presided over this foul instrument of human crime and folly. During his eighteen years of administration, reckoning from 1480 to 1498, he sacrificed, according to Llorente's calculation, above 114,000 victims, of whom 10,220 were burned alive, 6,860 burned in effigy, and 97,000 condemned to perpetual imprisonment or public penitence. He, too, it was who in 1492 compelled Ferdinand to drive the Jews from his dominions. . . . The edict of expulsion was issued on the last of March. Before the last of July all Jews were sentenced to depart, carrying no gold or silver with them. They disposed of their lands, houses, and goods for next to nothing, and went forth to die by thousands on the shores of Africa and Italy. . . . The exodus of the Jews was followed in 1502 by a similar exodus of Moors from Castile [see MOORS: 1492-1609], and in 1524 by an exodus of Mauresques from Aragon. To compute the loss of wealth and population inflicted upon Spain by these mad edicts would be impossible. . . . After Torquemada, Diego Deza reigned as second Inquisitor General from 1498 to 1507. In these years, according to the same calculation, 2,592 were burned alive, 896 burned in effigy, 34,052 condemned to prison or public penitence. Cardinal Ximenes de Cisneros followed between 1507 and 1517. The victims of this decade were 3,564 burned alive. . . . Adrian, Bishop of Tortosa, tutor to Charles V, and afterwards Pope, was Inquisitor General between 1516 and 1525. Castile, Aragon, and Catalonia, at this epoch, simultaneously demanded a reform of the Holy Office from their youthful sovereign. But Charles refused, and the tale of Adrian's administration was 1,620 burned alive, 560 burned in effigy, 21,845 condemned to prison or

public penitence. The total, during 43 years, between 1481 and 1525, amounted to 234,526, including all descriptions of condemned heretics. These figures are of necessity vague, for the Holy Office left but meagre records of its proceedings." —J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The Catholic reaction*, pt. 1, ch. 3. See also SPAIN: 1524-1526.

1487-1567.—Spread.—Holy office at Rome.—"The dread of the Spanish Inquisition was such that only in those dependencies early and completely subdued could it be introduced. Established in Sicily in 1487 its temporal jurisdiction was suspended during the years 1535-46, when it was revived by the fear of Protestantism. Even during its dark quarter, however, it was able to punish heretics. In an *auto* [see AUTO DA FÉ] celebrated at Palermo, of the twenty-two culprits three were Lutherans and nineteen Jews. The capitulation of Naples in 1503 expressly excluded the Spanish Inquisition, nor could it be established in Milan. The Portuguese Inquisition was set up in 1536. The New World was capable of offering less resistance. Nevertheless, for many years the inquisitorial powers were vested in the bishops sent over to Mexico and Peru, and when the Inquisition was established in both countries in 1570 it probably meant no increase of severity. The natives were exempt from its jurisdiction and it found little combustible material save in captured Protestant Europeans. A Fleming was burned at Lima in 1548, and at the first *auto* held at Mexico in 1574 thirty-six Lutherans were punished, all English captives, two by burning and the rest by scourging or the galleys. The same need of repelling Protestantism that had helped to give a new lease of life to the Spanish Inquisition, called into being her sister the Roman Inquisition. By the bull *Licet ab initio*, Paul IV reconstituted the Holy Office at Rome, directing and empowering it to smite all who persisted in condemned opinions lest others should be seduced by their example, not only in the papal states but in all the nations of Christendom. It was authorized to pronounce sentence on culprits and to invoke the aid of the secular arm to punish them with prison, confiscation of goods and death. Its authority was directed particularly against persons of high estate, even against heretical princes whose subjects were loosed from their obligation of obedience and whose neighbors were invited to take away their heritage. The procedure of the Holy Office at Rome was characterized by the Augustinian Cardinal Seripando as at first lenient, but later, he continues, 'when the superhuman rigor of Caraffa, one of the first Inquisitors General, held sway, the Inquisition acquired such a reputation that from no other judgment-seat on earth were more horrible and fearful sentences to be expected.' Besides the attention it paid to Protestants instituted very severe processes against Judaizing Christians and took cognizance also of seduction, of pimping, of sodomy, and of infringement of the ecclesiastical rules for fasting. The Roman Inquisition was introduced into Milan by Michael Ghislieri, afterwards pope, and flourished mightily under the protecting care of Borromeo, cardinal archbishop of the city. It was established by Charles V, notwithstanding opposition, in Naples. Venice also fought against its introduction but nevertheless finally permitted it. During the sixteenth century in that city there were no less than 803 processes for Lutheranism, 5 for Calvinism, 35 against Anabaptists, 43 for Judaism and 109 for sorcery. In countries outside of Italy the Roman Inquisition did not take root. Bishop Magrath endeavored in 1567 to give Ireland the benefit of the institution,



but naturally the English Government allowed no such thing."—P. Smith, *Age of the Reformation*, pp. 416-417.—See also ITALY: 1530-1600; JESUITS: 1573-1592; JEWS: 16th century.

1521-1568.—Introduction and work in the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1521-1555; 1562-1566; 1567-1573.

1546.—Revolt at Naples. See ITALY (South-ern): 1528-1570.

1550-1816.—Establishment in Peru. See PERU: 1550-1816.

1814-1820.—Restoration and abolition in Spain. See SPAIN: 1759-1788; 1808 (September-December); 1814-1827.

Parent of the modern jury. See COMMON LAW: 1066.

See also AUTO-DA-FÉ; CHRISTIANITY: 11th-16th centuries.

ALSO IN: C. T. Gorham, *Medieval inquisition*.—H. C. Lea, *History of the inquisition of Spain*.—Idem, *History of the inquisition of the Middle Ages*.—Idem, *Inquisition in the Spanish dependencies*.—J. A. Llorente, *History of the inquisition*, ch. 1-12.—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, pt. 1, ch. 7, 17.—R. Sabatini, *Torquemada and the Spanish inquisition*; *A history*.—R. K. B. Schmidt, *Königsrecht, Kirchenrecht und Stadtrecht beim Aufbau des Inquisition Processes*.—A. S. Turberville, *Mediæval heresy and the inquisition*.

INSANE: Early treatment of. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th-20th centuries.

INSCRIPTIONS, Cuneiform. See CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTIONS; ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan Age: B.C. 1200-750; ALPHABET: Deciphering the hieroglyphics; AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE WRITING.

INSOLVENCY. See BANKRUPTCY: Early development and general principles; COMMON LAW: 1813-1843.

INSTERBURG, Battle of. See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 1.

INSTITUT AGRONOMIQUE. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: France.

INSTITUT DE DROIT INTERNATIONAL. See INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909.

INSTITUT DE FRANCE. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern: France.

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL RIGHT. See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1904.

INSTITUTE OF THE CHRISTIAN BROTHERS. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th-20th centuries: Christian Brothers.

INSTITUTES, Teachers'. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Training of teachers.

INSTITUTES OF AURANGZEB. See INDIA: 1351-1767.

INSTITUTES OF JUSTINIAN (529). See CORPUS JURIS CIVILIS.

INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE PREVISION. See SPAIN: 1900-1909: Causes of discontent.

INSTRUCTIONS OF MARYLAND (1779). See MARYLAND: 1776-1784.

INSTRUMENT OF GOVERNMENT.—A constitutional document, known as the Instrument of Government, was drawn up by Cromwell's leading supporters, and accepted by him December 16, 1653. See ENGLAND: 1653 (December).

The following is the text of the Instrument of Government:

THE government of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging.

I. That the supreme legislative authority of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland,

and the dominions thereunto belonging, shall be and reside in one person, and the people assembled in Parliament; the style of which person shall be the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

II. That the exercise of the chief magistracy and the administration of the government over the said countries and dominions, and the people thereof, shall be in the Lord Protector, assisted with a council, the number whereof shall not exceed twenty-one, nor be less than thirteen.

III. That all writs, processes, commissions, patents, grants, and other things, which now run in the name and style of the keepers of the liberty of England by authority of Parliament, shall run in the name and style of the Lord Protector, from whom, for the future, shall be derived all magistracy and honours in these three nations; and have the power of pardons (except in case of murders and treason) and benefit of all forfeitures for the public use; and shall govern the said countries and dominions in all things by the advice of the council, and according to these presents and the laws.

IV. That the Lord Protector, the Parliament sitting, shall dispose and order the militia and forces, both by sea and land, for the peace and good of the three nations, by consent of Parliament; and that the Lord Protector, with the advice and consent of the major part of the council, shall dispose and order the militia for the ends aforesaid in the intervals of Parliament.

V. That the Lord Protector, by the advice aforesaid, shall direct in all things concerning the keeping and holding of a good correspondency with foreign kings, princes, and states; and also, with the consent of the major part of the council, have the power of war and peace.

VI. That the laws shall not be altered, suspended, abrogated, or repealed, nor any new law made, nor any tax, charge, or imposition laid upon the people, but by common consent in Parliament, save only as is expressed in the thirtieth article.

VII. That there shall be a Parliament summoned to meet at Westminster upon the third day of September, 1654, and that successively a Parliament shall be summoned once in every third year, to be accounted from the dissolution of the present Parliament.

VIII. That neither the Parliament to be next summoned, nor any successive Parliaments, shall, during the time of five months, be accounted from the day of their first meeting, be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, without their own consent.

IX. That as well the next as all other successive Parliaments, shall be summoned and elected in manner hereafter expressed; that is to say, the persons to be chosen within England, Wales, the Isles of Jersey, Guernsey, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, to sit and serve in Parliament, shall be, and not exceed, the number of four hundred. The persons to be chosen within Scotland, to sit and serve in Parliament, shall be, and not exceed, the number of thirty; and the persons to be chosen to sit in Parliament for Ireland shall be, and not exceed the number of thirty.

X. That the persons to be elected to sit in Parliament from time to time, for the several counties of England, Wales, the Isles of Jersey and Guernsey, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, and all places within the same respectively, shall be according to the proportions and numbers hereafter expressed: that is to say, Bedfordshire, 5; Bedford Town, 1; Berkshire, 5; Abingdon, 1; Reading, 1; Buckinghamshire, 5; Buckingham Town, 1; Aylesbury, 1; Wycomb, 1; Cambridgeshire,

4; Cambridge Town, 1; Cambridge University, 1; Isle of Ely, 2; Cheshire, 4; Chester, 1; Cornwall, 8; Launceston, 1; Truro, 1; Penryn, 1; East Looe and West Looe, 1; Cumberland, 2; Carlisle, 1; Derbyshire, 4; Derby Town, 1; Devonshire, 11; Exeter, 2; Plymouth, 2; Clifton, Dartmouth, Hardness, 1; Totnes, 1; Barnstable, 1; Tiverton, 1; Honiton, 1; Dorsetshire, 6; Dorchester, 1; Weymouth and Melcomb-Regis, 1; Lyme-Regis, 1; Poole, 1; Durham, 2; City of Durham, 1; Essex, 13; Malden, 1; Colchester, 2; Gloucestershire, 5; Gloucester, 2; Tewkesbury, 1; Cirencester, 1; Herefordshire, 4; Hereford, 1; Leominster, 1; Hertfordshire, 5; St. Alban's, 1; Hertford, 1; Huntingdonshire, 3; Huntingdon, 1; Kent, 11; Canterbury, 2; Rochester, 1; Maidstone, 1; Dover, 1; Sandwich, 1; Queenborough, 1; Lancashire, 4; Preston, 1; Lancaster, 1; Liverpool, 1; Manchester, 1; Leicestershire, 4; Leicester, 2; Lincolnshire, 10; Lincoln, 2; Boston, 1; Grantham, 1; Stamford, 1; Great Grimsby, 1; Middlesex, 4; London, 6; Westminster, 2; Monmouthshire, 3; Norfolk, 10; Norwich, 2; Lynn-Regis, 2; Great Yarmouth, 2; Northamptonshire, 6; Peterborough, 1; Northampton, 1; Nottinghamshire, 4; Nottingham, 2; Northumberland, 3; Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 1; Berwick, 1; Oxfordshire, 5; Oxford City, 1; Oxford University, 1; Woodstock, 1; Rutlandshire, 2; Shropshire, 4; Shrewsbury, 2; Bridgnorth, 1; Ludlow, 1; Staffordshire, 3; Lichfield, 1; Stafford, 1; Newcastle-under-Lyne, 1; Somersetshire, 11; Bristol, 2; Taunton, 2; Bath, 1; Wells, 1; Bridgwater, 1; Southamptonshire, 8; Winchester, 1; Southampton, 1; Portsmouth, 1; Isle of Wight, 2; Andover, 1; Suffolk, 10; Ipswich, 2; Bury St. Edmunds, 2; Dunwich, 1; Sudbury, 1; Surrey, 6; Southwark, 2; Guildford, 1; Reigate, 1; Sussex, 9; Chichester, 1; Lewes, 1; East Grinstead, 1; Arundel, 1; Rye, 1; Westmoreland, 2; Warwickshire, 4; Coventry, 2; Warwick, 1; Wiltshire, 10; New Sarum, 2; Marlborough, 1; Devizes, 1; Worcestershire, 5; Worcester, 2. Yorkshire.—West Riding, 6; East Riding, 4; North Riding, 4; City of York, 2; Kingston-upon-Hull, 1; Beverley, 1; Scarborough, 1; Richmond, 1; Leeds, 1; Halifax, 1. WALES.—Anglesey, 2; Brecknockshire, 2; Cardiganshire, 2; Carmarthenshire, 2; Carnarvonshire, 2; Denbighshire, 2; Flintshire, 2; Glamorganshire, 2; Cardiff, 1; Merionethshire, 1; Montgomeryshire, 2; Pembrokehire, 2; Haverfordwest, 1; Radnorshire, 2. The distribution of the persons to be chosen for Scotland and Ireland, and the several counties, cities, and places therein, shall be according to such proportions and number as shall be agreed upon and declared by the Lord Protector and the major part of the council, before the sending forth writs of summons for the next Parliament.

XI. That the summons to Parliament shall be by writ under the Great Seal of England, directed to the sheriffs of the several and respective counties, with such alteration as may suit with the present government to be made by the Lord Protector and his council, which the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal shall seal, issue, and send abroad by warrant from the Lord Protector. If the Lord Protector shall not give warrant for issuing of writs of summons for the next Parliament, before the first of June, 1654, or for the Triennial Parliaments, before the first day of August in every third year, to be accounted as aforesaid; that then the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal for the time being, shall, without any warrant or direction, within seven days after the said first day of June, 1654, seal, issue, and send abroad writs of summons (changing therein what is to be changed as aforesaid)

said) to the several and respective sheriffs of England, Scotland, and Ireland, for summoning the Parliament to meet at Westminster, the third day of September next; and shall likewise, within seven days after the said first day of August, in every third year, to be accounted from the dissolution of the precedent Parliament, seal, issue, and send forth abroad several writs of summons (changing therein what is to be changed) as aforesaid, for summoning the Parliament to meet at Westminster the sixth of November in that third year. That the said several and respective sheriffs, shall, within ten days after the receipt of such writ as aforesaid, cause the same to be proclaimed and published in every market-town within his county upon the market-days thereof, between twelve and three of the clock; and shall then also publish and declare the certain day of the week and month, for choosing members to serve in Parliament for the body of the said county, according to the tenor of the said writ, which shall be upon Wednesday five weeks after the date of the writ; and shall likewise declare the place where the election shall be made: for which purpose he shall appoint the most convenient place for the whole county to meet in; and shall send precepts for elections to be made in all and every city, town, borough, or place within his county, where elections are to be made by virtue of these presents, to the Mayor, Sheriff, or other head officer of such city, town, borough, or place, within three days after the receipt of such writ and writs; which the said Mayors, Sheriffs, and officers respectively are to make publication of, and of the certain day for such elections to be made in the said city, town, or place aforesaid, and to cause elections to be made accordingly.

XII. That at the day and place of elections, the Sheriff of each county, and the said Mayors, Sheriffs, Bailiffs, and other head officers within their cities, towns, boroughs, and places respectively, shall take view of the said elections, and shall make return into the chancery within twenty days after the said elections, of the persons elected by the greater number of electors, under their hands and seals, between him on the one part, and the electors on the other part; wherein shall be contained, that the persons elected shall not have power to alter the government as it is hereby settled in one single person and a Parliament.

XIII. That the Sheriff, who shall wittingly and willingly make any false return, or neglect his duty, shall incur the penalty of 2,000 marks of lawful English money; the one moiety to the Lord Protector, and the other moiety to such person as will sue for the same.

XIV. That all and every person and persons, who have aided, advised, assisted, or abetted in any war against the Parliament, since the first day of January 1641 (unless they have been since in the service of the Parliament, and given signal testimony of their good affection thereunto) shall be disabled and incapable to be elected, or to give any vote in the election of any members to serve in the next Parliament, or in the three succeeding Triennial Parliaments.

XV. That all such, who have advised, assisted, or abetted the rebellion of Ireland, shall be disabled and incapable for ever to be elected, or give any vote in the election of any member to serve in Parliament; as also all such who do or shall profess the Roman Catholic religion.

XVI. That all votes and elections given or made contrary, or not according to these qualifications, shall be null and void; and if any person, who is hereby made incapable, shall give his vote for

election of members to serve in Parliament, such person shall lose and forfeit one full year's value of his real estate, and one full third part of his personal estate; one moiety thereof to the Lord Protector, and the other moiety to him or them who shall sue for the same.

XVII. That the persons who shall be elected to serve in Parliament, shall be such (and no other than such) as are persons of known integrity, fearing God, and of good conversation, and being of the age of twenty-one years.

XVIII. That all and every person and persons seised or possessed to his own use, of any estate, real or personal, to the value of £200, and not within the aforesaid exceptions, shall be capable to elect members to serve in Parliament for counties.

XIX. That the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal, shall be sworn before they enter into their offices, truly and faithfully to issue forth, and send abroad, writs of summons to Parliament, at the times and in the manner before expressed; and in case of neglect or failure to issue and send abroad writs accordingly, he or they shall for every such offence be guilty of high treason, and suffer the pains and penalties thereof.

XX. That in case writs be not issued out, as is before expressed, but that there be a neglect therein, fifteen days after the time wherein the same ought to be issued out by the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal; that then the Parliament shall, as often as such failure shall happen, assemble and be held at Westminster, in the usual place, at the times prefixed, in manner and by the means hereafter expressed; that is to say, that the sheriffs of the several and respective counties, sheriffdoms, cities, boroughs, and places aforesaid, within England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, the Chancellor, Masters, and Scholars of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the Mayor and Bailiffs of the borough of Berwick-upon-Tweed, and other places aforesaid respectively, shall at the several courts and places to be appointed as aforesaid, within thirty days after the said fifteen days, cause such members to be chosen for their said several and respective counties, sheriffdoms, universities, cities, boroughs, and places aforesaid, by such persons, and in such manner, as if several and respective writs of summons to Parliament under the Great Seal had issued and been awarded according to the tenor aforesaid: that if the sheriff, or other persons authorized, shall neglect his or their duty herein, that all and every such sheriff and person authorized as aforesaid, so neglecting his or their duty, shall, for every such offence, be guilty of high treason, and shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof.

XXI. That the clerk, called the clerk of the Commonwealth in Chancery for the time being, and all others, who shall afterwards execute that office, to whom the returns shall be made, shall for the next Parliament, and the two succeeding Triennial Parliaments, the next day after such return, certify the names of the several persons so returned, and of the places for which he and they were chosen respectively, unto the Council; who shall peruse the said returns, and examine whether the persons so elected and returned be such as is agreeable to the qualifications, and not disabled to be elected: and that every person and persons being so duly elected, and being approved of by the major part of the Council to be persons not disabled, but qualified as aforesaid, shall be esteemed a member of Parliament, and be admitted to sit in Parliament, and not otherwise.

XXII. That the persons so chosen and assembled in manner aforesaid, or any sixty of them, shall

be, and be deemed the Parliament of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and the supreme legislative power to be and reside in the Lord Protector and such Parliament, in manner herein expressed.

XXIII. That the Lord Protector, with the advice of the major part of the Council, shall at any other time than is before expressed, when the necessities of the State shall require it, summon Parliaments in manner before expressed, which shall not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved without their own consent, during the first three months of their sitting. And in case of future war with any foreign State, a Parliament shall be forthwith summoned for their advice concerning the same.

XXIV. That all Bills agreed unto by the Parliament, shall be presented to the Lord Protector for his consent; and in case he shall not give his consent thereto within twenty days after they shall be presented to him, or give satisfaction to the Parliament within the time limited, that then, upon declaration of the Parliament that the Lord Protector hath not consented nor given satisfaction, such Bills shall pass into and become laws, although he shall not give his consent thereunto; provided such Bills contain nothing in them contrary to the matters contained in these presents.

XXV. That [Henry Lawrence, esq.; Philip lord visc. Lisle; the majors general Lambert, Desborough, and Skippon; lieutenant general Fleetwood; the colonels Edw. Montagu, Philip Jones, and Wm. Sydenham; sir Gilbert Pickering, sir Ch. Wolseley, and sir Anth. Ashley Cooper, Barts., Francis Rouse, esq., Speaker of the late Convention, Walter Strickland, and Rd. Major, esqrs.]—or any seven of them, shall be a Council for the purposes expressed in this writing; and upon the death or other removal of any of them, the Parliament shall nominate six persons of ability, integrity, and fearing God, for every one that is dead or removed; out of which the major part of the Council shall elect two, and present them to the Lord Protector, of which he shall elect one; and in case the Parliament shall not nominate within twenty days after notice given unto them thereof, the major part of the Council shall nominate three as aforesaid to the Lord Protector, who out of them shall supply the vacancy; and until this choice be made, the remaining part of the Council shall execute as fully in all things, as if their number were full. And in case of corruption, or other miscarriage in any of the Council in their trust, the Parliament shall appoint seven of their number, and the Council six, who, together with the Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal for the time being, shall have power to hear and determine such corruption and miscarriage, and to award and inflict punishment, as the nature of the offence shall deserve, which punishment shall not be pardoned or remitted by the Lord Protector; and, in the interval of Parliaments, the major part of the Council, with the consent of the Lord Protector, may, for corruption or other miscarriage as aforesaid, suspend any of their number from the exercise of their trust, if they shall find it just, until the matter shall be heard and examined as aforesaid.

XXVI. That the Lord Protector and the major part of the Council aforesaid may, at any time before the meeting of the next Parliament, add to the Council such persons as they shall think fit, provided the number of the Council be not made thereby to exceed twenty-one, and the quorum to be proportioned accordingly by the Lord Protector and the major part of the Council.

XXVII. That a constant yearly revenue shall be

raised, settled, and established for maintaining of 10,000 horse and dragoons, and 20,000 foot, in England, Scotland, and Ireland, for the defence and security thereof, and also for a convenient number of ships for guarding of the seas; besides £200,000 per annum for defraying the other necessary charges of administration of justice, and other expenses of the Government, which revenue shall be raised by the customs, and such other ways and means as shall be agreed upon by the Lord Protector and the Council, and shall not be taken away or diminished, nor the way agreed upon for raising the same altered, but by the consent of the Lord Protector and the Parliament.

XXVIII. That the said yearly revenue shall be paid into the public treasury, and shall be issued out for the uses aforesaid.

XXIX. That in case there shall not be cause hereafter to keep up so great a defence both at land or sea, but that there be an abatement made thereof, the money which will be saved thereby shall remain in bank for the public service, and not be employed to any other use but by consent of Parliament, or, in the intervals of Parliament, by the Lord Protector and major part of the Council.

XXX. That the raising of money for defraying the charge of the present extraordinary forces, both at sea and land, in respect of the present wars, shall be by consent of Parliament, and not otherwise: save only that the Lord Protector, with the consent of the major part of the Council, for preventing the disorders and dangers which might otherwise fall out both by sea and land, shall have power, until the meeting of the first Parliament, to raise money for the purposes aforesaid; and also to make laws and ordinances for the peace and welfare of these nations where it shall be necessary, which shall be binding and in force, until order shall be taken in Parliament concerning the same.

XXXI. That the lands, tenements, rents, royalties, jurisdictions and hereditaments which remain yet unsold or undisposed of, by Act or Ordinance of Parliament, belonging to the Commonwealth (except the forests and chases, and the honours and manors belonging to the same; the lands of the rebels in Ireland, lying in the four counties of Dublin, Cork, Kildare, and Carlow; the lands forfeited by the people of Scotland in the late wars, and also the lands of Papists and delinquents in England who have not yet compounded), shall be vested in the Lord Protector, to hold, to him and his successors, Lords Protectors of these nations, and shall not be alienated but by consent in Parliament. And all debts, fines, issues, amercements, penalties and profits, certain and casual, due to the Keepers of the liberties of England by authority of Parliament, shall be due to the Lord Protector, and be payable into his public receipt, and shall be recovered and prosecuted in his name.

XXXII. That the office of Lord Protector over these nations shall be elective and not hereditary; and upon the death of the Lord Protector, another fit person shall be forthwith elected to succeed him in the Government; which election shall be by the Council, who, immediately upon the death of the Lord Protector, shall assemble in the Chamber where they usually sit in Council; and, having given notice to all their members of the cause of their assembling, shall, being thirteen at least present, proceed to the election; and, before they depart the said Chamber, shall elect a fit person to succeed in the Government, and forthwith cause proclamation thereof to be made in all the three nations as shall be requisite; and the person that they, or the major part of them, shall elect as

aforesaid, shall be, and shall be taken to be, Lord Protector over these nations of England, Scotland and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging. Provided that none of the children of the late King, nor any of his line or family, be elected to be Lord Protector or other Chief Magistrate over these nations, or any the dominions thereto belonging. And until the aforesaid election be past, the Council shall take care of the Government, and administer in all things as fully as the Lord Protector, or the Lord Protector and Council are enabled to do.

XXXIII. That Oliver Cromwell, Captain-General of the forces of England, Scotland and Ireland, shall be, and is hereby declared to be, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging, for his life.

XXXIV. That the Chancellor, Keeper or Commissioners of the Great Seal, the Treasurer, Admiral, Chief Governors of Ireland and Scotland, and the Chief Justices of both the Benches, shall be chosen by the approbation of Parliament; and, in the intervals of Parliament, by the approbation of the major part of the Council, to be afterwards approved by the Parliament.

XXXV. That the Christian religion, as contained in the Scriptures, be held forth and recommended as the public profession of these nations; and that, as soon as may be, a provision, less subject to scruple and contention, and more certain than the present, be made for the encouragement and maintenance of able and painful teachers, for the instructing the people, and for discovery and confutation of error, hereby, and whatever is contrary to sound doctrine; and until such provision be made, the present maintenance shall not be taken away or impeached.

XXXVI. That to the public profession held forth none shall be compelled by penalties or otherwise; but that endeavours be used to win them by sound doctrine and the example of a good conversation.

XXXVII. That such as profess faith in God by Jesus Christ (though differing in judgment from the doctrine, worship or discipline publicly held forth) shall not be restrained from, but shall be protected in, the profession of the faith and exercise of their religion; so as they abuse not this liberty to the civil injury of others and to the actual disturbance of the public peace on their parts: provided this liberty be not extended to Popery or Prelacy, nor to such as, under the profession of Christ, hold forth and practice licentiousness.

XXXVIII. That all laws, statutes and ordinances, and clauses in any law, statute or ordinance to the contrary of the aforesaid liberty, shall be esteemed as null and void.

XXXIX. That the Acts and Ordinances of Parliament made for the sale or other disposition of the lands, rents and hereditaments of the late King, Queen, and Prince, of Archbishops and Bishops, &c., Deans and Chapters, the lands of delinquents and forest-lands, or any of them, or of any other lands, tenements, rents and hereditaments belonging to the Commonwealth, shall nowise be impeached or made invalid, but shall remain good and firm; and that the securities given by Act and Ordinance of Parliament for any sum or sums of money, by any of the said lands, the excise, or any other public revenue; and also the securities given by the public faith of the nation, and the engagement of the public faith for satisfaction of debts and damages, shall remain firm and good, and not be made void and invalid upon any pretence whatsoever.

XL. That the Articles given to or made with the enemy, and afterwards confirmed by Parliament, shall be performed and made good to the persons concerned therein; and that such appeals as were depending in the last Parliament for relief concerning bills of sale of delinquent's estates, may be heard and determined the next Parliament, anything in this writing or otherwise to the contrary notwithstanding.

XLI. That every successive Lord Protector over these nations shall take and subscribe a solemn oath, in the presence of the Council, and such others as they shall call to them, that he will seek the peace, quiet and welfare of these nations, cause law and justice to be equally administered; and that he will not violate or infringe the matters and things contained in this writing, and in all other things will, to his power and to the best of his understanding, govern these nations according to the laws, statutes and customs thereof.

XLII. That each person of the Council shall, before they enter upon their trust, take and subscribe an oath, that they will be true and faithful in their trust, according to the best of their knowledge; and that in the election of every successive Lord Protector they shall proceed therein impartially, and do nothing therein for any promise, fear, favour, or reward.

**INSTRUMENTS, Musical.** See **MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.**

**INSUBRIANS AND CENOMANIANS.**—These tribes of Cisalpine Gaul dwelt, one in the region of Milan, north of the Po, the other on the Mincio and the Adage. They were subjugated by the Romans, 222 B.C. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 295-197.**

**INSULAR DEPENDENCIES, United States.** See **TERRITORIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES; U. S. A.: 1900-1901.**

**INSURANCE: Marine insurance: Ancient.**—Development in Europe.—**Marine law.**—Lloyds and other companies.—“The practice of marine insurance may be regarded as the earliest form of indemnity, antedating other kinds of insurance by many hundred years. Even centuries before the introduction of marine underwriting as we know it to-day, the commercial nations of the ancient world secured the benefits of insurance through the so-called ‘loans on bottomry,’ e.g. loans made on the security of the ship and cargo at high rates of interest, and with the understanding that the principal with interest was to be repaid only in the event of the safe arrival of the vessel, and that the lender was to forfeit both principal and interest in case of loss. Instead, then, of paying a premium before starting the voyage, as is now the case, and receiving the indemnity after a loss is incurred the insured under the bottomry loan received the indemnity in advance, and only returned the same plus a premium after safe termination of the voyage. Such loans on bottomry, we are told, were especially sought after and entered into by members of the Roman nobility, who, too proud to interest themselves directly in commerce, and yet desirous of obtaining large interest returns, could here find a convenient method of investing their funds profitably, and at the same time avoid engaging personally in mercantile pursuits. That such loans were prevalent among the commercial peoples of early history is attested by the numerous references concerning such transactions which are found in the judicial and other literature of the Romans. In an edict of the Roman Emperor Justinian of A.D. 533, for example, the rate of premium on such loans was fixed at 12 per cent., implying at least that the practice must

have been very general at that time. Though indirect in form and partaking merely of the nature of quasi-insurance, this method of indemnifying loss by means of loans was nevertheless real insurance in its results. It should be borne in mind, however, that this method of indemnification is the only one approximating modern insurance of which antiquity furnishes us any clear and direct evidence. . . . Marine insurance as it exists to-day originated at a much later date than the loan on bottomry. Evidence seems to show that it had its start in Italy, especially among the Lombard merchants, at the close of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth century. From thence it spread to Flanders, Portugal, and Spain during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and was finally carried to England by the Lombards in the early part of the sixteenth century. As early as 1601 the British Parliament declared marine insurance to have existed from time immemorial. . . . Following its introduction in England, marine insurance spread to the various commercial centers of Europe [see **DANUBE: 17th-19th centuries**], its application becoming very general, if judged from the consideration given to the subject in the numerous commercial codes and ordinances of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. Finally, there followed the epoch-making Ordinance de la Marine of 1681, which became the model for practically all the modern codes of commercial law on the continent, including the law of marine insurance. In England, on the contrary, the development of the law concerning sea insurance did not begin to assume such clear and definite form until almost the middle of the eighteenth century. [See also **ADMIRALTY LAW.**] It was then that Lord Mansfield, in his efforts to formulate the commercial law of England, began to draw his legal principles very largely from the commercial ordinances and codes of the continent with a view of applying them to English conditions. His decisions practically constitute the foundation of marine insurance law in England, and in turn have become the basis of American decisions. As supplementing this lengthy and continuous legal development, it is important to note that the Lloyd's policy prevailing in England to-day is very similar to the policy which was in use in the early part of the seventeenth century, and that many features of the English policy have in turn been incorporated in the policies used in America. In other words, we have in marine insurance several centuries of usage and judicial interpretation relating to the signification of a single document. Turning now to the financial development of the business as distinct from the legal, marine insurance has naturally reached its highest efficiency in the United Kingdom. Its history in that country, whose merchant marine for many decades comprised nearly half of the ocean-going tonnage of the world, has been rendered famous by the close identification of the business with the world renowned corporation of Lloyds. This gigantic institution had its origin in a mere seamen's coffee house, established by an Edward Lloyd near the middle of the seventeenth century. This enterprising and energetic man, besides making his coffee house a convenient place of meeting of merchants and seamen, also created an elaborate system of home and foreign correspondents to supply him with news from all the leading ports of the world concerning the movements and character of vessels for the information of his patrons. In fact, at first the underwriting of marine risks was a subordinate feature of his business. The systematic manner, however, in which maritime information

was collected and disseminated soon won for him a large following, and made his coffee house, among the many others existing in London, the principal meeting place for merchants and professional underwriters who, unhampered by any rules or regulations, assembled there and transacted a general marine business. Thus it came to pass that Lloyds soon outgrew its early usefulness, was transferred in 1692 from its original location in Tower Street to Lombard Street, and finally, in 1774, to the Royal Exchange of London, and there developed into the chief center of marine insurance in the United Kingdom, and, for that matter, in the world. From this account it is not to be inferred that marine insurance in the United Kingdom is confined to Lloyds or to British shipping. Prior to the beginning of the eighteenth century the business was, it is true, confined almost entirely to the plan of Lloyds, according to which individuals assumed risks upon the strength of their personal honesty and financial standing in the community. Indeed, it was the practice of various individuals subscribing their names to the insurance contract for a certain portion of the total risk that gave rise to the familiar term 'underwriter.' But gradually companies began to participate in the same business that Lloyds was pursuing. The movement seemed to gain strength rapidly, when, in 1720, the British government in return for a payment of £300,000 to the Exchequer limited the privilege of insuring marine risks to only two companies besides Lloyds, namely, the London Assurance Corporation and the Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation. Shortly after, however, this monopoly was removed and since then, especially during the nineteenth century, numerous corporations in London, Liverpool, and Glasgow with vast accumulated assets and far-reaching importance, have risen alongside the unique and unrivaled corporation of Lloyds, and, like that institution, have extended their influence to all corners of the earth. So effective, in fact, has the competition of the powerful insurance companies become that Lloyds, although yet the center of attraction in the marine business, has largely ceased to possess the dominating influence of former days. It is estimated that Great Britain to-day [written in 1905] transacts about six-eighths of the sea insurance of the world, a proportion so large that one can look for an explanation only to the preponderating importance of Great Britain as a shipping nation."—S. Huebner, *Development and present status of marine insurance in the United States* (*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, v. 26, pp. 423-426).—In 1921 the total amount of the premiums of forty companies in Great Britain according to the "Insurance Year Book" for 1922, amounted to £14,438,123.

**Marine insurance: Development in the United States.**—"A review of marine insurance in the United States shows that its development as well as its present status is radically different from that in England as just described. In the first place, the business has been conducted almost altogether by corporations, the Lloyds system of underwriting, though often tried, having never obtained a prominent foothold in this country. Secondly, while British companies have had a long and prosperous career, the companies of the United States, with few exceptions, have either failed or changed the character of their business. If we are justified in fixing definite limits, the development of the business in this country seems to divide itself into four main epochs, each with distinctive characteristics of its own. The dates of these periods may be roughly placed at 1793

as marking the end of the first period, 1793 to 1840 as indicating the limits of the second period, 1840 to 1860 the third, and 1860 to the present time the final period. During the first period, extending to the end of the eighteenth century, the only form of insurance upon goods or vessels of which we have definite knowledge was by personal underwriters. Resort was had at first to the private underwriters of Great Britain, frequent mention being found in early colonial correspondence concerning London indemnity for American shipping. Even as late as 1721 there was as yet no insurance office in Philadelphia, dependence being placed mostly upon foreign underwriters. In that year we find a Mr. John Copson advertising in the *American Weekly Mercury* of May 25, the opening by him of an office of public insurance on vessels, goods, and merchandise. . . . Four years later Mr. Francis Rawle, of Philadelphia, advised the establishment of a marine insurance office under colonial legislative sanction. . . . Following Mr. Copson's and Mr. Rawle's pioneer attempts to establish insurance offices, few efforts were made to follow in their footsteps. . . . In New York City it was not until 1759 that the first marine insurance office was opened, and not until 1778 that the New Insurance Office was established. The underwriting in all these cases continued to be by individuals or partnerships only, who generally represented wealthy citizens of the community. It was not until near the close of the eighteenth century that a number of citizens of Philadelphia succeeded in inducing the General Assembly of Pennsylvania to charter a marine insurance company, capitalized at \$600,000. . . . The Assembly, in the year 1704, chartered the Insurance Company of North America, the first stock company of its kind upon the continent whose name it bore. . . . In the very first year of active business the company refused to write for private offices, and 'realizing its strength, made public advertisement of their rules, and invited orders to be addressed directly to the company.' This important step toward the establishment of corporate underwriting with all its advantages was soon to serve as a model for similar undertakings in other parts of the country, and before another decade had passed the Insurance Company of North America was to have active associates in its own home as well as in New York, Boston, Baltimore, Charleston, and other places. In 1706 was established the Insurance Company of New York in New York City, followed by the Associated Underwriters of the same city in 1707, the United in 1797, Columbian in 1801, Washington Mutual in 1802, Marine in 1802, Commercial in 1804, Phoenix in 1807, Firemen's in 1810, Ocean in 1810, and others. In Philadelphia there followed the Insurance Company of the State of Pennsylvania in 1704, the Phoenix in 1803, the Philadelphia in 1804, Delaware in 1804, Marine in 1809, and the United States in 1810. Boston also came into the field at an early date, the Massachusetts Fire and Marine Company being organized in that city in 1705, and the Boston Marine in 1700; while among other early companies of importance may be mentioned the Charitable Marine Society of Baltimore, organized in 1706; the New Haven Insurance Company, of New Haven, in 1707; the Charleston Insurance Company, of Charleston, S. C., in 1797, and the Newburyport Marine, of Newburyport, Mass., in 1797. So rapid, in fact, was the movement of incorporating insurance companies that prior to 1800 thirty-two insurance companies had been established in this country, of which ten were doing a marine business. By 1811 there existed in Philadelphia

alone eleven companies, seven of which were marine companies and one a fire-marine company, while by 1825 there were twelve marine stock companies in New York, and at least a dozen in Boston. Prior to 1830 the history of these companies may be characterized as one of periodical prosperity and depression. . . . So great was the competition that at the close of 1825 the stock of only four of the twelve stock companies in New York was quoted at or above par. Beginning with 1828 marine insurance companies were also obliged to pay extraordinary losses occasioned by fraudulent wrecks on the Atlantic, Gulf, and West India coasts. Estimates place the losses incurred in this way at one-third of the total loss sustained by companies during the twenty years preceding 1840. It was not till 1844 that the companies of Philadelphia, for example, managed to organize a protective association through whose action these heavy losses by fraud could be averted. Beginning with the fifth decade, the business again showed signs of gradual revival, and the twenty years following 1840 may be justly characterized as the 'golden period' of American marine insurance. It was during these years that the American clipper ship received its highest development, and became probably the most efficient carrier in the world. . . . But this period of unparalleled growth proved to be but temporary, and was followed by an epoch, extending to the present [1905], as disastrous to the business as the preceding period had been beneficial. For many years marine insurance had kept in the forefront of our commercial life, and could indeed be ranked with fire insurance in importance. It began to show unmistakable signs of decay . . . when the American flag began to vanish from the sea. This decline has been continuous and unchecked. In fact, during the last thirty-five years marine insurance by native companies has had to struggle for its life."—*Ibid.*, pp. 432-435, 437-438.—According to the statistics in the "Insurance Year Book" for 1922, the total income of fire and marine insurance companies for the year ending December 31, 1921, was \$624,271,578 of 304 American stock companies, \$105,050,826 of 403 mutuals; and \$186,500,003 of 95 foreign stock companies. Separate statistics for marine and fire insurance are not available.

**Marine insurance: Provisions in Treaty of Versailles.** See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part X: Section V: Annex II.

**Life insurance: Early forms.—Development from marine insurance.—Opposition.—Lack of scientific basis.—London Bills of Mortality.—Discovery and application of theory of probabilities.—First English companies based on scientific lines.—"Life insurance was an outgrowth of marine insurance, just as marine insurance was an outgrowth of commerce. . . . It was not an uncommon event in these earlier days, specially in the Mediterranean, for a ship to be captured by pirates and it was by no means uncommon for the captain of the ship, who was usually its part owner, to deposit a certain sum to be used in ransoming him in the event of his capture. The next development was to insure the captain's life for the duration of the voyage, which of course was term insurance."—W. A. Hutcheson, *Evolution of life insurance*, pp. 337, 339.—"The question as to whether or not life insurance was known to the ancients has received no small degree of attention on the part of several distinguished jurists and commercial historians, and there seem to be traces of something resembling insurance in the days of ancient Rome. The Roman Collegia, which were unions of a religious nature, had amongst their**

other features, provisions for burial of their members. . . . It would seem . . . that there is considerable analogy between these Roman Collegia and our present mutual life insurance companies: I cannot find, however, that they had either actuaries to guide them aright or agents to canvass for new members. In passing, it is of interest to state also that the legionaries of the Roman Army had provisions made for them, just as there were provisions made for our own soldiers and sailors under the Insurance Act of 1917; first, the Romans were given pensions on completion of a period of service; second, they were required to save by being compelled to deposit half of any sums given to them in certain events, e.g., the amounts distributed when they won a victory, and these sums were returned, without interest, on retirement, or were paid to their relatives on death, which provision seems somewhat akin to endowment insurance. . . . If we turn to England, before the Norman Conquest, we find similar organizations for bearing one another's burdens. Every freeman of 14 years whose rank and property did not afford an ostensible guarantee for his good conduct, was compelled after the reign of Athelstan (925-940 A.D.) to find a surety to keep the peace. Certain neighbors composed of ten families, which combination was called a 'Tithing,' bound themselves for one another either to produce any one of their number who offended against the law or to make pecuniary satisfaction for the offense. These Tithings raised a fund by mutual payments, and out of this fund 'pecuniary satisfaction' was paid. . . . After the Norman Conquest, the ancient 'Friendly Societies' were established in England. At their meetings, each member had to make some contribution to the common fund, and when any member got into trouble, or died, the common fund and each other member were called upon to help out. Later on, Guilds were established, some for the express promotion of religion, others for charity, and still others for trade. . . . They were originally charitable organizations to help their brother members in need. [See GUILDS.] At these Guild meetings, 'the sick man's box' and the 'dead man's box' were passed around, so that sickness insurance as well as life insurance of a primitive nature was in existence in these days. The payments to the Guilds were voluntary and the amounts received by the beneficiaries were uncertain. Later on, 'Tontine Funds' were formed; each member paid either a single or an annual contribution, and the income, or a certain proportion of the accumulated fund, was divided amongst the survivors at the end of each year; the whole fund went either to the last survivor, or to some definite number of last survivors, or to the survivors at the end of some definite period of years, according to the rules of each particular fund. In none of these cases was the law of averages, based on previous experience, made the basis of the payment to the fund or the benefit to members, and it is not to be wondered at when we consider that so many forces were working which threw out the law of averages, or which at any rate made it impossible to recognize that there was any such law. Take the various visitations of the plague. In 1686, Sir William Petty in an 'Essay concerning the Multiplication of Mankind' tells us that (a plague happeneth in London once in twenty years, or thereabouts,' and he added that such plagues 'do commonly kill one-fifth part of the inhabitants.' . . . In 1661 'another kind of insurance [was] made by other nations than France upon the life of men, in case of their decease upon their voyage, to pay certain sums to

their heirs or creditors.' This is term insurance and such insurance was the first kind of life insurance of which we have any record. It will be observed, however, that such term insurance was forbidden in France as against good morals and customs of the times. At a still earlier date life insurance was forbidden in the Netherlands. The 24th Article of the Amsterdam Ordinance of 1508 recites: 'We expressly prohibit insurance of the life of any person, and likewise wagers upon any voyage or frivolous purpose; and where they are made, we declare them void.' In 1681, the 10th Article of the great French Marine Ordinance of Louis XIV says, 'We forbid the making of any insurance on the life of men,' but the 11th Article of these Ordinances goes on to qualify 'his statement by saying that 'Nevertheless, those who shall redeem captives may have the price of the redemption assured upon the persons whom they withdraw from slavery, which the assurers are bound to pay, if the redeemed on his way back is retaken, killed, drowned, or if he perish by other means than natural death.' In 1783, life insurance was still regarded as obnoxious in France. Emerigon, in his work on insurance, states that 'At Naples, Florence, in England, and other places, assurances on the lives of men are allowed to be made; but this kind of assurances are not assurances properly so called, they are true wagers. These wagers, improperly called assurances, are prohibited in Holland and in several other countries. For a long time they have been prohibited in France and this prohibition has been renewed by the marine ordinance. Man is beyond price. The life of man is not an object of trade, and it is odious for his death to become matter for mercantile speculation. And, as observes Grivel, these kinds of wager are of sad augury, and may occasion crimes. Such assurances are therefore absolutely void. The premium stipulated is not even due.' The ban was lifted in 1788, the Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars intervened, and life insurance was not successfully introduced in France until 1810.

"In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, gaming was very prevalent all over Europe, and we must remember this fact in connection with these prohibitions on insurance. Gambling on the duration of human lives and other events became so popular in Britain that in 1774 'The Gambling Act' was passed by Parliament prohibiting insurance except when there was an insurable interest. The Preamble of this Act reads in part as follows: 'Whereas it hath been found by experience, that the making insurances on lives, or other events, wherein the assured shall have no interest, hath introduced a mischievous kind of gaming.' The Act then goes on to prohibit such insurances and ends up by providing 'always, that nothing herein contained shall extend . . . to insurances *bona fide* made by any person or persons, on ships, goods, or merchandises.' . . . This Act was passed in 1774 when insurance was in its infancy and before the formation of many insurance companies. When an *individual* or a group of individuals undertakes to act as insurer either of a single life or of a single event, it is in the nature of a wager unless he covers a sufficiently large number of lives, or events, to justify him in counting upon the operation of the law of averages. This insuring a sufficiently large number of lives is what a life insurance company does, and it is this, *inter alia*, that takes it out of the gambling class. As far as the insured is concerned, he must have some *bona fide* interest (independent of the policy) in the life insured, or the event, to take his policy out of the class of wagers. . . . It was not until 1706 that

the first life insurance company was formed. This company was the Amicable of London. It was founded on principles of mutual benevolence and not on scientific principles. It was what we might call a Mortuary Tontine Company. Each member paid 10 shillings entrance fee, a monthly premium of 10/- with an additional 1/- per quarter, making a total annual charge of £6.4/- irrespective of age, but only those between ages 12 and 45 were admitted, and the membership was at first limited to 2,000. The amount insured was indefinite. . . . It was not until 1807, or 45 years after the Old Equitable . . . had started business; that the Amicable commenced to write insurance on the ordinary plan, insuring definite amounts and charging premiums graduated according to age at issue. Until the Amicable started business in 1706, the small amount of life insurance issued had been underwritten by individuals or groups of individuals, and it had always been on the one-year term plan, *without right to renew*, but the Amicable's policy was renewable as the Society's full title—The Amicable Society for a *Perpetual Assurance Office*—indicates. The Amicable was amalgamated with the Norwich Union in 1866. In the year 1720, i.e., 14 years after the establishment of the Amicable in 1706, two stock companies were formed in London—the London Assurance and the Royal Exchange. These companies are still in active existence and celebrated their 200th anniversaries this year [1922]. The Royal Charters, granted them in 1720, authorized them to write marine insurance, and both companies were given additional charters in 1721 to write life and fire insurance. One difference between the Amicable and these other two companies was that the Amicable *did not* guarantee a definite sum at death, but simply a pro rata share of the definite amount set aside for payment of death claims each year, whereas the London Assurance and the Royal Exchange *guaranteed* a definite sum at death. . . . The time was not yet ripe [in 1721] . . . for life insurance based on scientific lines, because mortality tables, the foundation on which all life insurance is built, had not yet been compiled."—*Ibid.*, pp. 331-334, 342-345, 348.

The "London Bills of Mortality . . . were the precursors of our Mortality Tables. The 'Bills of Mortality' were published at irregular intervals in England at this time—in fact, they were so published for 300 years from 1538 to 1836—giving lists of the numbers of christenings (which were, of course, less than the number of births, for only those christened according to the rites of the Established Church were recorded) and also the numbers of burials, arranged in 1629 and later according to the causes of death. These Bills of Mortality seem to have had their origin in a Commission for a General Visitation of Religious Establishments granted by Henry VIII to Thomas Cromwell, Vicar General, in 1535, when he broke with the papal authorities and was declared 'Supreme Head of the Church.' In 1538 new Protestant Rules and Regulations for the Kingdom were issued, and amongst them was an injunction, made September, 1538, by Cromwell, to the effect that every 'Parson, Vicar or Curate' was to keep a true and faithful account of all 'weddings, christenings and funerals' in his particular parish, subject to a penalty of three shillings and four pence for every omission. The system of registration so inaugurated seems to have fallen into disuse during the reign of Queen Mary, in whose reign the Papal supremacy was re-established, but it was again put into force in 1558 on Elizabeth's accession to the throne. Until 1562, London seems



to have evaded these registration ordinances, but, in this year, the subject of mortality acquired a fearful interest in London by the visitation of the plague and registration seems to have been instituted then in London. . . . These Bills of Mortality were issued continuously from 1603 until 1836. They were no longer required thereafter, for in 1837 registration of births and deaths became compulsory in England. In 1728, for the first time, the numbers of deaths, occurring under two years of age, between 2 and 5, 5 and 10, and then in 10-year groups of ages, were stated in the Bills of Mortality, but without information as to the causes of death at the various ages. . . . For the next 100 years the ages were given and then in 1837 registration of births and deaths became compulsory in England. The records of the city of Breslau, in Silesia, however, gave the age at death and the sex, and in 1693 Dr. Edmund Halley (born October 29, 1656), the Astronomer Royal of England, and the discoverer of the Halley Comet, published a mortality table deduced from these Breslau death records and from the birth records there for the five years 1687 to 1691, inclusive. He arranged his life table in the form in which such tables are still used. . . . It was one thing, however, to keep birth and death records, but it was quite a different matter to make use of them. That required the development of the theory of probabilities. Fortunately, however, coincident with the collection of these statistics, a Frenchman—a profound and versatile thinker—Blaise Pascal (1623-1662) applied himself to the study of the problem of chances (or probabilities as we now generally call them) and he established the first principles of the doctrine of chances which was necessary in laying the foundation of the theory of vital statistics and its application to the calculation of life contingencies. . . . However, it was Johan de Witt, the illustrious Dutch Statesman and Mathematician, at that time Grand Pensionary of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, who first conceived the idea of applying the doctrine of probabilities to the valuation of human life. The Netherlands, at that time fighting with England and France, had for some time been raising money by the sale of life annuities based on 'nine years' purchase,' irrespective of the age of the annuitant, and these annuities were generally made to depend upon the lives of young nominees, so that De Witt's problem was to find the highest value of a life annuity, or the number of years' purchase which his Government could, with perfect safety, fix as a uniform selling price. In 1671, De Witt presented a report to the States-General, estimating the value of a life annuity at age 3 (assuming 4 per cent. interest) at 16 years' purchase. . . . As it was money, and not correct annuity rates, that the Government wanted, De Witt's treatise was suppressed until 180 years later, when, in 1851, Mr. Frederick Henriks, the famous British Actuary, recovered the Report and Calculations in the 'Resolutions of the States of Holland and West Friesland' for the year 1671. . . . The first use to which mortality tables were put was the calculation of the premiums for the purchase of annuities, and, in fact, the first life insurance company of which we have record was one started in London by the Mercers' Company in 1698 for the purpose of selling annuities for the widows of clergymen and others.

"Life insurance on scientific lines dates from the year 1762, for in that year the first company to write ordinary life policies and to charge premiums graded according to age at issue commenced business. This company, the Equitable Life Assur-

ance Society—the 'Old Equitable' of London—was the first *mutual* life insurance company. The promotion of the Equitable was commenced several years earlier, but its establishment was delayed for some time by the opposition of the three existing companies—the Amicable, the London Assurance and the Royal Exchange. The name 'Equitable' was given it because the premiums were to be proportionate to the chance of death at each age. In addition, it contemplated charging extra premiums for hazardous risks. From its earliest days it issued life as well as term policies, it allowed 30 days of grace for payment of premiums, and an additional three months for reinstatement on evidence of good health. No medical examination of applicants for insurance was required in these days, but the applicant had to appear before the Board of Directors and he had to undergo a cross-examination both as to his family history and personal condition of health. It also contemplated dividends to its members, so that it was really a 'mutual' company in the present sense of that word. Last, but not least, it provided for an actuary. . . . In 1815, The Scottish Widows Fund and Life Assurance Society, which is still the most representative British life company, commenced business on the mutual plan. It was originally intended to be a society for the issuance of life annuities. Its original prospectus issued in the year 1811 stated that it was a plan to establish a general fund for securing provision to widows, sisters, and other females. In 1812, the second prospectus, however, stated that it was a plan for establishing a general fund for securing provision to widows, sisters, etc., and for insuring capital sums on lives. The 'Scottish Widows' was avowedly framed on the lines of the Old Equitable. . . . Its original premiums were based on the net Northampton Table of Mortality and 4 per cent. interest, with a loading of 2½ per cent. They issued ordinary life, limited payment and single payment life as well as term policies from the start. These original premium rates held good until 1864 when new rates based on Joshua Milne's Carlisle Table of Mortality and 3 per cent. interest were put in force. They paid cash surrender values and made loans on policies from the beginning, even after payment of only one premium."—W. A. Hutcheson, *Evolution and life insurance*, pp. 334-335, 340-351, 350-360.—That the life insurance business in Great Britain has resumed a normal course of development since the World War is shown by the fact that the amount of new business in 1920 broke all previous records.

Life insurance: Italy.—Question of state monopoly. See ITALY: 1909-1911.

Life insurance: Sweden. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Sweden: 1884-1910.

Life insurance: Development in the United States.—Stock and mutual companies.—Crisis.—Recovery.—"It was seven years after the first fire insurance company came into existence in America that the first life insurance company had its origin. In 1750 the Presbyterian synods of New York and Philadelphia procured a charter from the proprietary government of Pennsylvania for a corporation whose purposes were fully expressed in its title, 'A Corporation for the Relief of Poor and Distressed Presbyterian Ministers and of the Poor and Distressed Widows and Children of Presbyterian Ministers.' This institution, which has become a life insurance company, the oldest now existing, was a growth, not a creation of one year. A fund had previously existed in aid of the poorly supported clergy, and the ministers had

expressed a wish that, by some fund, like payment could be granted to their surviving wives and children. . . . Soon after [1800] . . . there began to be some active interest shown in life insurance covering the whole of life. Level premium life insurance had now been in operation in England for more than a generation. Some correspondence had taken place between people in the States and the English life insurance companies. Early in 1807 the Pelican Life Insurance Company of London established an office in Philadelphia. In various sections of the country the idea of insurance was penetrating from England. Already an association called the 'Pennsylvania Company for the Insurance on Lives' was projected, and while the project matured slowly, it was in readiness for formal organization late in 1809. The organization of this company marks the beginning of life insurance in the United States upon a business basis. This company was capitalized at \$500,000. The policy forms were copied from those in use in England and the rates charged were those charged by the London companies, raised in some localities to offset what was considered a heavier mortality rate. In 1818 the Massachusetts legislature chartered the Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company. This was a stock company capitalized at \$500,000 and empowered to do a life insurance and trust business. . . . The company did very little life insurance business, and no other life insurance companies were organized in Massachusetts for twenty years. . . . The next company organized to do a life insurance business was the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company. Chartered in 1830, it issued during the first nine years of its existence nearly two thousand policies. It, too, was a stock company with a capital of a million dollars. Several characteristics are common to all three of these first corporations organized in America to furnish life insurance. All were stock companies with large capitalization; all were chartered to do two kinds of business, life insurance and trust business; all have given up the issue of life insurance policies and all survive as prominent trust and banking companies in the cities where they were first chartered. With the chartering of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company by Massachusetts in 1835, and the Girard Life and Trust Company by Pennsylvania in the following year, a new era in life insurance history in the United States began. So far, outside of the half charitable plans for the Presbyterian and Episcopal corporations already noticed, all life insurance was being conducted on the stock plan. News of the great success of the Equitable of England began to be known in America. Even the stock companies were advertising this success as a means of inducing people to take out life insurance. . . . The Equitable was a mutual company, that is, a corporation without capital stock. Every policy-holder was a member and shared in the profits which were made. With the constant attention which was now being directed to the Equitable, it would have been strange if a company had not been organized in America on a similar plan. The New England Mutual Life Insurance Company of Boston was chartered by Massachusetts in 1835 to emulate the Equitable of London. But the Massachusetts legislature was afraid of a mutual company without capital, and so provided that the organizers of this company should furnish \$100,000 of guarantee capital which later was to be refunded. This made it difficult to complete the organization of the company, and it was not until 1843 that the company commenced to write insurance. In the meantime, it happened

that a stock company took the first real step towards the adoption of the mutual principle. The Girard Life and Trust Company of Philadelphia, organized in 1836, while holding to joint stock management, made provision whereby the profits of the business might be shared with the policy-holders. In 1844, in accordance with its promise, it declared its first dividend. The plan proved so popular and the Girard prospered so much that its competitor, the Pennsylvania Company, announced that thereafter all premiums for one or more years of insurance would entitle the policy-holder to a credit of one-half the profits. Once started, the mutual plan of life insurance spread rapidly. . . . In 1842 the Mutual Life of New York was organized. In 1843 the New England Mutual completed its organization. In 1845 the Mutual Benefit of New Jersey was chartered. In the same year the New York Life Insurance Company succeeded in fulfilling the requirements which the legislature had laid down as prerequisite for organization. With the formation of these companies begins the great development of life insurance in the United States, a development which has resulted in a larger per capita amount of insurance in force in the United States than is found in any other country in the world. Interesting it is to trace the spread of insurance at that time over the country. With the formation of more companies, competition for business began. The three early stock companies had been content with such business as had come unsolicited to the office. Under competitive conditions, the companies began to appoint men in different cities to solicit life insurance as a side issue to their other work. Ministers, teachers, and lawyers were appointed agents and given a small commission. With agents soliciting business, more people began to be interested in life insurance. As they became interested they wondered why a local company could not be organized. Thus it was that life insurance was spread over the country. Take, for instance, the manner in which life insurance started in Connecticut. The Mutual Benefit appointed an agent in Hartford in 1846. An active campaign for policy-holders was inaugurated. The idea of life insurance was so new that wide attention was given to it in a way little understood at present. Public meetings were held to discuss the question. All at once the novelty of life insurance became the talk of the town. The Mutual Benefit agent did a large business. The thought struck some Hartford business men that they could as well organize a home company. In February, 1846, the agent had been appointed for the Mutual Benefit; three months later the Connecticut legislature chartered the Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Company. . . . So it was that with the novelty of the business, with a delusive way of declaring dividends, and with the adoption of the system of paying premiums with note, life insurance in the United States from 1850 to 1870 had a development unparalleled for its rapidity and extent. A change soon took place. The prosperity of the life insurance business had brought men to it who ought not to have been attracted. Even if the country as a whole had not soon suffered one of the most severe financial and industrial depressions it has ever experienced, there would probably have been trouble in the life insurance business. The growth in the number of companies had been too rapid. . . . In 1868, even while new companies were still being organized, three companies went into the hands of receivers, one insured in another company which subsequently failed, and one was closed at the suit of stockholders. In 1870 seven companies went out

of existence. In 1871 two went into the hands of receivers, and the disaster was but started. In 1872 thirteen companies failed, or reinsured in companies which failed. Thus before the financial depression which affected all lines of business had begun, thirty life insurance companies had been forced to discontinue. When the general hard times did set in, and failures in other lines of business became frequent, the rate of insurance failures was accelerated. In 1873 fourteen companies were closed up, in 1874 four, in 1875 nine, and in 1876 nine. Six companies went to the wall in 1877, making a total of seventy-one life insurance corporations which had been forced out of business in ten years. The weaker companies had been weeded out and failures became less frequent. Between 1878 and 1888 a few more companies failed, but mostly as a result of conditions arising in the previous decade. Along with the actual failures of many companies had come a decline in the business of all. There was nearly two billion dollars of insurance in force in 1870; by 1880 it had decreased to less than a billion and a half. . . . By 1880 began the revival in business. The companies which had survived had been subjected to a hard test. Gradually they recovered their ground as financial conditions improved and as memories of life insurance in the seventies became less vivid. No new companies were organized for twenty years, but from 1880 to 1905 the business done by the old companies increased apace. In 1885 the total insurance in force passed the two billion mark, five years later it had doubled, by 1900 nine billion dollars of insurance was in force, and by 1905 five million level premium life insurance policies were in force in the United States, insuring for a total amount of twelve billion dollars. . . . During the summer of 1905, starting with a personal quarrel for control of one of the largest companies, revelations were made of bad management which led New York and other states to make an investigation into the management of a number of companies. Exposures were made in some cases of betrayal of trust which shocked the public. These disclosures, coming at a time when the public mind was already inflamed by exposures made in other lines of business, resulted in a demand by the public that remedial legislation should be enacted, and during the following two winters, many legislatures busied themselves in revising the insurance laws. . . . From 1860 on, nowhere else in the world have so many laws, attempting to regulate the business to such a great extent, been enacted as in the United States. But what was attempted before 1905 has been surpassed by the laws placed upon the statute books since that year. Laws have been passed [written in 1909] regulating salaries, expenses, and premiums. Standard policies have been provided. The amount of insurance that could be written has been prescribed. Surplus is limited in amount. Methods of allotting dividends have been defined. Systems of control by the policy-holders have been enacted into law. More publicity is demanded."—F. C. Oviatt, *History of fire insurance in the United States* (Yale readings in insurance: Property insurance, pp. 77, 81-84, 88-90).—From a financial point of view life insurance has continued to hold the most important place in the insurance business. From 1909, when the total income of 189 companies was about \$750,000,000, it has grown to an income of approximately \$1,800,000,000, of 253 companies, in 1920, thus showing a growth of more than 100 per cent.

See also below: Early effects of World War.

**Life insurance: Provisions in Versailles**

**Treaty.** See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part X: Section V: ANNEX II.

**Fire insurance: Early forms.—Development in England and on the continent.**—"Fire insurance as now commonly practiced is usually considered to have begun after the great conflagration of London in 1666. . . . It is true that some forms of provisions for the aid of those suffering from loss by fire and other calamitous causes apparently existed in very remote times, as the following quotation will evidence: 'The earliest application of fire insurance known to us was in connection with communes of towns and districts. These communes flourished in Assyria and the East more than 2,500 years ago. Judges, priests and magistrates were appointed for each town and district with power to levy contributions from each member of the commune to provide a fund against sudden calamities such as drought and fire. If the judges were satisfied that the fire was accidental they empowered the magistrates to assess the members of the commune either in kind or in money, and in the event of any member being unable through poverty to meet his share of the contribution, the deficiency was made up from the common fund. These communes still exist [written in 1904] in a modified form in China.' As early as 1240 A.D. the laws of Count Thomas of Flanders provided that the members of a community as a whole should make good a loss which fire might cause to an individual unless the incendiary who caused the fire could be discovered, in which case the loss was to be made good from his property and he was to be banished. It will be noted that the plans outlined above contemplated an assessment by the state and that all property owners were protected. We may discover here, therefore, the beginning of state fire insurance, which . . . continues in Germany and elsewhere to this day on a large scale. Another method for protection and security against loss by fire, water, robbery or other calamities, arose during the Middle Ages in connection with the various Anglo-Saxon and German guilds, the members of which made regular contributions toward a common relief fund. In 1609 a plan was suggested by one of his subjects to Count Von Oldenberg, wherein it was proposed that he individually should consent to insure those of his subjects, who might so desire, against the loss of their houses by fire upon an annual payment to him of a fee or premium of one dollar for every one hundred dollars of valuation. This suggestion was declined by the Count, though not without some hesitation, and, though he suggested that such a plan might well be undertaken by a company of private individuals, no action on his suggestion seems to have been taken. This, so far as I have been able to discover, was the first suggestion ever made looking toward the formation of a company or association for fire insurance purposes only. In England various fire insurance schemes were proposed in 1635, 1638 and 1660, but for one reason or another—largely owing to the great Civil War—none of them was fully organized, and as late as 1667 there is evidence that fire insurance as we know it did not exist. In 1666 came the great fire of London, which burned for four days and nights and spread over 436 acres of territory. . . . Over 85 per cent. of the buildings in London were destroyed. . . . Immediately after the fire various plans for the protection of individuals against loss by fire began to be devised. In 1667 the first regular system for insuring buildings against fire began. In that year, one Nicholas Barbon opened an office where he individually proposed to insure houses and buildings. A few years

later, in 1680, after having had some success, he formed a partnership known as 'The Fire Office.' This company, for a given consideration, engaged to pay the assured the amount of indemnity declared in the policy, or contract, should his house or building be destroyed by fire, or to repair it should it be only 'damnified'—i.e., damaged. No liability, it will be noted, rested upon the assured beyond the payment of the premium. In 1681, a few years after this first company was established, an attempt was made by the City of London to establish an insurance account, or business, and funds and property were put aside and dedicated for that purpose. Houses were insured for any term up to one hundred years. But the enterprise did not prosper and was abandoned in 1683. Then followed, in the same year, what was called the 'Friendly Society.' This concern, which had an existence of nearly one hundred years, conducted its business upon an entirely different plan, as follows: First, the assured paid yearly a small sum, varying according as the building to be insured was brick or frame. This charge was to cover the expenses and, we may presume, the profits of those who operated the company. Second, the assured deposited with the company a sum equal to five annual payments as a guarantee that future payments and assessments would be met as required. This money could be appropriated by the company if the assured failed to keep up his payments. Third, the assured signed an agreement to contribute his share toward the payment of any and every loss which the company might sustain up to an amount not exceeding thirty shillings for every one hundred pounds of insurance carried by him. It will be seen that all losses were to be paid from the contribution of the assured, upon whom, also, rested all liability and for whom the operators of the company or the 'undertakers,' as they were termed, acted only as collectors and distributors. This was a form of mutual insurance, as it is now called; that is to say, insurance where the policy-holders are directly liable for one another's losses. This company was also fairly successful. Another purely mutual company was organized in 1696. . . . The company prospered and grew and is in existence today, . . . being the oldest insurance company in existence. . . . The original title of this company was 'Contributors for Insuring Houses, Chambers or Rooms from Loss by Fire by Amicable Contribution.' This was afterward changed to 'Amicable Contribution-ship,' and in 1776 the name of 'Hand in Hand'—taken from an emblem used by the company in marking and designating buildings which it insured—was adopted. The companies heretofore mentioned all confined their operations to buildings and mostly to dwellings only, but the need for insurance upon goods and stocks of merchandise was very great. About 1706, one Charles Povey opened an office for insuring such property in London. He was without backing or support of any kind and furnished merely his promise to pay in event of loss. This venture was apparently greeted with ridicule and the proposal to insure personal property seems to have been commonly considered impractical. Nevertheless Povey persisted and soon began another enterprise designed to insure personal property throughout Great Britain and Ireland, but finding his first venture unprofitable devised the scheme (which would seem to be quite in accord with some very modern methods of corporate finance) of organizing a third institution to take over the other two. This was accomplished. The new concern was at first called the 'London Insurers,' but almost immediately after its

formal inauguration in 1710 it adopted the name of the Sun Fire Office, and under this name began its successful career which still endures, making that office the oldest non-mutual company in existence as well as the first company which ever undertook the insurance of movables or personal property. It has continued to be a partnership, i.e., not a corporation, and is almost unique among insurance companies in that respect. The first contracts of the Sun provided for payment of losses out of a reserve to be made up of one-half the premiums paid, the liability of the company ceasing when that reserve should be exhausted. Later the company, doubtless under stress of competition, made its promise to pay absolute, and in 1726 a capital fund of 48,000 pounds was created as additional security for policy-holders. . . . Between 1710 and 1720 numerous insurance schemes were launched, modeled after one or the other of those described above. Some succeeded; more failed or were wound up. In 1720 the first chartered companies or corporations made their appearance. In that year two companies—the Royal Exchange Assurance Company and the London Assurance Corporation—were granted charters, first to do a marine insurance business, and in the following year to also transact fire and life insurance business. This date then, 1720, marks the advent of modern stock companies in fire insurance. . . . This may be said to bring the history of fire insurance in Great Britain down to modern times. During the last three-quarters of the eighteenth century fire insurance companies, both mutual and stock, but chiefly the latter, were organized in very considerable numbers and for the most part copied the methods, contracts and practices of the earlier companies. Many of these companies still survive, indeed, some of the largest English companies in existence date from that period. . . .

"In the various kingdoms and provinces which [formerly constituted] . . . the German Empire, . . . the various communal guilds had provided some crude form of insurance for their members, and in many places this function was transferred to the various municipalities as the guilds disappeared. One writer [J. S. Bloomington, "Fire Insurance"] describes this process as follows: 'As the absolute monarchical police-state constitutes the bridge between the middle ages and modern times, so too the transition from the mediæval guild plan of mutual help to the modern system was bridged by state insurance. The guilds of the middle ages lost their importance and private industry was not rapid enough to supply the void left by them, and so the state was forced to step into the breach.' Such public fire insurance outside of Germany is still [1904] to be found in German-Austria, Denmark, Switzerland, and Scandinavia. At a comparatively recent date about 40 per cent. of the outstanding insurance in Germany was carried by the institutions conducted by the government or by various municipalities. Throughout Germany and Switzerland to-day all buildings of ordinary occupancy are assured by the government as soon as built. Each owner is assessed pro rata, according to the appraised value of his own insured buildings, for the losses within the state. Money payments are not made by the state in event of loss, but the damage is repaired or the building replaced by the government. The necessity for insurance on other classes of property than buildings caused the formation of the first stock company in Germany in 1812, since which time many companies, both stock and mutual, have arisen, also various local associations similar to the old guilds and perhaps descendants from them. In

France, while various insurance companies were set on foot during the second and third quarters of the eighteenth century, all perished during the general financial collapse which accompanied the French Revolution. The first regular stock company organized thereafter seems to date from 1818. In other European countries fire insurance seems to have had even a later development—thus in Austria the first stock company was organized in 1822, and the first mutual company in 1825. In Russia the first company appeared in 1827. In all civilized countries there are now fire insurance companies.”—R. M. Bissell, *History of fire insurance in Europe (Yale readings in insurance: Property insurance, pp. 59-65, 67-69)*.—The rise in value during the period of the World War affected fire insurance in Great Britain to a large extent. However, the companies weathered the war conditions so well that they find themselves in a better position to-day than before the war.

**Fire insurance: Provisions in Versailles Treaty.** See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part X: Section V: Annex II.

**Fire insurance: Development in the United States.—Westward spread.—Period of coöperations.**—“For a long period the insurance business of the colonies continued to be marine. . . . In 1762, at the London Coffee House, at the southwest corner of High and Front Streets, Philadelphia, John Kidd and William Bradford announced that they would underwrite risks in general, and before the close of the century a considerable number of such offices had been established. In Philadelphia the first steps toward the protection of property took the form of organizations for the extinguishment of fires and regulations concerning the nature and location of buildings. . . . In 1752 . . . the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, under date of February 18, contained an advertisement of proposed articles of insurance of houses from fire in or near the city. The plan had the approval of the lieutenant-governor of the province and of Benjamin Franklin, and on April 13th, directors were elected, and the Philadelphia Contributionship was thus formally organized, being the first fire insurance company to be organized in the United States. Its plans were an adaptation of those of the Hand-in-Hand of London; in fact, the company became quite generally known as the Hand-in-Hand, and its first house mark was four hands clasping wrists. . . . The directors of the Contributionship in 1781 decided that houses having trees planted before them should not be insured, because the trees made it difficult to fight fires. This policy created considerable friction and opposition, out of which grew, in 1784, the Mutual Assurance Company. . . . Both of these companies are still [1905] in existence and continue to transact business along the same general lines as at first, namely, what is known as perpetual insurance. This, in brief, is a deposit of a certain percentage of the face value of the policy which is paid once for all, the interest on it providing sufficient to provide for the losses sustained. In 1794 the Baltimore Equitable Society, operating upon the same general plan, was established. In December, 1792, the General Assembly of Pennsylvania was petitioned for permission to incorporate the Insurance Company of North America, and on April 14, 1794, the incorporation of the company was authorized, and almost immediately thereafter that of the Insurance Company of the State of Pennsylvania. Both of these companies were organized to transact marine insurance, but during the first year of the North America's existence, the directors concluded to add the business of fire insurance, and

the proposals for insurance were completed in the latter part of the year. . . . The earliest company in New York, of which we have any record, was the Knickerbocker Fire, organized April 3, 1787, under a deed of settlement. The original title, however, was that of the Mutual Insurance Company, the name Knickerbocker not being assumed until May 12, 1846. The company was by its charter permitted to transact fire, marine, and life insurance, and in less than a month the New York Insurance Company was organized with practically the same privileges. Three years later, March 21, 1801, the Columbian Insurance Company of New York was organized, and on April 4, 1806, followed the incorporation of the Eagle Fire with a capital stock of \$500,000, and now the oldest New York stock fire insurance company. Most of the companies in New York organized during the latter part of the eighteenth century, and the first forty years of the nineteenth century, were what are known as special charter companies and, following the development of the day, most of them were organized for the purpose of writing marine insurance. Another of the early New York companies which is still in business is the Albany Insurance Company, which was organized in March, 1811. The charters of most of the companies of this day were what are known as limited charters. . . . The oldest fire insurance company in Connecticut is the Mutual Assurance of the city of Norwich, which was organized in May, 1795, under a deed of settlement. The company has never attempted to do a large business, being largely a neighborhood affair. In 1810 the Hartford Fire was organized and is thus the oldest stock fire insurance company in the state. . . . In 1819 the Aetna was organized [at Hartford], with a capital of \$150,000 with the privilege of increasing it. The first policy of the Aetna was issued August 7, 1819, and about a month later the first reinsurance known in this country was entered into by the Aetna when it assumed all of the outstanding risks of the Middletown Fire. . . . Until the close of the [eighteenth] century there had been about ten mutual and four stock companies, organized in the country, while by 1820 this number had increased to seventeen stock companies in New York, six in Pennsylvania, two in Connecticut, and one each in Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. Of these, twelve are still [1905] doing business. . . . The great New York fire in 1835 swept out of existence most of the New York companies. This fire closes what may be termed the first period of American fire insurance, a period devoted almost wholly to pioneering. . . .

“Turning our attention to the second period we find new factors entering the business. The public demanded more certainty in the matter of the contracts and greater provision for the stability of the companies, so in 1837 the first step was made in the direction of reservation. The State of Massachusetts provided that companies should maintain a fund to insure their contracts being carried out, and this was the beginning of what is known as the unearned premium fund. . . . Another feature of the second period was the development of the mutual idea. The New York fire of 1835 destroyed a great majority of the New York companies. This created a feeling of distrust in the public mind, and the organization of mutual companies became the order of the day, and by 1853 sixty-two companies reported to the comptroller of New York, having an aggregate capital of over eleven million dollars. The mutual plan commended itself to the people of that day as correct theoretically and economical in opera-

tion. In practice, however, these companies proved unsatisfactory for the reasons that they were based upon incorrect principles and because of a lack of staying power. . . . The mutual companies had attempted to operate upon the same basis as the stock companies did. The mortality among the mutuals, however, was excessive. A general insurance law was enacted in 1849, and during the succeeding four years over fifty-four mutual companies were organized. By 1860, however, only seven of these survived, and Superintendent of Insurance, Barnes, of New York, estimated that the losses to the people through the failure of these forty-seven companies averaged at least \$50,000 per company. . . . The companies gradually recovered from the blow of the New York fire and in a few years additional companies had started so that the number of companies was in a measure commensurate with the growing business of the country. There were a large number in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, and there were companies in other cities where there was enough local business to warrant. These companies served the business of the country well, as a whole, and only began to retire as the development of the country's business interests, consequent upon the development of the railway system and the telegraph, gave the company doing a general business a decided advantage over the one doing a local business. In this period also state supervision took a definite form in the shape of the establishment of departments by New York and Massachusetts and gradually by other states. Attempts were also made to devise a more nearly uniform fire insurance policy. . . . Ephraim Robins, a merchant of Cincinnati, saw a notice in a Hartford paper that the Protection had been formed [in 1825, from the Hartford Insurance Company]. Having lost most of his property in a cyclone, the importance of insurance was presented in a very forceful way to the mind of Mr. Robins. He came to Hartford, presented the claims of the West in such a way that the company authorized the establishment of a western department with Mr. Robins as general agent. This was in 1825, and the task of planting the agencies of the company in Ohio and other western states was immediately started. . . . Following the Protection, the Insurance Company of North America and the Aetna made the venture into the territory west of the Alleghanies, the former locating at Erie and the latter at Cincinnati. The failure of the Protection gave a great impetus to the development of the western department of the Aetna, as it was in the field and ready to make the most of the opportunity offered. . . . The Hartford began to send out numbered policies in 1864. . . .

"The third period of fire insurance development begins practically with the close of the Civil War. This may be termed the period of coöperations. Conditions were very unsatisfactory, rates were low, and prosperity for the companies was not very apparent. Hence, in 1866, the fire insurance companies of the country organized the National Board of Fire Underwriters, and for the next ten years it was the controlling factor in fire underwriting, and marks the most important change which had so far been brought about in the fire insurance business. Its purpose was to bring about a coöperation between the companies upon matters of common interest and to insure adequate rates and proper forms. At this time there were a very large number of local companies and quite a number of what are best classified as agency companies. . . . Belonging to this third period, but really beginning with the closing years of the sec-

ond period, was the opening of the Pacific coast to the business of fire insurance. The Phoenix, of Hartford, was the pioneer. The officers of the Phoenix visited the Pacific coast, looked over the ground and on May 1, 1862, established a Pacific coast department in charge of R. H. Magill. At this time, all the fire insurance business of the coast was written at San Francisco through correspondents. The company had a correspondent in a town, information concerning the risk and the amount desired was sent in, the policy issued and forwarded. This was rather cumbersome and slow, so in 1863 Mr. Magill began the establishment of local agencies in the towns of the coast. His success was so great that other companies were obliged to follow his example. The National Board of Fire Underwriters was just beginning to wrestle with some of its difficult problems when along came the Chicago fire [in 1871] and wiped out many of the insurance companies of the country. Many of the purely local companies were caught through the surplus lines they wrote or the reinsurances which they secured from the agency companies. The companies had only partially recovered when along came the Boston fire [in 1872] and completed the wrecking of a large number of the fire companies which had been struggling along in a crippled condition during the year intervening between the two fires. The National Board now promptly took hold of the situation, and rates were sharply advanced. State boards and local boards in smaller towns were organized and an elaborate system of control was worked out; in fact, in the long run, it was too elaborate. . . . [There was] a large influx of new companies as a result of the increased rates following the Boston and Chicago fires. In 1874 the companies doing business in New York were compelled to report their unearned premium liability, and to this period also belongs the adoption of the safety fund law in New York. The increase in the number of companies, and the profit which attended the business because of the increased rates, induced a period of demoralization which extended from 1874 to 1880, during which numerous irresponsible companies were formed. To make matters worse, the National Board, in April, 1877, stopped making rates and relegated this subject back to the local boards, with the result that the high rates could no longer be maintained. Every company was a law unto itself; there was no profit, and it was apparently a struggle for the survival of the fittest. The fire insurance business, however, had become so large that this demoralization could not be permitted to continue. Some method of coöperation had to be found, and this begins the last period of this study. . . . The rating by the National Board, through its state boards and local boards, had been so much of an improvement over the former conditions that things could not be permitted to go backward. Something new, however, had to be devised. In the eighties, the field man proved the way out. He had been doing his work quietly and unobtrusively; and the main difficulty had been lack of numbers and too large territory to oversee. The abdication by the National Board of its rate-making powers threw a large amount of additional work upon his shoulders. Accordingly, in 1872, the New York State Association of Supervising and Adjusting Agents was organized; in 1881, the Underwriters' Association of the Middle Department; in 1883, the Underwriters' Association of New York State and the New England Insurance Exchange; in 1882, the Illinois State Board of Fire Underwriters—all of which may be considered as pioneers in the attempts at coöpera-

tion. Into the hands of these associations the detailed work of rate-making was given. Upon them also fell the work of readjusting the local boards, so that the chain of cooperation might be complete. The local agents, then the special agent, and the problems which they could not individually adjust, were sent to the field men's organization and the residue of problems was sent up to the organizations of the companies. Two of these organizations were formed about this time, namely, the Western Union in 1879, and the Southeastern Tariff Association in 1882, while the Fire Underwriters of the Pacific had been in existence since 1870. The Western Union and the Eastern Union are now the managing underwriter's medium of cooperation in the territory east of the Rocky Mountains, while the Pacific coast is under another organization. An outgrowth of the National Board should be mentioned here, namely, the Fire Underwriters' Association of the Northwest. When the National Board gave up its rate-making function the Northwest Association became simply a social and educational association of the western field men, and has increased from year to year in power and influence, until it is the leading social and educational association of the field men in this country."—F. C. Oviatt, *Historical study of fire insurance in the United States (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, v. 26, pp. 336-338, 340-350, 352-354)*.—For 1921 statistics, see above: Marine insurance: Development in the United States.

**Industrial insurance: Distinction between ordinary and industrial life insurance.—Development in England and the United States.**—"The distinctions between ordinary and so-called industrial life insurance are these: 1. A higher assumed mortality for industrial insurance in view of a higher death-rate and a shorter probability of life among the industrial population. 2. A much smaller average amount of insurance, and for this reason a higher administrative cost, and 3. Finally, a weekly (instead of an annual or semi-annual) collection of premiums through personal visits by agents; and all these three factors go far to increase the cost of industrial insurance as compared with ordinary insurance. This can easily be shown by a comparison of rates. Nevertheless, the number of people insured under this system in the United States, in England, and in Germany is enormous."—I. M. Rubinow, *Social insurance, pp. 417-418*.—"Industrial insurance is so called because the system is primarily designed to meet the needs of wage-earners employed in manufacturing industries, and the weekly premium payments coincide with the weekly payment of wages and salaries. The premiums are from five cents to seventy cents a week. . . . Industrial insurance had its origin in England, and the evolution of the business can be traced backwards by an unbroken record through friendly societies and burial clubs to the trade and craft guilds of the fifteenth century. . . . The Prudential . . . realized the immense opportunity to extend the principles of life insurance to the broad field of workingmen's insurance in general. On the recommendation of the best available actuarial talent, required for the construction of tables and plans, and after purchasing the existing business of a few small companies, The Prudential, in 1854, commenced the business of industrial insurance. . . . During the fifty years which have passed since the introduction of industrial insurance the business has been extended to almost all civilized countries with more or less success, but the development has been the greatest in English-speaking countries, and

there are now more than forty millions of industrial policies in force in the world. Of this number over one-half are in force in the United Kingdom, about four millions in Germany, and not far from one-half a million in Australia."—J. F. Dryden, *Burial (or "industrial") insurance (Yale readings in insurance: Life insurance, pp. 384-386)*.—"In this country [the United States], though industrial insurance was first begun only about thirty-five years ago, its growth was phenomenal, so that by the end of 1911, there were nearly 25,000,000 policies in force. . . . It has been freely admitted for years that the problem which industrial insurance aims to solve, is not of 'life insurance' but of 'death insurance,' not the problem of relief for the survivors, but of a decent burial for the dead. If the purpose of social insurance be defined as 'improvement of the standard of living,' industrial insurance aims to improve the 'standard of dying' and of burial. . . . The total amount contributed by the insured in premiums is enormous. The bare statement that for thirty-six years \$1,893,000,000 was spent does not tell the full story. More significant is the fact that the annual amount has increased from less than \$2,000,000 in 1881 to \$183,000,000 in 1911, almost equaling at present the total cost of the German social insurance system. Thus, the American working class pays for funeral insurance as much as is contributed in Germany by all three parties concerned, the wage-workers, the employers, and the state, for (1) accident insurance, (2) sickness insurance, (3) funeral insurance, (4) maternity insurance, (5) invalidity insurance, and (6) old-age insurance combined."—I. M. Rubinow, *Social insurance, pp. 418-420*.—See also SOCIAL INSURANCE; BELGIUM: 1886-1909; Labor conditions; GERMANY: 1883-1900.

**Government insurance: In the United States and Great Britain during World War.—United States War Risk Insurance Act.**—"National government insurance of marine risks was very extensively adopted during the war and served to supplement the efforts of private companies to supply the large amount of insurance then demanded. In the United States this form of insurance was very helpful in meeting the emergency then existing but afterward was abandoned. It served the purpose of insuring American and Allied vessels and cargoes against the ordinary marine perils and against the war risk. Likewise the government maintained a fund for the self-insurance of its own vessels."—R. Riegel and H. J. Loman, *Insurance, principles and practices, p. 36*.—The British government provided for the granting of war insurance on shipping by the government up to 80 per cent of the values, following the recommendation of a committee presided over by Huth Jackson. The insurance was carried on through the mutual associations of shipowners, organizations called into existence by the conditions created by the World War. "When the United States became actively engaged in the World War in 1917, it was soon realized that some provision should be made for insuring the lives of soldiers and sailors. At the same time it was evident that the rates which old line companies would have to charge for so dangerous an occupation were prohibitively high. Congress therefore decided that the Government should bear the excess burden and on October 6, 1917, passed the War Risk Insurance Act which, in addition to providing for family allowances and allotments, and compensation for death or disability, granted benefits in the form of voluntary insurance. In order to administer the affairs of such an undertaking, a separate division was established in the Treasury

Department known as the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, which was placed under the supervision of a Director, subject to the general supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury. None but those actively engaged in the service of the Army or Navy was eligible to obtain this insurance, which was granted upon application to the Bureau and without medical examination within 120 days of entrance to the service (or before April 6th, 1917) and before discharge or resignation. The applications were handled through the Army and Navy Insurance and Allotment Officers designated in the Quartermaster and Paymaster Corps respectively. The type of insurance was a one-year renewable term policy of the increasing step-rate variety, convertible into a permanent form within five years after the signing of the proclamation of peace. The amount obtainable was a multiple of \$500 and not less than \$1,000 nor more than \$10,000, and the rates charged were the net rates of the American Experience Table on a 3½ per cent. basis, reduced to a monthly premium. The coverage was for death or total and permanent disability, and the proceeds in event of loss were payable at the rate of \$5.75 each month per \$1,000 of insurance in force. The total insurance written on this plan reached approximately 38 billions of dollars. The premiums collected during the war amounted to 300 millions, and the losses to over one billion, which means that the United States bears a loss of over 700 millions, payable from other revenue. In regard to the conversion privilege and in pursuance of Section 404 of the Act, regulations have been issued specifying the types of insurance into which the temporary or war insurance may be converted. Thus far, six kinds of permanent policies have been issued: 1. Ordinary-Life. 2. Twenty-payment Life. 3. Thirty-payment Life. 4. Twenty-year Endowment. 5. Thirty-year Endowment. 6. Endowment maturing at age 62. The rates on these are calculated on the same basis as the temporary insurance except that allowance is made for annual, semi-annual and quarterly premiums. In this connection it should be explained that under the original Act no provision was made for the separation of this converted insurance from the temporary, nor was any settlement made possible except by monthly installments. An amendment to the Act was passed December 24, 1919, and among other liberal provisions it provides for settlement by means of a lump sum or other optional methods; it extends the class of possible beneficiaries; and it authorizes a separate life insurance fund in the United States Treasury for the converted insurance."—R. Riegel and H. J. Loman, *Insurance, principles and practices*, pp. 36-38.—"The bureau . . . adjudicated, as of December 1, 1920, 437,588 claims for death and disability compensation. The last monthly payment for compensation being paid to disabled soldiers amounts to \$10,164,493.09 and the last monthly payment of the bureau to the dependents of deceased soldiers amounted to \$1,345,617.42. The total amount disbursed to December 1, 1920, by the bureau for compensation purposes amounting to \$163,979,175.25."—B. G. Cholmeley-Jones, *War risk insurance (Scientific Monthly, Mar., 1921, p. 233)*.

Early effects of World War on life, marine and fire insurance.—"The war has had very decided effects on the business of life insurance, and these effects may be discussed under the following heads: (a) The effect on the amount of insurance written. (b) The effect on the policy contract. (c) The effect on the finances of the companies. . . . The decrease in the amount of insur-

ance written since the beginning of the war is due primarily to two causes. In the first place, the cost of insurance was largely increased by the greatly enhanced hazard of war service by prospective applicants. . . . Some companies have refused to insure those entering the military and naval service, and practically all companies increased the premium charge to a marked amount, so that for many the cost of insurance practically became prohibitive. . . . The second cause of the decrease in insurance is found in the fact that many insurance officials and salesmen were withdrawn from their insurance activities to serve in the army, navy, or other branches of the state service. . . . [The total amount of business done by sixteen of the largest insurance companies in Great Britain in 1914 aggregated £73,428,100 as against £67,197,700 in 1915.] In Canada no marked decrease in insurance in force has shown up to the end of the year 1916. In Canada, as in England, special efforts were made in the early stages of the war to postpone the increase in the premium charge. . . . In Germany preceding the war the life insurance companies had enjoyed several years of great prosperity. . . . At the outbreak of the war, the amount of new business written annually amounted to over 1,300,000,000 marks, and the total amount of life insurance in force aggregated over 16,000,000,000 marks, with an annual premium income of about 700,000,000. The war has had a marked effect on the business. Agency and field forces of the companies have been destroyed or disorganized, because many have been called to war service. Economic depression has had its effect in decreasing the business. . . . In Russia the German insurance companies held the most important position in all fields of the business, not excluding the Russian companies. With the outbreak of the war, the business of insurance with enemy companies was restricted or wholly prohibited. This has resulted in an extension of the business of the domestic companies, although the disturbed conditions which have since prevailed in Russia have prevented the normal extension of life insurance. . . .

"The second effect of the war on life insurance to be discussed is the changes which have been necessitated in the policy contract. These modifications have pertained to the following subjects: First, the insertion of a military service clause and a modification of the disability clause to cover the contingency of disability, due to military service; second, certain increases in the premium charge and in the provisions with respect to the time of payment of the premium. . . . A report was submitted to the Association of Life Insurance Presidents, in which was recommended for adoption the following military or naval service clause: During the first ten years of this policy military or naval service in time of war is a risk not assumed by the company unless the insured shall give notice thereof to the company within thirty-one days after entering on such service, and pay such extra premiums as the company may fix therefor. In event of the insured entering upon such service and failing to give such notice, or failing to pay such extra premiums at the times and in the manner required, the liability of the company for death of the insured during such period of ten years, while engaged in or as a result of such service, shall be limited to the reserve at the time of death, less any indebtedness hereon to the company. This recommended clause, or a modification of it, has been adopted by a large number of life insurance companies in the United States. There is a considerable difference



in the amount of the extra premium which companies are charging for this extra military hazard. It will be observed that this clause applies only to those who, having as a civilian obtained a policy, later enter the military or naval service. It leaves the subject of insuring those who are already in such service to the discretion of the company. There is also a very great difference in the practice of life insurance companies in regard to the general treatment of war risks. . . . The practice of the British assurance companies before August, 1914, in respect to provisions of the policy in case of military or naval service was but little less liberal than that of American companies. . . . The life insurance companies in France had in general a war clause in their policies of insurance which provided that the policy was not forfeited in the event of military service, even though the extra premium required in the case of such service was not paid. If, however, the insured died within eight months of the cessation of hostilities, the insurance company would pay to the beneficiary only the reserve value on the policy. At the suggestion of the French Government, the insurance companies agreed to reduce the eight months limit to three months and also agreed to distribute among the insured any excess of the war premiums which had been collected to meet the additional mortality due to the war. . . . In Austria-Hungary, the practice of the life insurance companies in their treatment of war risks differed considerably. There was an inclination at first on the part of many companies to make a distinction between the Landwehr and the Landsturm. A number of the companies assumed the war risk for the full amount of the policy, without any extra premium up to a certain maximum amount of insurance, although there was a distinction sometimes made in this connection between the Landwehr and the Landsturm. The maximum amount of insurance for which the company agreed to be liable was in neither case in excess of \$6,000. The full risk was assumed in some companies by the payment of an extra premium. In the case of a number of companies, the full risk was assumed to one-half the face of the policy, which, of course, amounted to a reduction in the risk for the company, although not necessarily to a one-half reduction. Other companies refused to assume any part of the war risk without an extra premium, although they allowed in general the reserve value of the policy in case of death. . . .

"If . . . a summary of the more important effects of the war on the finances of life insurance companies is made, the following positive and negative influences are found to prevail: As positive or favorable influences: (a) The increase in premiums, received by those whose policy contained or had inserted in it a war clause. Whether this is ultimately, as contrasted with the immediate effects, a positive factor, will depend upon the actual mortality experience of war risks as compared to the expected. (b) The writing down of the security values which has been in progress in some companies and the resulting increase in interest return, as well as the possibility of a future increase in the actual value of these depreciated securities. (c) The investment of current surplus receipts in the higher interest-bearing securities which have been placed on the market since the outbreak of the war. As negative or unfavorable influences: (a) The decrease in the amount of new business written in most countries and hence the reduction in the premium receipt over that which could have been secured. (b) The increased mortality on risks both civilian and military with

or without the extra premium. (c) The increase in lapses and surrenders of policies. (d) The heavy depreciation in securities. (e) The subscription to government loans at a rate of interest below that which has been earned. (f) The increase in the taxation of life insurance. It will be observed that the above listing of effects seems to indicate a generally unfavorable effect of the war on the finances of life insurance. Such deduction seems to be clearly warranted from the evidence at hand. . . .

"It may . . . be stated by way of summarizing the effect of the war on marine insurance: first, that all the leading nations have found it necessary to grant, either directly or indirectly, aid in the insuring of war risks; second, this has not meant the absorption of the private companies, but on the contrary a co-operation with such companies, and in all probability a healthy competition which has had a marked effect in keeping down rates, and at all times stabilizing such rates; . . . third, the private insurance companies have in practically all the leading countries enjoyed a period of prosperity, and in many cases their financial returns have been in excess of that enjoyed in times of peace. . . .

"First, it is somewhat surprising that the fire insurance companies have been able to make so good a showing with respect to financial results. In a number of cases, the returns to shareholders since the war are in excess of those enjoyed in many years previous to the war. Warning, however, must again be given against making too sweeping deductions as to final results of the effect of the war on fire insurance. In many cases complete statistics are not available and in many cases causes which will produce negative results either have not had time to bring about these final effects, or have not yet begun to operate. Second, there has been a marked increase in the hazards or risks in fire insurance in practically all the leading nations. In some cases this has been counteracted by the increase in the rates. Owing to the high level of prices and the consequent increase in property values, the fire insurance companies have been able to increase their premium receipt without a proportional increase in the number of risks written. This has had a two-fold favorable result. In the first place, it has meant an increased premium receipt on the same volume of business without any marked increase in certain material expenses connected with writing the risk. In the second place, unless a marked increase in the losses occurred, this has meant a larger amount out of which to pay losses, or, in other words, a reduction in the real amount at risk by the insurance company. Third, there has been an increase in the amount of taxes which the companies have had to pay, as well as an increase in wages and prices for supplies. At the same time, there has been a depreciation in many of the investments held by fire insurance companies. All in all, it can scarcely be argued that the war has brought to the business of fire insurance, any more than to most businesses, conditions which are favorable. The war has introduced into the fire insurance business many disturbing factors, and it is in times of peace a business which has to contend with so many fluctuating conditions, that anything approaching scientific bases for determining prices or rates is extremely difficult to secure."—W. F. Gephart, *Effects of the war upon insurance, with special reference to the substitution of insurance for pensions*, pp. 49-53, 57, 64, 72, 78-80, 103-104, 206, 246.

ALSO IN: H. P. Dunham, ed., *Business of insur-*

ance.—A. F. Jack, *Introduction to the history of life assurance*.—G. Hamon, *General history of insurance in France and abroad*.—J. A. Fowler, *History of insurance in Philadelphia for two centuries, 1683-1882*.—Prudential Life Insurance Company of America, *Documentary history of insurance, 1000 B.C.-1875 A.D.*—F. L. Hoffman, *Fifty years of life insurance progress*.

**INSURANCE, Seamen's.** See **INSURANCE: Life: Early forms**; **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Spain: 1919.**

**INSURANCE, Social.** See **SOCIAL INSURANCE.**

**INSURANCE, War risk.** See **INSURANCE: Government.**

**INSURANCE CONSOLIDATION ACT (1911).** See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Germany: 1911.**

**INSURANCE LAWS.** See **COMMON LAW: 1589**; **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries.**

**INSURANCE OF WIDOWS AND ORPHANS.** See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Insurance of widows and orphans.**

**INSURGENCY.**—"Insurgency exists when a number of individuals in a community deny the supremacy of the state government and exert such force that the government is unable for a time to suppress them. A proper distinction between that and a belligerency seems to lie in the circumstances that the belligerency makes it felt in international life, whereas, the insurgency is only a municipal affair. This distinction has, however, not been drawn by the writers."—R. R. Foulke, *International law, v. 1, p. 73.*—See also **BELLIGERENCY.**

**INSURRECTION ACT (1796).** 'See **ULSTER: 1791-1797.**

**INTEGRALISTS,** name of conservative Catholic party. See **PAPACY: 1911-1914.**

**INTEGRISTS,** political party. See **SPAIN: 1921: Political outlook in Spain.**

**INTELLECTUAL REVOLUTION.** See **EUROPE: Modern period: Revolutionary period.**

**INTELLECTUALS,** Russian. See **INTELLIGENTSIA.**

**INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENTS.** See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: II. Espionage; III. Press reports and censorship.**

**INTELLIGENCE TESTS.** See **EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Intelligence tests.**

**INTELLIGENTSIA.**—"Its ordinary translation, 'The Intellectuals,' would much better be rendered, 'The Civilized.' The Intelligentsia was, in fact, the *ensemble* of those persons from all the regular social classes who believed themselves 'enlightened' in contradistinction to 'those who do not know.' Their creed consisted of two articles: hatred of the ruling régime, and boundless faith in their ability to regenerate and 'civilize' their country. . . . The Intelligentsia were usually disciples of West European culture and believers in Western institutions. They were also opposed to the old bureaucratic centralization and 'Russification' of the empire's non-Russian peoples. Their ideal, however vague, was a parliamentary, federalized Russia, avoiding foreign adventures and with internal liberty for all."—T. L. Stoddard, *Present-day Europe, pp. 178-179.*—"Time and again Russian intellectuals attempted to organize and apply their ideas in practice. Their organizations, however, being largely influenced by foreign examples and being premature under social and political conditions that existed in Russia, were doomed to failure. Such was the revolt of December, 1825, when army-officers and other intellectuals at-

tempted to apply to Russia the ideas of the French revolution. Such was the enthusiastic movement of the Narodniki (Populists) in the 'seventies, when hundreds of highly cultivated, inspired young men and women attempted to apply Socialism to the Russian rural community. Such was the movement of the terrorists who succeeded in assassinating Tzar Alexander II on March 1, 1881, but soon succumbed to the superior force of the existing order."—M. J. Olgin, *Soul of the Russian revolution, pp. 45-46.*—"When the great Revolution broke out in the autumn of 1904 . . . the Intelligentsia were not very numerous, but their political importance in 1904 was out of all proportion to their numbers. It was they who had hitherto constituted the sole opposition party in Russia. It was their fighting wing, the Nihilists, which had waged truceless war against the bureaucracy in the darkest hours of absolutism. . . . But the Russian Revolution is the story of the Intelligentsia's lamentable failure. . . . The reason was that their program was a purely negative and destructive one. A mere *ensemble* of individuals from all classes, they possessed no settled, positive philosophy, and on their first attempts at constructive measures they fell apart like a rope of sand. Also, the old régime found a man—P. A. Stolypin—whose iron hand bent Russia once more to the yoke of established order and authority."—T. L. Stoddard, *Present-day Europe, pp. 178-179.*—See also **POLAND: 1905-1914.**—"The intellectuals had gained nothing through the revolution. Their political situation had become even worse than before. The administration suspected an enemy in every educated man, and the most hideous attacks of the Black Hundred were aimed at the intellectuals. The search for 'suspects,' the hunting for hidden destroyers, made the life of thousands of intellectuals a nightmare."—M. J. Olgin, *Soul of the Russian revolution, p. 363.*—"The intellectuals, disappointed in revolutionary ideas, turned partly to theosophy, partly to the pursuit of personal success, partly to dark and morbid moods. The revolution was beaten. The revolutionary organizations were destroyed. Over the débris of the great movements a shadow remained,—the Imperial Duma, a mere plaything in the hands of the administration. Legally a constitutional monarchy, Russia was in reality an autocratic state. Such was the situation from 1907 to 1917."—*Ibid., p. 187.*—"In Russia, both the inexorable policy of the party, unswervingly true to principle, and the attitude of the intellectuals themselves, threw back the workers upon their own resources; and this indubitably, accounts for the success of the [Bolshevist] Revolution. What, now, were the subsequent developments? The intellectuals . . . made haste to retrace their steps and proffer their services, which have been accepted. But their co-operation was far from being a cordial one, and covert opposition, or, at least, absolute deficiency of co-operation was a general phenomenon. . . . And yet the Soviet took a great deal of trouble to meet the wishes of intellectuals and engineers. Technical and intellectual work was highly appreciated, and this appreciation, which was also expressed in the shape of high salaries, was transferred to the representatives of capitalistic intellect. But these gentlemen did not feel at home under a workers' dictatorship. . . . The intellectuals, generally speaking, offered their services to the Soviet for material considerations only, and this, as a rule, without any enthusiasm."—S. J. Rutgers, *Intellectuals and the Russian revolution (Lenin, Bukharin, Rutgers, New policies of Soviet Russia, pp. 83-84, 89, 91).*

**INTEMPERANCE.** See **LIQUOR PROBLEM.**

**INTENDANTS:** In France, term used to designate an official invested with a commission by the king. The early intendants were called *intendant de justice* or *intendant de finance*. They were appointed to levy the *aides* or temporary subsidies. In the 16th century they formed the superior administration of the finances of the government. They went out of existence with the *ancien régime*. The *intendants des provinces* came into office during the latter part of the 16th century. They became the direct general representatives of the king.—See also COLONIZATION: French; ADMINISTRATIVE LAW: Administrative law in France.

In Spanish America, functionaries of Spanish Colonial government, who came into existence in 1786 at the reorganization of the local government. The viceroalties and captaincies-general were subdivided into intendancies, and the *subdelegados* of the intendants took the place of the *corregidores* and *alcaldes mayores*.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1715-1810.

**INTERBOROUGH RAPID TRANSIT COMPANY.** See NEW YORK CITY: 1860-1920.

**INTERCHURCH WORLD MOVEMENT,** an organization aiming "to present a unified program of Christian service and to unite the Protestant churches of North America in the performance of their common task." The foundations for the Movement had been securely laid by coöperation in many lines of Christian work at home and abroad, especially by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The proposal for a new movement came from the Foreign Mission Board of the Presbyterian Church in the United States [South] by summoning a conference of mission boards in New York, December 17, 1918, to consider the unification of their plans and efforts. At the same time a conference was being held at Atlantic City under the auspices of the Commission on Interchurch Federations of the Federal Council. . . . The two movements were combined and a plan of organization was formulated, which . . . [was] approved by over forty denominations and interdenominational boards and societies. . . . At first a coöperative movement of mission boards and societies, the Movement rapidly widened its scope to include such other forms of Christian work as . . . Christian education, ministerial relief and pensions, care of approved eleemosynary institutions and similar enterprises. The plans of the Movement [were] . . . based on a five year program and group themselves into three main lines of effort: 1. To undertake a survey of the world's needs from the standpoint of evangelical Christianity; 2. To bring the information secured in the survey to the attention of every person throughout the United States; 3. To discover and develop the resources of life, money and prayer required by the program suggested by the needs revealed in the world survey."—S. R. Warburton, ed., *Year Book of the Churches*, 1920, pp. 269-270.—"The organization committed itself to the following practical measures in the carrying out of the program adopted: Thirty evangelical denominations in the United States to coöperate in a united drive for funds from April 25 to May 5, 1920, these denominations, including a membership of almost 15,000,000 and representing sixty per cent of the Protestants in the United States; the total budget to be fixed at \$336,777,572 of which \$175,448,349 was to be paid in 1920, the remainder in periods of from two to five years, according to denominational policies; no item which had not found a place in some denominational budget to be in the general askings; the coöperating boards to receive all the money collected and to spend it according to de-

nominal plans."—L. L. Pierce, *Littleness of the world's biggest business* (*World Outlook*, Apr. 20, 1920).—The financial campaign was undertaken at the appointed time but proved unsuccessful, due "partly to the withdrawal of the Baptists and Presbyterians but mainly to the failure of the 'friendly citizens' to contribute \$40,000,000 for the Movement's expense fund. Of the total askings . . . only \$176,000,000 was subscribed, and the appeal to 'No Man's Land' for the expense account brought in less than three million dollars. However, something has been salvaged from the wreckage. . . . Encouragement is lent to the view that the Movement is not wholly 'a lost cause' from the fact that the General Committee decided on July 8 to continue the endeavor 'on a greatly modified basis.' At this meeting it was determined that 'the main purpose and objects for which the Interchurch World Movement was created should be conserved,' a budget not to exceed \$75,000 was agreed upon, and a committee of fifteen was appointed to confer with representatives of other interchurch bodies and recommend plans for the future."—*Why the interchurch movement failed* (*Literary Digest*, Aug. 7, 1920).—The affairs of the Movement were consequently closed up in 1921. The most outstanding and permanent contribution of its short career is generally agreed to be its publication in 1920 of a report on the steel strike of 1919. This report made an exhaustive analysis of the industrial conditions involved in the strike, especially of the twelve hour day.—See also PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES: 1919-1920.

**INTERCOLONIAL RAILWAY,** Canada. See RAILROADS: 1853-1918.

**INTERCOLONIAL WARS:** First. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1694-1697.

Second. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710; CANADA: 1711-1713.

Third. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

**INTERCURSUS MAGNUS,** commercial treaty between England and the Netherlands, concluded by Henri VII with the Archduke Philip in 1496, "for the encouragement of trade between England and the Netherlands, each party engaging at the same time to give no shelter to each other's rebels."—S. R. Gardiner, *Student's history of England*, v. 1, pp. 351-352.—See also TARIFF: 15th-17th centuries.

**INTERDICTS.** See EXCOMMUNICATIONS AND INTERDICTS.

**INTERFEROMETER.** See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Instruments.

**INTERIM OF CHARLES V.** See GERMANY: 1546-1552.

**INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE, United States.**—"Though familiar to public men since the foundation period of the Constitution, and advocated more or less forcibly by such characters as Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, and Andrew Jackson, the idea of a Department of the Interior was newly conceived and clearly formulated by an experienced and public-spirited Secretary of the Treasury from Mississippi. For the plan of organization Robert J. Walker has never received from any historian the credit that is his just due. He voiced the need and launched the project more carefully than any statesman before him. [The large accession of territory resulting from the Mexican War and the consequent increase in the government's responsibility for internal affairs necessitated a department of the interior.] But it must not be overlooked that his plan was skilfully and ably supported in a doubting

Senate by two such leaders as Daniel Webster and Jefferson Davis. . . . The first Secretary of the Interior, Thomas Ewing, in his Report of December 3, 1849, wrote: "The department is named in the title "A Home Department"; but the body of the act provided that it shall be called the "Department of the Interior." . . . Secretary Alexander H. H. Stuart suggested, in his Report of December 2, 1850, that Congress remove the ambiguity. But nothing was done until the revision of the statutes in 1873, when the department was properly entitled."—H. B. Learned, *President's cabinet*, pp. 287, 289-290.

"The Secretary of the Interior is charged with the supervision of public business relating to patents for inventions [see STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES: 1790-1900], pensions and bounty lands, the public lands and surveys, the Indians, education, the Geological Survey, the Reclamation Service, the Bureau of Mines, national parks, the Capitol Building and Grounds, distribution of appropriations for agricultural and mechanical colleges in the States and Territories and certain hospitals and eleemosynary institutions in the District of Columbia. By authority of the President the Secretary of the Interior has general supervision over the work of constructing the Government railroad in the Territory of Alaska. He also exercises certain other powers and duties in relation to the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii. He is authorized by Executive order of March 20, 1920, to adjust, liquidate, and pay claims against the United States Fuel Administration. . . . The Commission of Pensions supervises the examination and adjudication of all claims arising under the laws passed by Congress granting pensions on account of service in the Army or Navy rendered wholly prior to October 6, 1917; claims for reimbursement for the expenses of the last sickness and burial of deceased pensioners; claims for bounty-land warrants based upon military or naval service rendered prior to March 3, 1885, and claims for annuities, refunds, and allowances, arising under the act of May 22, 1920, providing for the retirement of employees in the classified civil service. . . . The Director of the Bureau of Mines is charged with the investigation of the methods of mining, especially in relation to the safety of miners and the appliances best adapted to prevent accidents, the possible improvement of conditions under which mining operations are carried on, the treatment of ores and other mineral substances, the use of explosives and electricity, the prevention of accidents, the prevention of waste, and the improvement of methods in the production of petroleum and natural gas, and other inquiries and technological investigations pertinent to such industries. He has charge of tests and analyses of coal, lignites, ores, and other mineral fuel substances belonging to or for the use of the United States; supervises the work of the mine inspector for Alaska; and administers the regulations governing the production of oil and gas from lands mined under Government lease. He also has charge of the Government fuel yards for the storage and distribution of fuel for the use of and delivery to all branches of the Federal service and the municipal government in the District of Columbia and such parts thereof as may be situated immediately without the District of Columbia. . . . The Director of the National Park Service is charged with the duty of administering the national parks, the national monuments under the jurisdiction of the Interior Department, and the Hot Springs Reservation in Arkansas, including the maintenance, improvement, and protection of parks, monuments, and reservation, and the control of the conces-

sioners operating utilities therein for the care of visitors. [See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: United States: 1911.] . . . The Alaskan Engineering Commission was created under the act of March 12, 1914, which empowered, authorized, and directed the President to locate, construct, operate, or lease a railroad, or railroads, to connect the interior of Alaska with one or more of the open navigable ports on the coast. Authority was also granted to purchase existing railroads, to construct, maintain, and operate telegraph and telephone lines, and to make reservations of public lands in Alaska necessary for the purposes of the railroad. For the execution of this work a commission of three engineers was appointed by the President to make the necessary surveys. They were directed to report to the Secretary of the Interior, under whom the President placed the general administration of the work. After the completion of the preliminary surveys, the President by Executive order selected the route for the railway from the coast to the interior. Construction of the railway was begun in 1915, under the general supervision of the Secretary of the Interior, and is now in progress. . . . The War Minerals Relief Commission assists the Secretary of the Interior in the readjustment of claims filed under the war minerals relief act for losses incurred in producing or preparing to produce manganese, chrome, pyrites, or tungsten during the war."—*Congressional Directory*, 66th Congress, 3rd Session, Jan., 1921, pp. 335-337.—"The Commissioner of Patents is charged with the administration of the patent laws and supervision of all matters relating to the granting of letters patents for inventions and designs and the registration of trade-marks. . . . The Director of the Geological Survey is charged under direction of the Secretary of the Interior with classification of the public lands and the examination of the geologic structure, mineral resources, and mineral products of the national domain. In conformity with this authorization, the Geological Survey has been engaged in making a geologic map of the United States, involving both topographic and geologic surveys, in collecting annually the statistics of mineral production, in conducting investigations relating to surface and underground waters, in testing mineral fuels and structural materials, and in investigating the causes of mine accidents. . . . The Commissioner of the General Land Office is charged with the survey, management, and disposition of the public lands, the adjudication of conflicting claims relating thereto, the granting of railroad and other rights of way, easements, the issuance of patents for lands, and with furnishing certified copies of land patents and of records, plats, and papers on file in his office. In national forests he executes all laws relating to surveying, prospecting, locating, appropriating, entering, reconveying, or patenting of public lands, and to the granting of rights of way amounting to easements. . . . The Bureau of Education collects statistics and general information showing the condition and progress of education, issues an annual report in two volumes, a bulletin in several numbers annually, and miscellaneous publications; has charge of the schools for the education of native children in Alaska; supervises the reindeer industry in Alaska, and administers the endowment fund for the support of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts. . . . With the exception of the schools for native children in Alaska, the Commissioner of Education has no jurisdiction over the schools in the Territories or outlying possessions. . . . The Reclamation Service, under the personal supervision and direction of the Secretary, is

charged with the survey, construction, and operation of the irrigation works in arid States, authorized by the act of June 17, 1902. . . . The Commissioner of Indian Affairs has charge of the Indian tribes of the United States, exclusive of Alaska. He looks after their lands, moneys, schools, and general welfare, and purchases the necessary supplies."—Department of the Interior, *General information*, pp. 2-4.

ALSO IN: J. A. Fairlie, *National administration of the United States of America*, pp. 188-219.—D. H. Talbot, *Land laws of the United States*.—G. H. Knight, *Patent office manual*.

**INTERLOPERS**, term applied by the Dutch to English free merchants. See EAST INDIA COMPANY, BRITISH.

**INTERNATIONAL IMPROVEMENTS**, Question of. See U. S. A.: 1806-1812; 1816-1817.

**INTERNATIONAL**, or *Internationale*: Its forerunners.—"Efforts towards the international organisation of labour have proceeded chiefly from men who, banished from their own country by reactionary governments, have carried to other lands the seeds of new thought, and, meeting abroad those of like mind and like fate with themselves, have naturally planned the overthrow of their common oppressors. The origin of the famous International Association of Working Men was largely due to such a group of exiles. In 1836, a number of German exiles at Paris formed themselves into a secret society, under the name of the *League of the Just*, the principles of which were communistic. Being involved in a rising at Paris in 1839, they removed to London. Here they met with workmen belonging to the nations of Northern Europe, to which German is a common speech, and the League naturally began to assume an international character. This was not the only change which the League underwent. Its members began to understand that their real duty under the present circumstances was not conspiracy or the stirring up of revolutionary outbreaks, but propaganda. The basis of the League had been a sentimental communism, based on their motto that 'all men are brothers.' From Marx they learned that the emancipation of the proletariat must be guided by scientific insight into the conditions of its own existence and its own history; that their communism most indeed be a revolutionary one, but it must be a revolution in harmony with the inevitable tendencies of social evolution. The cardinal point in the theory worked out by Marx and now impressed upon the League, was the doctrine that the economic conditions control the entire social structure, therefore the main thing in a social revolution is a change in economic conditions. The group of exiles put themselves into communication with Marx, and a Congress was held in London in 1847, with the result that the association was reorganised under the name of the Communist League. . . . Marx and Engels were commissioned by the League to set forth its principles in a manifesto, which, as the manifesto of the communistic party, was published shortly before the Revolution of February 1848. [See COMMUNIST MANIFESTO.] . . . The old motto of the League, 'All men are brethren,' was replaced by the new battle-cry, 'Proletarians of all lands, unite,' which openly proclaimed the international character of the struggle. Seventeen years later this battle-cry resounded through the world as the watchword of the International Working Men's Association, and the militant proletariat of all lands has to-day written it on its banner."—T. Kirkup, *History of socialism*, pp. 171, 175.

1862-1872.—First International.—Origin and

career.—"Appropriately enough, the event which gave the first occasion for the founding of the International Association of Working Men was the International Exhibition of London in 1862."—*Ibid.*, p. 175.—"In 1862 certain manufacturers, such as M. Arlès-Dufour, and certain newspapers, such as 'Le Temps' and 'L'Opinion Nationale,' started the idea that it would be a good thing to send delegates from the French working men to the London Exhibition. 'The visit to their comrades in England,' said 'L'Opinion Nationale,' 'would establish mutual relations in every way advantageous. While they would be able to get an idea of the great artistic and industrial works at the Exhibition, they would at the same time feel more strongly the mutual interests which bind the working men of both countries together; the old leaven of international discord would settle down, and national jealousy would give place to a healthy fraternal emulation.' The whole programme of the International is summed up in these lines; but the manufacturers little foresaw the manner in which it was going to be carried out. Napoleon III appeared to be very favourable to the sending of the delegates to London. He allowed them to be chosen by universal suffrage among the members of the several trades, and, naturally, those who spoke the strongest on the rights of labour were chosen. By the Emperor's orders, their journey was facilitated in every way. At that time Napoleon still dreamed of relying, for the maintenance of his Empire on the working men and peasants, and of thus coping with the liberal middle classes. At London the English working men gave the most cordial welcome to 'their brothers of France.' On the 5th of August they organized a fête of 'international fraternization' at the Freemasons' Tavern. . . . They proposed to create committees of working men 'as a medium for the interchange of ideas on questions of international trade.' The conception of a universal association appears here in embryo. Two years afterwards it saw the light. On the 28th of September, 1864, a great meeting of working men of all nations was held at St. Martin's Hall, London, under the presidency of Professor Beesly. M. Tolain spoke in the name of France. Karl Marx was the real inspirer of the movement, though Mazzini's secretary, Major Wolff, assisted him—a fact which has given rise to the statement that Mazzini was the founder of the International. So far was this from being the case that he only joined it with distrust, and soon left it. The meeting appointed a provisional committee to draw up the statutes of the association, to be submitted to the Universal Congress, which was expected to meet at Brussels in the following year. In this committee England, France, Italy, Poland, Switzerland, and Germany were represented; and afterwards delegates from other countries were admitted. They were fifty in all. They adopted none of the ways of a secret society. On the contrary, it was by publicity that they hoped to carry on their propaganda. Their office was in London. . . . Mazzini, by his secretary, Wolff, proposed a highly centralized organization, which would entrust the entire management to the leaders. Marx took the other side. . . . Marx carried the day. Soon, in his turn, he too was to be opposed and turned off as too dictatorial. Mazzini and his followers seceded. . . . The progress of the new association was at first very slow." [The first congress was held at Geneva in September, 1866.] After its second congress, held at Lausanne, in 1867, it spread rapidly and acquired an influence which was especially alarming to the French government. [The third

congress was held at Brussels in 1868 and the fourth at Basel in 1869; on the latter occasion Bakunin and other anarchists joined the International and were soon active in opposing Marx. (See also ANARCHISM: 1861-1876.)] In 1870 the International was at the summit of its power. In 1872 its congress, at The Hague, was a battlefield of struggling factions and clashing ideas, and practically it perished in the conflict. "The causes of the rapid decline of the famous Association are easy to discover, and they are instructive. First of all, as the organizer of strikes, its principal and most practical end, it proved itself timid and impotent. The various bodies of working men were not slow to perceive this, and gave it up. Next, it had taken for motto, 'Emancipation of the workers by the workers themselves.' It was intended, then, to do without the bourgeois-radicals, 'the palaversers,' 'the adventurers,' who when the revolution was made, would step into power and leave the working men as they were before. The majority of the delegates were nevertheless bourgeois; but, in reality, the sentiment of revolt against the aristocratic direction of the more intelligent members always persisted, and it fastened principally on Karl Marx, the true founder of the International, and the only political brain that it contained. But to keep in existence a vast association embracing very numerous groups of different nationalities, and influenced sometimes by divergent currents of ideas, to make use of publicity as the sole means of propaganda, and yet to escape the repressive laws of different States, was evidently no easy task. How could it possibly have lasted after the only man capable of directing it had been ostracized? The cause of the failure was not accidental; it was part of the very essence of the attempt. The proletariat will not follow the middle-class radicals, because political liberties, republican institutions, and even universal suffrage, which the latter claim or are ready to decree, do not change the relations of capital and labour. On the other hand, the working man is evidently incapable of directing a revolutionary movement which is to solve the thousand difficulties created by any complete change in the economic order. . . . A further cause contributed to the rapid fall of the International, namely, personal jealousies."—É. de Laveleye, *Socialism of today*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: J. Spargo, *Karl Marx, his life and works*.

1872-1886.—In America.—By the order of the congress of the International held at the Hague in 1872, the General Council of the association was transferred to New York. "Modern socialism had then undoubtedly begun to exist in America. The first proclamation of the council from their new headquarters was an appeal to workmen 'to emancipate labor and eradicate all international and national strife.' . . . The 'Exceptional Law' passed against socialists by the German Parliament in 1878 drove many socialists from Germany to this country, and these have strengthened the cause of American socialism through membership in trades-unions and in the Socialistic Labor Party. There have been several changes among the socialists in party organization and name since 1873, and national conventions or congresses have met from time to time. . . . The name Socialistic Labor Party was adopted in 1877 at the Newark Convention. In 1883 the split between the moderates and extremists had become definite, and the latter held their congress in Pittsburg, and the former in Baltimore. . . . The terrible affair of May 4, 1886, when the Chicago Internationalists endeavored to resist the police by the use of dynamite, terminated

all possibility of joint action—even if there could previously have been any remote hope of it; for that was denounced as criminal folly by the Socialistic Labor Party. . . . The Internationalists, at their congress in Pittsburg, adopted unanimously a manifesto or declaration of motives and principles, often called the Pittsburg Proclamation, in which they describe their ultimate goal in these words:—"What we would achieve is, therefore, plainly and simply,—First, Destruction of the existing class rule, by all means, i. e., by energetic, relentless, revolutionary, and international action. Second, Establishment of a free society based upon co-operative organization of production. Third, Free exchange of equivalent products by and between the productive organizations without commerce and profit-mongery. Fourth, Organization of education on a secular, scientific and equal basis for both sexes. Fifth, Equal rights for all without distinction to sex or race. Sixth, Regulation of all public affairs by free contracts between the autonomous (independent) communes and associations, resting on a federalistic basis."—R. T. Ely, *Labor movement in America*, ch. 8-9.

1889.—Second International.—Origin.—Anti-militarist policies.—"From the early seventies until 1889, the international movement among the workers was in abeyance. In the latter year the second International was born at Paris. Militarism was one of the most important subjects on the agenda at the opening congress. Demands were here made that standing armies be abolished, that international arbitration tribunals be formed, and that the people have a voice in the question of peace and war. These demands were reaffirmed at Brussels in 1891, at London in 1896, and at Paris in 1900. At the last named congress, Jean Jaurès declared that the organization of international peace and brotherhood was the most important question of the gathering. The policy toward militarism was again discussed, the congress declaring against all appropriations for army and navy."—H. W. Laidler, *Socialism in thought and action*, pp. 249-250.

1904.—Congress at Amsterdam.—"At the next gathering held at Amsterdam (1904) in the midst of the Russian-Japanese War, fraternal greetings were sent to the proletariat of both countries and the socialists and workers of all lands were called upon to oppose with all their might the continuance of war. The congress wildly applauded when delegates from Russia and Japan clasped hands and declared they had no animosity against each other."—*Ibid.*, p. 251.

1904-1921.—Movement to unite with Socialist party of France. See SOCIALISM: 1904-1921.

1907.—Congress at Stuttgart.—"The past achievements of the socialists in preventing wars, the cause of modern wars, and the general strike as a preventive of wars were discussed from many points of view at the famous Stuttgart Congress of 1907. . . . After discussing the causes of most modern wars, the congress finally passed a resolution in which it attributed war in general to competition for markets, militarism, national prejudices and the desire to weaken the growing power of the working class. . . . While the question of the causes of war gave rise to considerable controversy, the methods of preventing war from breaking out under the system of private ownership received the greatest amount of attention. The preventive most vigorously discussed by Jaurès, Bebel and others was the general strike. . . . In 1907, prior to the International gathering, a general strike resolution was adopted by the French socialist congress, favored by the moderates,

Jaurès and Vaillant, and opposed by Guesde. The resolution in substance was brought before the Stuttgart assembly. . . . The resolution finally adopted out of regard for the German's fear of the disrupting influence of the general strike plank made the use of the general strike a possible weapon against war, but not a required weapon."—*Ibid.*, pp. 251, 253-257.

1910.—Copenhagen Congress.—"The Copenhagen Congress also gave much attention to the question of militarism. It restated the causes of war as given at the Stuttgart Congress, though in a somewhat modified form, declaring that wars would cease completely only with the disappearance of the capitalist mode of production and that the working class bore the main burdens of war. It demanded again that socialist representatives refuse the means for armament and advocated disarmament, arbitration of international disputes, the abolition of secret diplomacy and a guaranty of all nations against military attack or suppression by force."—*Ibid.*, p. 257.

1912.—Special congress at Basel.—"A special congress was called at Basel, Switzerland, on November 24 and 25, 1912, to discuss the [Balkan] situation. This special congress—the last before the European war—reiterated the resolution passed at the Stuttgart and the Copenhagen Congresses in which the working classes were urged to use the means which seemed to them to be most efficacious to prevent war, and to assist in bringing the war, should it break out, to the most speedy conclusion, and declared that the Balkan outbreak, if allowed to spread, 'would become the most frightful danger to civilization and the workers.' It approved of the efforts of the socialists of the Balkans to establish a democratic federation of Balkan states; opposed national jingoism and inequality of opportunity among the Balkan peoples; urged the socialists of Austria-Hungary and environs 'to prevent any attack of the Austrian monarchy upon Serbia'; congratulated the Russian workers on their protest strikes and urged them to oppose all bellicose Czarist undertakings."—*Ibid.*, pp. 259-260.

1914.—Meeting of International Socialist Bureau at Brussels.—"With the majority vote [at the National Congress of French Socialists July 15-17, 1914] favoring the general strike [against war], Jaurès and the other leaders of the French socialists planned to attend the International Socialist Congress, scheduled for Vienna on August 23, 1914—fifty years after the birth of the first International. The discussion of war and the general strike promised to be memorable in the history of the movement. The congress, however, was not to be held. A few days after the French gathering adjourned, Austria issued its note against Serbia. The International Socialist Bureau hastily called a special conference of its members in *la Maison du peuple* in Brussels to discuss the means whereby the conflict might be averted. On the afternoon of July 29, the day after Austria declared war against Serbia, delegates from the more important countries of Europe hurried to Brussels. They decided to change the place of the International Congress from Vienna to Paris, to forward the date to August 9, and to make the subject of war the chief question on the agenda. The bureau urged 'the workers of all nations concerned not only to continue but even to strengthen their demonstrations against war in favor of peace and of a settlement of the Austro-Servian conflict by arbitration.' . . . That night the Belgian Labor Party held a great 'guerre à la guerre' (war against war) demonstration. . . . The meeting of Brussels, while the only genuinely international demonstration held

in the days of late July, was but one of hundreds held by the socialists of Europe during the week preceding the explosion."—*Ibid.*, pp. 267-269.

1915-1920.—Contribution to education of workers. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States.

1918.—Spartacist manifesto. See SPARTACIST MANIFESTO.

1919 (February).—International Socialist conference at Berne.—"The first attempt to rehabilitate the International after the armistice was made in February, 1919, at the International Socialist Conference at Berne, Switzerland. Delegates were present at this conference which lasted from February 2 to 9, from Great Britain, France, Holland, Germany, Austria, and a score of other countries, purporting to represent some fifty millions of people. The Belgian socialists refused to meet the socialists of the Central Powers until the latter confessed their guilt. The American delegates failed to receive passports in time to make their appearance at the conference, which they later repudiated, while the Socialist Parties of Italy, Servia, Rumania, and Switzerland refused to lend the conference their support. The Communist Party—the Bolsheviks—of Russia, in stating their reasons for failure to attend, declared that in their opinion the most dangerous enemy of the world revolution was 'the yellow international,' and that the workers should carry on 'an implacable struggle against the pseudo-socialist traitors.' The majority of those present were veterans in the socialist cause, youth being conspicuous for its absence. The main topics on the agenda were: the responsibility for the war, the League of Nations, the territorial readjustment, the labor charter and the Russian situation."—H. W. Laidler, *Socialism in thought and action*, p. 290.

1919 (March).—Third or Communist International.—"Of a much more radical nature than the Berne Conference was the first gathering of the so-called third International—the first congress of International Communists—held in Moscow from March 2 to 6, 1919. The call was issued by representatives of socialist groups of the left wing in nine countries and countersigned by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Russia. It specified numerous left wing organizations in Europe and America whom it deemed worthy to be called to the councils of the revolutionary International. Thirty-two delegates, with power to act, were present at the conference from parties or groups in Russia, Germany, Hungary, Norway, Sweden, Bulgaria, Rumania, Finland, Ukraine, Esthonia, Armenia, delegates from the labor unions of Germans in Russia, from the Balkan Union of 'Revolutionary Socialists,' and from the 'Union of Socialists of Eastern Countries.' Others were there with consultative powers from groups in Switzerland, Holland, France, Great Britain, Bohemia, Jugo-Slavia, Turkey, Turkestan, Persia, Corea, China and the United States. Of chief import was the manifesto written by Lenin, Trotsky, Zinoviev, Tchicherin and Fritz Platten, a Swiss Socialist, and issued by the conference."—*Ibid.*, p. 302.

1920.—Congress of Second International at Geneva.—The Congress of the Second International, which opened July 31, 1920, at Geneva "was attended by a score of different nationalities, officially represented by six times as many delegates, besides groups and sections present in a consultative capacity, or for information only. Certainly, in most countries, fractions or groups have broken away, but the delegates from Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, Sweden, Denmark, Holland and some other nations could report that either the

whole or the vast majority of the organized working class and socialist movements, aggregating a membership of something like twenty millions, maintained their affiliation. . . . Norway and Spain have definitely withdrawn, the latter apparently under a misunderstanding; whilst the majority in Italy are definitely for withdrawal. Austria, Hungary and Czecho-Slovakia were simply absent. The Congress, whilst not falling so far short in the number of nations represented, was numerically much smaller than the congresses, prior to the war, at Stuttgart, Copenhagen and Amsterdam, respectively. This falling off in numbers, (and indeed, the entire absence of Austria, Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Jugoslavia, and some others), is to be accounted for mainly by the financial exhaustion, and still more, by the financial dislocation of Europe. . . . The most marked feature of the Geneva Congress was the hearty cordiality of the delegates, one to another, the unbroken courtesy and kindly urbanity of all the proceedings, the obviously genuine 'international' good feeling. . . . The main achievement of the Congress—one of some political importance to Europe—was the complete reconciliation between the organized working class and socialist movements of the nations lately at war with each other. International unity was shattered when the war broke out, and deep feelings of indignation entertained, especially by Belgium and France, against the German Social Democratic party for its failure to break with the imperialist German government that was violating the independence of Belgium and committing such terrible misdeeds against civilians, have hitherto prevented any formal reconciliation. After six years the breach is now healed. The Belgian delegates, supported by the French, insisted on raising the question of whose was the 'war guilt'? The Congress, according to custom, referred it to a committee on which every nationality was strongly represented. In the committee a few dignified speeches were made; the German delegates made a manly confession of their failure, and expressed their sincere regret that they had been misled; and an affecting scene of reconciliation took place, in which the delegates embraced each other. The declaration was reported to the Congress, where it was received with heartfelt applause, the Belgian spokesman, with the concurrence of the French, and the support of every other nationality represented, promising that the past should be no more referred to, and expressing the unanimous determination of the European working class and socialist movements no longer to permit themselves to be divided in the pursuit of their common aims. This reunion of hearts will be of political importance on European politics. It greatly increases the difficulty that the statesmen will have in restarting the war, under any pretext. . . . The lengthy and declamatory resolutions voted by the Congress, as is usual at such gatherings, are of interest more as indications of the trend of socialist and trade union thought throughout Europe than for any executive force that they may claim. The Congress expressed itself wholeheartedly against war, and for the immediate economic reconstruction of the bankrupt countries of Europe. It called for active government intervention in controlling the import of foodstuffs and raw materials, in order that the ruined nations might not be deprived, merely as the result of the competition of richer nations, of their indispensable quota of the supplies available. The Congress was emphatic and impartial in its condemnation of imperialism, militarism, and the repression by force of subject races or minorities, striving to exert their rights to 'self-determination.' But perhaps more

important than all these was the attempt made by the Congress to define clearly its position in contrast with that of the Bolshevism of Soviet Russia, and to propound, without equivocation, what the socialism of the organized labor movement in Western, Northern and Central Europe really means and proposes, as distinguished from the declarations and achievements of Lenin. In the first place, the Geneva Congress declared emphatically, in a long and precisely formulated resolution, that it repudiated any 'dictatorship,' and all violence, and that it stood for complete democracy and the supremacy of the Parliamentary government, with universal suffrage in geographical constituencies. . . . The practical proposals of socialism for the administration of industries and services were formulated by the Congress in a long and detailed report on 'Socialization,' which emphasizes the inevitable gradualness of the process, one great industry or service being dealt with at a time according as each becomes ripe for nationalization or municipalization. . . . With regard to industrial administration, the Congress (a) sharply separates Parliamentary control from actual management; (b) entrusts the management of each nationalized industry to a tripartite national board, representing the mass of workers, the management and technicians, with the consumers and the community as a whole (the 'Plumb plan'); (c) suggests district councils and works committees (Mr. Justice Sankey's proposal for the British coal mines); and (d) a joint committee of the management and each separately organized vocation for collective bargaining (as is common in England today). . . . A third contrast with Lenin was presented in the specific revision of the definition of what was meant by the term Labor (arbeiterclass proletariat). By this classic terminology of European socialism, the Congress declared was meant, not only the manual working wage-earners, but also the intellectual workers of every kind, the independent handicraftsmen and peasants, and all those who personally cooperate in the production of utilities of any sort. The term Labor (arbeiterclass proletariat) is thus officially declared to exclude, among healthy adults, only those who idly 'live by owning.' The deliberate adoption, by the British Labor party a couple of years ago, of the phrase 'workers by hand or by brain' is thus internationally endorsed and extended to all countries. The British Labor party was, moreover, paid the compliment of being unanimously entrusted with the task of negotiating with the fractions and sections not represented at Geneva, in order to bring them once more to affiliation. Mr. Arthur Henderson was elected President; Mr. J. H. Thomas, treasurer, and Mr. J. Ramsay Macdonald, a member of the new international executive of nine members, which was directed to meet regularly in London, to which it is proposed and hoped to transfer (at least temporarily) the seat of the International Socialist Bureau and of the Secretariat (over which, for the moment, M. Camille Huysmans will continue to preside in Brussels). What Geneva has done, in short, is to declare emphatically against the acts and declarations of Lenin and Soviet Russia; to adopt, as the definition and practical program of its socialism, an essentially Anglo-Saxon and even Fabian expression; and, with German consent, to replace the typically 'continental' complexion of its theory and even its phraseology, by something much more in consonance with English experience." —S. Webb, *Socialist International* (*New Republic*, Sept. 22, 1920).

ALSO IN: *New York Times Current History*, Oct. 1920, pp. 50-53.



1920-1921.—Second congress of Third International at Moscow.—Effect of the “twenty-one points.”—Move to start a Fourth International.—In August, 1920, the Third, or Communist, International held its second congress at Moscow. A platform of twenty-one points was adopted for submission to the Socialist and Communist parties in the different countries for acceptance or rejection within four months. The rigid demands made by the twenty-one points on the various parties for sacrifice of their autonomy and for exact compliance with the revolutionary purpose of the central body operated in several countries to repel or divide the parties. The National Executive Committee of the American Socialist party declared its willingness to accept the Moscow program with reservations, but those reservations were not acceptable to the executive of the Third International. (See U. S. A.: 1920 [May-November].) In Great Britain, a Communist party was organized in August 1920, but was denied admission to the Third International. At the congress of the French Socialist party in Tours, the majority voted on December 29, 1920, for unconditional acceptance of the “twenty-one points.” On the following day the party was split into right and left wings. In Italy the split in the Socialist party occurred January 20, 1921, and the Italian Communist party was formed January 21. Germany has both a Communist and a Communist Labor party; the former is a member of the Third International and the latter has been recognized as a “sympathizing member.” Austria and Poland both have small Communist parties. A similar party has been organized in Belgium. In Scandinavia, the Moderate Swedish Socialists continue the adherence to the Second International; the National Committee of the Norwegian Socialist party voted to accept the twenty-one points, and the small left wing group of Danish Socialists in a convention in November 1920 also voted to accept the Moscow program. A Communist party has been organized in Australia, against the opposition of the Australian Labor party and Socialist Labor party. In South America, the Socialist party of Uruguay on September 22 and that of Chile on December 31 voted to join the Third International; the Socialist party of Argentina voted both against joining the Third International and in favor of seceding from the Second International, with the possibility of later joining the new international, the formation of which seemed likely, in Vienna. At Berne, Switzerland, a conference was held on December 5, 1920, attended by representatives or parties that had left the old Second International, but had not yet joined the Communist International. From this conference a manifesto was sent out urging all Socialist parties to withdraw from both the Second and the Third Internationals and to send delegates to a convention to be opened at Vienna on February 22, 1921, for the purpose of organizing a middle-of-the-road international. This proposed body was referred to elsewhere as the Fourth, and also as the Two-and-a-half International. The manifesto was signed by representatives of the German Independent Socialists, the French Socialist party, the Austrian Social Democracy, the British Independent Labor party, the Russian Mensheviks, the Swiss Socialists, the German Socialists of Czecho-Slovakia and the American Socialists.

1921.—Third congress of Third (Communist) International at Moscow.—“Disharmony among the Socialist and Communist forces of the world for an indefinite period was assured when the third congress of the Third (Communist) International, held in Moscow, from June 23 to July 12, 1921,

voted to stand by the famous Twenty-one Articles of Faith adopted by the second congress, held in the Russian capital a year ago. There was a four-day debate over the mooted points, and Nikolai Lenin, the Bolshevist Premier of Russia, was obliged to come to the aid of Leon Trotzky, G. Zinoviev and Karl Radek when they found themselves hard pressed by delegates supporting modification of the Communist program in the interest of international unity. . . . In addressing the Congress upon . . . [the] matter of concessions Lenin said Soviet Russia was using the breathing spell obtained by negotiations with foreign nations for the purpose of rebuilding her own industries, and that in the meantime the Communists must use this same breathing spell to prepare a revolution against all capitalistic countries. He added that he could not promise anybody any liberty or any democracy, because all the reactionaries were using those slogans. Lenin also declared war must be continued upon the Mensheviks and the Social Revolutionaries. . . . A resolution was passed approving his position. President Zinoviev's victory was made complete by being authorized by the Congress to inform the Italian Socialist Party that it could not be readmitted to the Third International until it expelled Signor Serrati and his comrades. The delegates of the Communist Labor Party of Germany heard their party condemned to unite at once with the regular United Communist Party of Germany and to drop its open warfare against all parliamentary activities. A program of world-wide propaganda, worked out by Karl Radek, was adopted by the Congress and made binding upon all affiliated parties, despite the objections of some delegates who, while agreeing with its general principles, thought these could not be applied to their own countries. Zinoviev was unanimously re-elected President of the Executive Committee.”—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1921, pp. 1026-1027.

1921-1922.—Effect of World War and Russian communists.—“The extent to which the radical labor forces of the world have been divided by the World War and by the agitation of the Russian Communists is shown by the fact that there are now three so-called international political labor organizations, viz., the Third International, the Second International (the remnant of the pre-war Socialist International) and the International Working Group of Socialist Parties (the so-called Two-and-a-half International organized in Vienna last February); there are two contending revolutionary trade union internationals, viz., the Moscow body, with possibly 10,000,000 adherents, and the International Federation of Trade Unions, with headquarters in Amsterdam and an affiliated membership of about 27,000,000; and there are two Young People's Internationals, viz., the Communist organization and the Young Workers' International, organized in Amsterdam last May [1920]. Then there are many powerful labor bodies—such as the American Federation of Labor—which are not affiliated with any of the international groups.”—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1921, p. 1027.

See also SOCIALISM.

ALSO IN: E. Kelly, *Twentieth century socialism*.—R. Hunter, *Socialists at work.—Internationales* (*New Europe*, June 5, 1910, pp. 184-187).

INTERNATIONAL AERIAL NAVIGATION. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service; 1018-1921: Aerial law.

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS, American Institute of. See AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS.

**INTERNATIONAL AFRICAN ASSOCIATION OF BELGIUM.** See **BELGIAN CONGO:** 1876-1890; 1900-1901.

**INTERNATIONAL ALLIANCE OF SOCIALIST DEMOCRACY,** society of anarchists. See **ANARCHISM:** 1861-1876.

**INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN CONFERENCES.** See **AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF.**

**INTERNATIONAL APOSTOLIC HOLINESS CHURCH.**—"The International Apostolic Holiness Union which was a secession from the Methodist Episcopal church in 1897 at Cincinnati, Ohio, was reorganized in 1906 under its present name. This church advocates apostolic practices and in 1920 reported 325 organizations with 11,000 members in the United States."—*Year Book of the Churches*, 1920, p. 199.

ALSO IN: **United States Census, Religious bodies**, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 315-317.

**INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.** See **ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL.**

**INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE CONGO.** See **BELGIAN CONGO:** 1876-1890; 1900-1901.

**INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WORKING MEN.** See **INTERNATIONAL:** 1862-1872.

**INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS,** Congress of: Discussion of Calendar reform. See **CHRONOLOGY:** 1910.

**INTERNATIONAL BIMETALISM.** See **MONEY AND BANKING: Modern:** 1867-1893.

**INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.** See **COMMERCE, INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF.**

**INTERNATIONAL COMMERCIAL CONGRESS.**—An important step in promotion of the development of international commerce was taken at Philadelphia, in October, 1899, by the assembling of an International Commercial Congress, under the auspices of the Philadelphia-Commercial Museum and the Franklin Institute, with the cooperation, not only of the city and the state, but also of the Congress of the United States. Some forty governments, and a great number of chambers of commerce and other business organizations were represented, and much good was expected from the meeting. It adopted resolutions urging cooperative and assimilated action by all nations, in the registration of trade marks, in the preparation of trade statistics and agricultural reports, and in the establishing of the parcels post. It commended the Philadelphia Commercial Museum as an example to be imitated; urged the construction of an interoceanic canal, recommended free trade in artistic works, and pleaded for the pacific settlement of international disputes by arbitration. At the time of the session of the Congress, a National export exposition was being held at Philadelphia, under the same auspices, with great success.

**INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS.** See **AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF.**

**INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES ON ALCOHOLISM.** See **LIQUOR PROBLEM: International movements.**

**INTERNATIONAL COÖPERATIVE ALLIANCE (1904).** See **COÖPERATION: Finland.**

**INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN.** See **WOMEN, INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF.**

**INTERNATIONAL COURTS OF ARBITRATION.** See **HAGUE CONFERENCES:** 1899: Convention for pacific settlement; **INTERNATIONAL**

**JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF; MONROE DOCTRINE:** 1890.

**INTERNATIONAL EUGENICS CONGRESS (1912).** See **EUGENICS: Modern developments.**

**INTERNATIONAL FINANCE.** See **CAPITALISM:** 18th-19th centuries, and after.

**INTERNATIONAL FISHERIES COMMISSION.** See **FISHERIES:** 1908.

**INTERNATIONAL HEALTH BUREAU (1920).** See **PUBLIC HEALTH: League of Nations; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Establishment of the secretariat.**

**INTERNATIONAL HIGH COMMISSION.** See **PAN AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE.**

**INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE.** See **AGRICULTURE, INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF.**

**INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, Permanent Court of (1922).**—According to Article 14 of the Covenant of the League of Nations, "The Council shall formulate and submit to the members of the League for adoption plans for the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice. The court shall be competent to hear and determine any dispute of an international character which the parties thereto submit to it. The court may also give an advisory opinion upon any dispute or question referred to it by the Council or by the Assembly." (See also **LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Achievements of the Council.**) The first session of the Assembly opened at Geneva on November 15, 1920, and on December 16 the protocol outlining the plan for the establishment of the court was signed. It was decided that the court was to consist of eleven judges "to be elected by the Assembly and the Council, and to be effective upon ratification by a majority of the member nations. . . . Thirty-six states made a futile effort to make its jurisdiction compulsory, but Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan would not yield, declaring that they would not engage themselves to submit all disputes to the court."—*Political Science Quarterly*, 1921, *Supplement*, p. 18.—See also **ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern:** 1919-1920.—"Every stable nation in the world, with the single exception of the United States, has ratified the protocol creating this court. That protocol is entirely aside from the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations Covenant, and the United States could ratify it without binding itself in any way to the treaty or the League. . . . At The Hague it is suggested that if the United States should ratify the court treaty with the reservation that this ratification is not to be effective until satisfactory provision is made for American participation in the election of judges, the way would be immediately opened for . . . [America's] entry into the court. America's reservation would be accepted by the nations and the proper action taken to allow the seating of her delegates when occasion arose. This arrangement can be made at any moment that the United States expresses a desire for it."—W. A. Du Puy, *New Hague court at work (New York Times Current History, Oct., 1922)*.—At the second plenary conference of the League of Nations held at Geneva from September 5 to October 5, 1921, the judges were elected from a list of over ninety nominees. "A preliminary session of the Court was held on January 30 [1922]; three days later Dr. Loder of Holland was elected President of the Court. The new tribunal was formally opened at The Hague on February 15, when it began to work out its rule of procedure."—*Political Science Quarterly*, 1922, *Supplement*, p. 21.—The eleven judges constituting the court were as follows: Dr.

Bernard C. J. Loder, Holland, president and chief justice; Viscount (Robert) Finlay, Great Britain; Prof. John Bassett Moore, United States; Prof. Charles A. Weiss, France; Prof. Dionisio Anzilotti, Italy; Dr. Yorosu Oda, Japan; Senator Rafael Altamira y Crevea, Spain; Prof. Max Huber, Switzerland; Senator Ruy Barbosa, Brazil; Prof. Antonio S. de Bustamante, Cuba; Judge Didrik G. G. Nyholm, Denmark. The deputy judges were: Judge Frederick W. N. Beichmann, Norway; Judge Wang Chung-Hai, China; Prof. Demetriu Negulesco, Rumania, and Judge Michael Yovanovitch, Jugoslavia. Two panels of expert assessors are attached to the court, whose duties consist in advising on technical points in connection with the Labor, Transit and Communications problems arising out of the various peace treaties, Versailles, St. Germain, Sèvres, Neuilly, etc. On these particular points, indeed, the court is the final authority in many cases, being invested with such powers by the treaties themselves: otherwise it has as yet no compulsory jurisdiction. On June 24, 1922, the court made public "a message from Charles E. Hughes, Secretary of State for the United States, dated March 31, which is the first American recognition of the Permanent Court. Mr. Hughes, replying to a communication from the Permanent Court, said:—"The State Department will be glad to receive any communication from the court, transmitted directly or through the American Legation at The Hague. Any letters which may be received will be forwarded to the appropriate executive authorities in the United States in order that they may be brought to the attention of the court for such action as it is possible to take with reference to them under the laws of this country."—*Christian Science Monitor*, June 24, 1922, p. 2.—"The first case [that came before the court, in 1922] was based upon a technical point in the interpretation of the Treaty of Versailles. Holland wanted to know if the International Labor Office, also a child of this treaty, had acted properly in seating the delegate of its workers at the International Labor Conference last year. There had been rival claimants to a seat, and controversy as to which had the proper credentials. The point was important, since this labor conference, which is held annually for the purpose of improving the conditions of the people who work, must be assured that its actions are just, else it might lose standing. The action which it had taken was sustained by the court. The second case heard by this court was upon a question raised by France and also had to do with the activities of the International Labor Office. That office had interpreted the word 'industry,' as used in the treaty, to include agriculture. The French Government maintained that it did not include agriculture and that the International Labor Office was 'incompetent' in matters of agriculture. The court again sustained the International Labor Office, thus further clarifying a situation that, but for it, must have remained obscure. The Permanent Court of International Justice is the Supreme Court in the world in actual operation. It places itself at the disposal of the nations of the world for the settlement of any dispute which cannot otherwise be reached, providing a judicial means for settling disputes that have hitherto been settled by war."—W. A. Du Puy, *New Hague court at work* (*New York Times Current History*, Oct. 1922).—The Court adjourned until June 15, 1923, unless an extraordinary session should be necessary before that date.

ALSO IN: *American Journal of International Law*, Oct., 1922.

**INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION.** See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: International labor organization; LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Establishment of the secretariat.

**INTERNATIONAL LADIES' GARMENT WORKERS' UNION:** Education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Worker's education: United States.

**INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE:** Early history.—Unfitness of "dead" or "living" languages to serve as an international medium.—Classification of proposed "world" languages.—"The desire of a generally accepted means of international communication has been expressed with growing emphasis since it was first uttered in the early seventeenth century by the great Bohemian educator, Johann A. Komensky, better known as Comenius. At an even earlier date, the idea had been toyed with by Descartes; and Leibnitz attempted to lay down definite principles to govern the construction of an international language. Since the seventeenth century, more than 200 artificial languages have been invented, most of them during the nineteenth century. The use of Latin, Greek or Hebrew, each of which has its supporters, has made no headway, due to a realization of their relative inflexibility and lack of adaptation to modern conditions. English, French, German, Italian, Spanish and other living languages have been put forward on different grounds by natives of the respective countries where they are naturally spoken; but their utter lack of neutrality, their obvious fitness for the special function of expressing the historically developed psychological processes of the nations in which they have grown up in contrast with those of other peoples, and the dangerous dominance in world-affairs naturally accruing to the favored nation whose language should be chosen as the official international medium, have disqualified them, no less than their complexity of structure, irregularities of spelling, pronunciation, grammar and syntax, and their enormous use of local and national idioms, which hinder their complete mastery by others than natives. The only remaining possibility is the creation of a new language, scientifically constructed, phonetic and non-idiomatic, easily acquired and of neutral quality. . . . The earliest attempts were based upon the medieval idea that man might attain to a perfect knowledge of the universe. The whole sum of things might, it was thought, be brought by division and sub-division within an orderly scheme of classification. To any conceivable idea or thing capable of being represented by human speech might therefore be attached a corresponding word, like a label, on a perfectly regular and logical system. Words would thus be self-explanatory to any person who had grasped the system, and would serve as an index or key to the things they represented. Language thus became a branch of philosophy as the men of the time conceived it, or at all events a useful handmaid. Thus arose the idea of a 'philosophical language.' . . . Words, then, are reduced to mere formulæ; and grammar, inflections, etc., are similarly laid out on purely logical, systematic lines, without taking any account of existing languages and their structure. To languages of this type the historians of the universal language have given the name of a *priori* languages. Directly opposed to these is the other group of artificial languages, called a *posteriori*. These are wholly based on the principle of borrowing from existing language; their artificiality consists in choice of words and in regularization and in simplification of vocabulary and grammar. They avoid, as far as possible, any elements of arbitrary

invention, and confine themselves to adapting and making easier what usage has already sanctioned. Between the two types come the *mixed languages*, partaking of the nature of each."—W. J. Clark, *International language, past, present and future*, pp. 76-78.—Perhaps the best exposition of the idea was a work published in London in 1668 by John Wilkins, bishop of Chester, entitled, "An Essay towards a Real Character and a Philosophical Language." Already in 1661 George Dalgarno had published in London a treatise on the subject entitled "Ars signorum."

**Other proposed languages.**—In addition to Esperanto, 1887, which is the only international language that has met with favorable reception, the following artificial languages of recent years deserve to be noted: "Volapük" made its appearance about 1879; "Spelin," by G. Bauer, Agram, 1888; "Myrana," by J. Stempfi, Kempten, Germany, 1889; "Lingua International," or "Mondolingua," by J. Scott, Vienna, 1890; "Universala," by E. Heintzeler, Stuttgart, Germany, 1893; "Kosmos," by E. A. Lauda, Berlin, 1894; "Novilatin," by E. Beerman, Leipzig, 1895; "Bolak" or the "Blue Language" by Léon Bollack, 1896; "Idiom Neutral," devised by M. Rosenberger, former director of the Akademie, St. Petersburg, 1902, is said by some to be the simplest passively invented. In spite of the growth of Esperanto, differences of opinion have arisen with reference to some details in its structure; and various groups of its adherents have advocated certain changes. The most prominent of these systems of "revised" Esperanto is known as "Ido." Others are "Europal" and "Esperantida." An interesting recrudescence of the *a priori* language idea is the work of the Rev. E. P. Foster, of Marietta, Ohio. His language, known as "Ro," has undergone several transformations since the original proposal, but has hitherto failed to secure any considerable following.

**Natural development of some artificial languages.**—"Paradoxically speaking, there are several of these artificial languages in existence which have been naturally evolved. The *Lingua Franca* of the Levant and Hindustani are well-known instances. The former was the creature of commercial necessity operating in a veritable museum of races; the latter originated in the second half of the sixteenth century, when Akbar's court and camp were crowded with the representatives of scores of peoples and languages, the elements of an empire in the making. The Chinese of the Mandarins, which is used by the educated classes throughout a vast country of many dialects so diverse as to be almost distinct languages, is largely the creation of *literati*, and is characterized by a very high degree of artificiality. The smell of the student's lamp also hangs about literary Italian (consciously constructed by Dante and others on the basis of a virile and versatile dialect descended in the male line, so to speak, from the *Lingua Rustica*), and about the 'Ciceronian' English of the eighteenth century which was deliberately Latinized by Dr. Johnson and other 'poisonous scholars' of the Palladian Age. Every sport, again, has its little language, the product of the journalistic mind which calls a cat 'the popular domestic feline'; devastating examples are the *argot* of the old prize-ring and the jargon of the American base-ball reporter. Of composite languages Pidgin-English, Yiddish, and the Chinook jargon are curious instances. Pidgin-English, which consists of words from European languages (the majority are liquidated English) in a grammatical framework of Chinese construction, is used not only in China but also in all the great seaports where there is any

sort of a Chinese quarter. I have often heard it in London's dockland. Yiddish, an amalgam of Hebrew and German, with many words from other sources, is the nearest thing to Hindustani in the Western world; it has a literature of its own which is by no means contemptible. [See also PHONOLOGY: 2]. The Chinook jargon, by means of which the Indian 'nations' or tribes of the portion of North America once known as Rupert's Land (the name is still kept in an ecclesiastical title) communicate with one another and with traders, was largely the work of the Hudson's Bay Company's officers. It is based on a dialect spoken along the British Columbian rivers, and contains a considerable number of French words."—E. B. Osborn, *Universal languages (Nineteenth Century and After, Sept., 1913)*.

**Esperanto.**—Aims.—History of its creation.—Principles.—Periods of growth.—Literature.—Spread.—The failure of Volapük, due to its own serious defects and to dissensions among its supporters, in no way discouraged those who were seeking for a solution of the problem of an international language. "Doctor Ludovic Zamenhof, Doctor of Medicine [1859-1917], the inventor of Esperanto . . . was born . . . in Russia, where he spent his boyhood. The inhabitants of Bialystock [his native town] were of four different nationalities, Russians, Poles, Germans and Jews, each speaking different languages, and generally on bad terms with each other. The boy's impressionable nature caused him to reflect that this animosity was caused by divergence of language, and thus the first seeds of an international language were sown. Even at an early age Dr. Zamenhof came to the conclusion that an international language was possible only if it were neutral, belonging to no nationality in particular. . . . In his boyhood he learned French and German, and began to work out the idea of his new language; but when, in the fifth class of the gymnasium, he began to study English, the simplicity of its grammar was a revelation to him; and his own grammar soon melted down to a few pages without causing any loss to the language. But his giant vocabularies left him no peace of mind. . . . One day, when he was in the sixth or seventh class in the gymnasium, he, by chance, observed that the signs over shops had certain terminations, as we might notice in England, for instance, 'Surgery,' 'Bakery,' etc.; and it then struck him for the first time that these terminations had certain meanings, and that by using a number of suffixes, each always having the same meaning, he might make out of one word many others that need not be separately learnt. . . . He at once understood how important it was to make use of this power, which, in the natural languages, plays only a blind, irregular and incomplete rôle. So he began to compare words and to search out the constant and defined relationship between them. He cast out of his vocabularies a vast series of words, substituting for each huge mass a single suffix, which had always a certain fixed relationship to a root-word. . . . On leaving the university, Dr. Zamenhof commenced his medical practice, and began to consider the publication of his language. He prepared the manuscript of his first brochure, 'An International Language,' by Dr. Esperanto, Preface and Full Manual,' and sought out a publisher. For two years he sought in vain, the financial question meeting him at every turn; but at length, after strenuous efforts, he succeeded in publishing the brochure himself, in 1887. He had 'crossed the Rubicon,' and Esperanto was given to the world!"—G. Cox, *Preface to grammar of Esperanto*, pp. x-xii, xvi.—"The general prin-

ple upon which Dr. Zamenhof has worked is this: to eliminate all that is accidental in our national languages, and to keep what is common to all. In consequence, and strictly speaking, he invents nothing; he builds entirely with material that has been in existence for a long time. Here, then, is the way in which he proceeds regarding the various elements that are necessary to the formation of a language. The sounds . . . that are peculiar to one language are eliminated. The English *th* and *w* are not found in French or German, therefore they are dropped. On the other hand, the French *u*, the German *ü*, and the French nasals do not exist in English; they too are dropped. The Spanish *ñ* and *j*, and the German *ch*, have the same fate. Thus, only sounds which are found everywhere are kept, and no one will have any difficulty about pronunciation, no matter to what country he belongs. Spelling is of course phonetic: one and the same sound for one letter. There are no mute letters, as in French; neither are there double letters. . . . The accent is always on the penultimate syllable. Esperanto reminds one of Italian, when spoken, and has proved extremely melodious for singing. In the vocabulary, the principle of internationalism is applied . . . in a most ingenious fashion. Dr. Zamenhof proceeded thus: he compared the dictionaries of the different languages, and picked out first those words which are common to them all. He spelled them according to the phonetic system, dropped the special endings in each idiom, and adopted them as root-words in his proposed language. . . . Then he picked out those which appear in most languages, although not in all. . . . For the remaining words,—and there are comparatively few left,—which are never the same in the different languages, Dr. Zamenhof selected them in such a manner as to make the task of acquiring Esperanto equally difficult or equally easy for all concerned.”—A. Schinz, *Esperanto: the proposed universal language (Atlantic Monthly, Jan., 1906)*.—“The history of the Esperanto movement falls conveniently into four periods: we are [written in 1922] at the opening of the fifth. The first, from its inception to 1898, was one of obscure and slow progress. A devoted band of Slavs and Scandinavians kept the language alive, and supported a small magazine, *La Esperantisto*, published first at Nürnberg, then at Upsala under the new name *Lingvo Internacia*. Then, in 1898, the French took the lead, and the period of genuine expansion began. . . . The French Society for the propagation of Esperanto was founded in 1898; M. Gaston Moch gave a report on the International Language Question at the Eight Universal Peace Congress (1897); M. Ernest Naville read a paper in favour of Esperanto before the French Academy of Moral and Political Sciences (1890); the innumerable meetings and conventions held in Paris during the World’s Fair of 1900 gave a new impetus to international problems. The Delegation for the adoption of an International Language was first thought of in 1900, and actually organized in 1901. In the same year, General Sébert, of the French Academy of Sciences, brought the question before the newly created International Association of Academies. The richest and most active private organization in France, the Touring Club, with over 100,000 members, gave Esperanto its powerful support; and the old, conservative, semi-academic firm of Hachette became the chief publisher of the new literature. Thus, from 1898 to 1905, the progress of Esperanto was extremely rapid, and several hundred thousand copies of Chefch’s small Esperanto textbook were sold. The third period, from 1905 to 1914, was one of worldwide develop-

ment, characterized by the annual International Conventions—the embryonic Parliament of Esperantoland; by the growth of an important periodical press; and by the creation of new organs for the practical application of Esperanto to the needs of commerce, industry, science, and travel. The first of the International Conventions was held at Boulogne-sur-Mer, France, in August 1905; the second at Geneva in 1906; the third at Cambridge in 1907; the fourth at Dresden in 1908; the fifth at Barcelona in 1909—in spite of the revolutionary outbreak which had occurred in that city a few months before; the sixth at Washington, D.C., in 1910; the seventh at Antwerp in 1911; the eighth at Genoa in 1913. These conventions . . . lasted over a week, and attracted up to 1,800 delegates from all parts of the world. . . . The Great War forms . . . the fourth and darkest period of Esperanto history. International meetings were out of the question: the Eleventh Congress, held at San Francisco in 1915, at the time of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, was but a ghost of what such gatherings had been; no other, even on that limited scale, was possible until 1920. The number of Esperanto periodicals fell from over a hundred to less than thirty. Groups ceased to exist, or were reduced to a state of ‘suspended activity.’ . . . But the cataclysm is over. . . . Groups are reconstituted everywhere; magazines are published anew; according to Dr. Cottrell, ‘over seventy are again appearing and almost every week brings word of further resumption of publication or the starting of new ones.’ International conventions have been resumed: the twelfth took place at The Hague in 1920, the thirteenth at Prague in 1921.”—A. L. Guérard, *Short history of the international language movement*, pp. 116-117, 123-124.—“The oral use of the language is not, up to the present, the more important. Esperanto is still principally a written tongue. Of the magnitude of its literature, few outsiders form an adequate idea. Some people have a vague notion that there are only a few textbooks in existence, with perhaps half a dozen ‘faddy’ magazines. Now, in 1914 there were over a hundred Esperanto papers: some in Esperanto and a national language, devoted to propaganda in a particular country; others entirely in the universal tongue, and dealing with some special subject: *La Revuo* (literary), *Vocho de Kuracistoj* (medical), *Scienca Revuo*, *Internacia Socia Revuo*, *Dia Regno* (Christian Endeavour), *Espero Katolika*, etc. A large number of current periodicals used to print Esperanto articles, as the *North American Review* did for a while. The volumes of *La Revuo* alone—published in Paris by Hachette, with regular contributions from Dr. Zamenhof—contained a wealth of excellent literature, translated or original, in prose or in verse. . . . [The] *Outline of Esperanto Literature*, published by the Esperanto Association of North America, . . . contains several hundred titles. . . . Esperanto is no longer an end in itself—a fad or a game: it has already been used in non-Esperanto gatherings, either in connexion with natural languages, as in the Medical Congress of Buda-Pest in 1909, or exclusively, as in two Catholic conventions held in Paris in 1910 and at The Hague in 1911. It has been found useful for tourists, and as such endorsed by the French Touring Club and by Messrs. Thomas Cook. Descriptive pamphlets and catalogues are published in it. Firms like the Manufacture Française d’Armes et de Cycles, of St. Etienne, and the world-famous ‘Bon Marché’ corresponded in Esperanto. . . . The Universal Esperanto Association (Geneva, Switzerland) devotes itself exclusively to

this practical side: Esperanto is not its aim, but its instrument. This Society at the end of 1911 had 1,000 delegates and 766 "consuls," 158 information bureaux in 885 places and 47 countries; 7,804 individual members; 17 Esperantist Associations were affiliated with it, as well as 266 non-Esperantist societies, groups or firms of all kinds, including the Chamber of Commerce of Los Angeles.' The U.E.A. [Universal Esperanto Association] is the nucleus of the Esperanto 'super-nation,' scattered all over the globe, but one in interests and ideals, as it is one in speech."—*Ibid.*, pp. 119, 121-122.—Esperanto was endorsed and urged by Abdul Baha, the head of the Bahai religious movement, and by many international bodies, including the Red Cross and the International Order of Good Templars. At the first session of the Assembly of the League of Nations, held in Geneva, in December, 1920, a resolution recommending its teaching in the schools of the world preparatory to its adoption as the language of the League was favorably reported by the committee to which it had been referred; but its consideration was postponed by a small majority.

"The Paris Chamber of Commerce has taken the initiative in instituting Esperanto classes in all their commercial schools so that students can learn for commercial purposes an auxiliary international language. Before taking this step the chamber appointed a committee to inquire into the real usefulness of Esperanto, and among other tests they made was to translate a large number of business letters into Esperanto and then back into French. It was found that the sense of the letters was in no way lost. The committee recommended that Chambers of Commerce in other countries should be asked to institute similar classes in the language invented by Dr. Zamenhof, which they are convinced will enable international business to be carried on without error and with much greater dispatch and cheapness than when translators into half a dozen languages have to be employed. The ease with which Esperanto can be learned and its accuracy in translation were regarded as its two principal recommendations above other artificial languages. . . . Some of the texts submitted to the test were such that the slightest mistake would completely change the meaning, but Esperanto was found to meet all requirements. M. André Baudet, Chairman of the committee on whose recommendation it was decided to open the classes, describes Esperanto as rather an international code than as a language. 'It won't revolutionize the world,' he said, 'and there is no likelihood that it will take the place of any language, but, just like a telegraphic code or a system of stenography, it can be useful to every people and aid enormously in international business.'"—*New York Times*, Feb. 16, 1921.

ALSO IN: W. Edgerly, *Universal language*.—E. P. Foster, *Ru ro outline of universal language*.—M. Talmey, *Ido*.

**INTERNATIONAL LAW: Definition.**—"International Law consists in certain rules of conduct which modern civilized states regard as being binding on them in their relations with one another with a force comparable in nature and degree to that binding the conscientious person to obey the laws of his country, and which they also regard as being enforceable by appropriate means in case of infringement."—W. E. Hall, *Treatise on international law*, p. 1.

**Nature, sources, and sanction.**—Some writers, especially Austin and his followers, have defined law so narrowly that international law could not properly be included as such. But according to

the present trend of opinion (Maine, Hall, Nys, Westlake, Pollock, Taylor, Moore, Lawrence, Oppenheim, and others) customary law may have an existence previous to and apart from the recognition of it as law by the state, and international law may be equally truly law, even though not imposed or enforced by any external authority. "Regarding the law of nations, then, as a true customary law, though still imperfectly organized, we may say that it is ascertained and developed in three ways: by the authority of writers, by recognition and declaration in treaties and other diplomatic acts, and by the embodiment of general opinion in the usage of nations. . . . Official judicial and other learned persons who cannot conceive authority divested of official sanction have gravely pointed out that Grotius and his successors, not being legislators, could not make law. More than twenty years ago, Sir Henry Maine gave the right answer: 'What we have to notice,' he said, 'is that the founders of international law, though they did not create a sanction, created a law-abiding sentiment. They diffused among sovereigns, and the literate classes in communities, a strong repugnance to the neglect or breach of certain rules regulating the relations and actions of States. They did this not by threatening punishment, but by the alternative and older method, long known in Europe and Asia, of creating a strong approval of a certain body of rules.' . . . Another kind of evidence of the law of nations is afforded by treaties and similar instruments. These, however, must be used with caution. For it is obvious that the terms of an express convention between two or more Powers can of themselves have no binding force upon any other Power which is not a party to it. . . . It is otherwise . . . where an agreement or declaration is made not by two or three States as a matter of their own private business, but by a considerable proportion, in number and power, of civilized States at large, for the regulation of matters of general and permanent interest. Such acts are the outcome of congresses or conferences held for the purpose, and they are now commonly so framed as to admit of and invite the subsequent adhesion of States which may not have been parties in the first instance. Moreover it is certain that, when all or most of the Great Powers have deliberately agreed to any rule of general application, their agreement has very great weight, even among States whose consent has not been given. . . . The weight of actual usage, and the proof derived from it, remain the most important factors of all; for the final test of validity must in the case of international law, no less than in that of any other customary law, be found in general consent evidenced by conduct."—F. Pollock, *Modern law of nations and prevention of war* (*Cambridge modern history*, v. 12, pp. 711-715).—"From the time of Grotius downwards, all civilized states have recognized the validity of this body of law, and have enforced it in their courts exactly as if it had been enacted by their own supreme legislative bodies. A large part of the literature of the subject consists, indeed, of the judgment of great lawyers, like Lord Stowell in England, given in the course of the trial of cases wherein the provisions of this book-made law were accepted as decisive."—R. Muir, *Nationalism and internationalism*, pp. 147-148.—"Every satisfactory definition of law implies a sanction. Some penalty must be imposed upon a law-breaker, to be exacted, in the last resort, by external power. . . . But the power which stands ready to enforce

the law in every ordered state, and diverts many would-be offenders from their purpose, itself came into being by the will or consent of the dominant part of the community, and relies for its support on their continued consent. . . . A few months ago [1919] an impending national strike on the railways of Great Britain seemed to threaten, by its possible consequences, the whole system of law and government. But as soon as the blow fell, it was at once evident that the general body of the public were wholly opposed to constitutional changes brought about by pressure from any single section of the community, and from that moment the ultimate issue was certain. When, on the other hand, Germany and Austria challenged the public of Europe in 1914, the challenge was not at once accepted by every member of the family of nations, nor by so many of them as to make the task of the law-breaker hopeless from the outset. And so the issue was long in the balance, and the law of nations was suspended for a time. But though a comparison between these two cases shows that the sanction of the municipal law of England proved to be stronger than that of the public law between states, the difference between them was solely one of strength, and not at all a difference in kind. Both systems of law depend for their enforcement upon external power resting upon general consent; neither can ever be wholly exempt from the possibility of breakdown or overthrow."—R. F. Roxburgh, *Sanction of international law (American Journal of International Law, Jan., 1920)*.

Usages in the ancient world.—"Nearly all our knowledge of international law among ancient states is derived from their intercourse with the Jews, and with the Greeks and Romans, more especially with the latter. Most of the rules were founded on religion. Treaties were sanctioned with solemn oaths, the violation of which it was believed would be followed by the vengeance of the gods. War between nations of the same race and religion was declared with sacred rites and ceremonies, but when once begun it was waged with little rule or check. The heralds proclaimed its existence by devoting the enemy to the infernal gods. Ambassadors and heralds always had a sacred character. The division of the Greek world into a large number of independent communities favoured the existence of an Hellenic law of nations, presenting in many points—such as the recognition of common Hellenic customs, religious and political, and of the principle of a balance of power—a parallel to modern international law. They generally gave quarter, allowed the ransom of prisoners, respected trophies, and allowed truces for the burying of the dead; and they had a usage bearing a resemblance to the consular system of the present day. The *jus feciale* of the earlier Roman law regulating the formal intercourse between Rome and other nations, is indeed the germ of what might have been a system of pure international law, but the rise of the Roman Republic to the mastery of the world rendered a *jus inter gentes* unnecessary and impossible. The principles of natural justice to international relations, however imperfectly executed, and though never reduced to a system, were not unknown to the Romans. . . . But international law, as we understand the term at the present day, did not exist when Rome was mistress of the world. . . . There were some redeeming features, such, for example, as the allowing prisoners of war to purchase their freedom, and selling them only when unransomed and from this practice, in the course of time, grew up the more

humane custom of allowing the exchange of prisoners. Captives were not maltreated by the Romans as the Athenians were at Syracuse by Greek conquerors, with the exception of kings and generals, who were, at least in Cicero's day, butchered without mercy, after having been led in triumph through the city. Nor did the Romans entirely deprive the inhabitants of the conquered country of their lands; they allowed them to retain some small portion on the condition that they paid rent for the same as tenants (*coloni*)."—J. E. R. Stephens, *Rise and growth of international law (New Century Review, Feb., 1898)*.—See also ROME: Republic: B.C. 367; JUS GENTIUM.

Medieval usages.—"As the Roman Empire fell, the advancing tide of barbarian invasion swept away the bulwarks of civilization. Commerce disappeared; warfare was restrained by no rules; pirates swept the seas. And in the ninth century the terrible incursions of the Northmen began to add a fresh element of horror to the universal confusion. But a new and better order slowly evolved itself out of the chaos. The Christian Church softened the manners and mitigated the cruelty of the barbarian nations, as one by one they entered into her fold. The temporal power of the Holy Roman Empire and the spiritual authority of the Papacy worked together for a time in the cause of civilization. Feudalism became the great organizing principle in remodelling society. The study of Roman Law gave a magazine of new ideas and rules to statesmen and lawyers. . . . Viewed in connection with international relations, the most important part of the new organization of Europe was the universal supremacy claimed by the Roman Pontiff and the Emperor, the former in the spiritual, the latter in the temporal sphere. . . . It may, however, be advisable to point out here that both Pope and Emperor were rather judges and arbitrators than law-givers. They dealt with particular cases, not with general rules. There was no *corpus* of International Law till comparatively modern times. The nearest approach in the Middle Ages to any system of regulations that could be known beforehand by states was found in the various maritime codes."—T. J. Lawrence, *Principles of international law, pp. 35-36*.

Maritime codes.—"It is to mediæval commerce that we owe those collections of maritime law which have exercised such a great influence upon the subsequent development of this branch of international jurisprudence. By far the most important of these was the *Consolato del Mare*, a private collection of rules derived from maritime practice in the Mediterranean, which was published in Barcelona, Spain, in 1494. These rules showed a remarkable liberality toward friends or neutrals. They made ownership of the ship and goods the test of liability for forfeiture, and laid down the principle that a friend's goods found on board an enemy ship were to be restored to the owner on payment of the freight. . . . On the other hand, enemy goods found on a neutral vessel were subject to confiscation, although even in this case, the vessel, which might be compelled to carry the cargo to a place of safety, was restored to its owner. . . . Other important mediæval collections or codes of maritime law were: (1) The so-called *Amalfitan Tables*, which appear to date from the eleventh century. (2) The *Laws of Oleron* for Western Europe, which seem to have been completed in the latter part of the twelfth century. (3) The *Laws of Wisby*, dating from about 1288, for the Baltic

Nations. (4) *The Maritime Law of the Hanseatic League*, completed in 1614. (5) The so-called *Rhodian Sea-Law* of the Roman Empire and the Early Middle Ages, which, however, is generally regarded as apocryphal.—A. S. Hershey, *International relations during antiquity and the Middle Ages* (*American Journal of International Law*, Oct., 1911, p. 929).—See also ADMIRALTY LAW: 1798.

**Renaissance.—Innovations facilitating international relations.—Renewed interest in jurisprudence.—Effect of Reformation.**—The new custom of permanent embassies, during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, added greatly to the security and facility of international intercourse. Standing armies, and consequent uniform military discipline paved the way for more universal rules of warfare. New questions of maritime rights were brought up by the great discoveries and explorations, and consequent changes in commerce. A revived interest in classical law and jurisprudence inspired the treatises of Suarez, Ayala, and Gentilis, which opened a new field, that of international jurisprudence. "The Renaissance of science and art in the fifteenth century, together with the resurrection of the knowledge of antiquity, revived the philosophical and æsthetic ideals of Greek life and transferred them to modern life. Through their influence the spirit of the Christian religion took precedence of its letter. The conviction awoke everywhere that the principles of Christianity ought to unite the Christian world more than they had done hitherto, and that these principles ought to be observed in matters international as much as in matters national. The Reformation, on the other hand, made an end to the spiritual mastership of the Pope over the civilised world. Protestant States could not recognise the claim of the Pope to arbitrate as of right in their conflicts either between one another or between themselves and Catholic States."—L. Oppenheim, *International law*, v. 1, p. 57.

**Grotius and the early jurists.**—"The horrors of sixteenth and seventeenth century warfare, however, and the faithlessness and brutality which often marked the relations of states during those centuries, and especially during the hideous Thirty Years' War, awakened men to the need of having some clear and accepted exposition of the restrictions by which states should be bound in their mutual relations. Two or three partial attempts in this direction were made in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, but the work of the Dutch scholar and jurist Grotius *De Jure Belli et Pacis*, published in Paris in 1625 in the midst of the horrors of the Thirty Years' War, marked so immense an advance on anything that had been previously done, and attained so quickly an authoritative position, that it has been justly claimed that modern International Law sprang fully-developed from the brain of Grotius. He had a long succession of followers during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and it is remarkable that all the most respected writers on this new subject came from those little states which were most conscious of the need for the protection of a system of international law; Puffendorf, Leibniz, and Wolff sprang from the little divided principalities of Germany; Bynkershoek, like Grotius, from Holland; Vattel (whose *Droit des Gens*, published in 1758, became the most generally popular exposition of the subject) from Switzerland."—R. Muir, *Nationalism and internationalism*, p. 146-147.—"The object of Grotius was to correct the false theories and pernicious maxims which then existed by shewing a community of senti-

ment among the wise and learned of all nations and ages in favour of the natural law of morality. He also endeavoured to shew that justice was of perpetual obligation and essential to the well-being of every society, and that the great commonwealth of nations stood in need of law, the observance of faith, and the practice of justice. His idea was to digest into one systematic code the principles of public right, and to supply authorities for almost every case in the conduct of nations; thus, he had the honour of reducing the law of nations to a system, and of producing a work which has been resorted to as the standard of authority in every succeeding age."—J. E. R. Stephens, *Rise and growth of international law* (*New Century Review*, Feb., 1898).—"The chief inspiration of Grotius himself was the *jus gentium* or *jus naturæ* [see *JUS GENTIUM*] which he borrowed directly from the Roman jurists. . . . This 'law of nations' which the Roman lawyers had worked out had been created in the first instance by the practical necessity of finding a common set of rules for the many different tribes whom Rome had conquered. But the idea had been enlarged by being merged with the philosophical idea of the Law of Nature, or body of fundamental moral conceptions which Nature was supposed to prescribe; the two really distinct ideas of the 'Law of Nations,' or greatest common measure of various tribal customs, and the 'Law of Nature,' or moral rule of the universe, were blended and confused, and in this form were handed down to the Middle Ages, which very readily accepted the conception. Obviously the Law of Nations as conceived by the Roman or mediæval jurist was something quite different from what we mean by International Law: it was a body of law that was obligatory upon all individuals, not a body of law regulating the relations of sovereign states with one another. But the universal acceptance of the binding character of this Law of Nations, and the suggestion of internationality conveyed by its name, made it easy for Grotius to apply it to the new purpose. . . . A second source of International Law was the body of customs which had grown up during centuries. Some of these were in part the product of the feudal age and the usages of chivalry, such as the rules regarding the treatment of heralds, ambassadors, and prisoners of war. Others had arisen from the needs of commerce. . . . These usages were capable of codification and unification. So far as concerned maritime law, this was done first by the Dutchman, Bynkershoek [in his treatise *De Dominio Maris* (1721)]. Lastly, the innumerable treaties between various states implied or embodied many principles which were capable of being expressed in a legal form, and this was done by the philosopher Leibniz in his *Codex juris gentium diplomaticus* (1693)."—R. Muir, *Nationalism and internationalism*, pp. 149-152.—Other notable jurists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (with the date of publication of their more important works) are Zouch (1650); Puffendorf (1672, 1675); Wolff (1749, 1750); and G. F. von Martens (1785, 1788, 1791).

1648-1714.—Peace of Westphalia becomes basis of doctrine of territorial sovereignty.—Growth of law of nations.—Maritime law.—Progress in laws of land warfare.—"The Thirty Years' War was an epoch-making event in the history of international law. It was not merely a great struggle between Protestantism and Roman Catholicism, but from it emerged the principle of territorial independence as opposed to imperialism. The international system of the present day was definitely marked out and the characteristics of



the modern state defined."—E. M. Borchard, *Diplomatic protection of citizens abroad*, p. 7.—"The Grotian system depends upon a full and unqualified recognition of the doctrine of territorial sovereignty from which flow the corollaries that all states are formally equal, and that territory and jurisdiction are coextensive. Such was the basis of the settlement embodied in the Peace of Westphalia [see GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia], so far as the written treaty law was concerned, and upon that basis it has been claimed from that day to this that, before the law of nations, the legal rights of the greatest and smallest states are identical. But such rights and such equality have always been enjoyed *sub modo*,—that is, subject to the irresistible power vested by the conventional or higher law in a committee composed of the representatives of a few of the greater states acting in behalf of the whole."—H. Taylor, *Treatise on international public law*, p. 98.

"The intermediate period between the peace of Westphalia and that of Utrecht was filled with a series of wars, growing out of the ambitious projects of Louis XIV. . . . The history of this long series of wars, and of the negotiations by which they were occasionally suspended, is fruitful in examples of the progress which the law of nations continued to make, in spite of the practical violation of its precepts too often occurring in the intercourse of states. Cardinal Mazarin, looking only to political and commercial interests, did not hesitate to recognize the government of an usurper [Cromwell] who had shed the blood of his sovereign on the scaffold. He avowed the maxim that the relations of amity and commerce between states had no necessary connection between the form of their respective governments, and sought to maintain the good understanding between France and England by a religious execution of the subsisting treaties which had been made with the dethroned and banished house of Stuart. It was only when the revolution of 1688 placed at the head of the British government an active and able prince, who formed the continental alliance by which the ambitious designs of Louis XIV were baffled, that the latter monarch embraced the cause of the Stuarts; motives of political interest coinciding with the principle of legitimacy and the divine right of kings. During all this period, the influence of the writings of the publicists, including Grotius and his successors, was perceptibly felt in the councils and conduct of nations. The diplomacy of the seventeenth century was learned and laborious in the transaction of business. Its state papers are filled with appeals, not merely to reasons of policy, but to the principles of right, of justice, and equity; to the authority of the oracles of public law; to those general rules and principles by which the rights of the weak are protected against the invasions of superior force by the union of all who are interested in the common danger. . . . Among the principles constantly appealed to . . . was that of the right of intervention to prevent the undue aggrandizement of one European state affecting the general security and independence of nations by materially disturbing the equilibrium of their respective forces."—H. Wheaton, *History of the law of nations*, pp. 78-80.—Maritime law was the subject of many international agreements, as well as of disputes and disagreements. The theory of sea sovereignty was ultimately rejected; but laws of capture and search received more and more attention. The French Ordinance of 1681 and the Treaty of Utrecht are the most important public

documents on the matter. In connection with the growing conception of neutrality, Bynkershoek formulated (1702) the modern idea of territorial waters. But the greatest progress was made in the laws of land warfare. "This improvement may be most distinctly and visibly traced in the treatment of prisoners of war. . . . The exact time at which the practice of exchanging was substituted for that of ransoming is not easily ascertained. It appears from a proclamation of Charles I of England issued in 1628 that it had not then completely taken place. . . . In the year 1665 there is mention of a person coming to England, in a public capacity to negotiate an exchange of prisoners *flagrante bello* between that country and Holland. It appears to have been practiced between the French and Imperial armies in Italy during the war of the Spanish succession."—*Ibid.*, pp. 87, 162-163.

1713-1800.—Practice and theory.—"The most important events in the international relations of the eighteenth century were: the admission of Russia under Peter the Great to full membership in the circle of European states; the rise of Prussia under Frederick the Great as a first-rate Power; the declaration and achievement of American independence; and the outbreak of the French Revolution. The colonization of America by the leading nations of Europe, which was begun on a large and effective scale during the seventeenth and continued during the eighteenth century, gave rise to new questions to which the Roman law of *occupatio* and *alluvium* was applied. In Europe the main issues were dynastic, economic and territorial, and the principle of the balance of power based on an equilibrium of forces was repeatedly affirmed and violated. The diplomacy of this period was dominated by Machiavellian aims and methods. The end was the glory and aggrandizement of dynasties and states; and to attain these ends all means seemed good. Treaties were violated whenever the interests of the state (*raison d'Etat*) appeared to demand it, and wars were undertaken on the slightest pretexts. Frederick the Great suddenly invaded Silesia upon the death of Charles VI, in 1740, within a few years after having written his 'Anti-Machiavelli'; and of all the states which had guaranteed the pragmatic sanction of the Emperor, England alone (and she acted from motives of self-interest) kept faith with Austria upon the accession of Maria Theresa after the death of her father. But the greatest crime committed by the Machiavellian statesmen of the eighteenth century was the extinction of one of the most important members of the European family of nations—the three-fold division of Poland in 1772, 1793, and 1795."—A. S. Hershey, *History of international law since the Peace of Westphalia* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1912, pp. 40-41).—See also POLAND: 1763-1790; 1793-1796.—In sharp contrast to actual practice were the idealistic principles of the French theorists, later endorsed by the American and French revolutions. "The Abbe de Saint-Pierre had presented the world with his 'Project of Perpetual Peace' in 1713. Montesquieu taught that the law of nations is naturally based upon the principle that the various nations should do each other as much good as possible in times of peace; in war as little harm as possible, without injuring their true interests. Rousseau affirmed that war is not a relation between individuals but a relation between states. Mably, the author of an important work entitled *The Public Law of Europe Based on Treaties* (1748), advocated love for justice and humanity, respect for treaties, and the immunity

of private property in maritime warfare. The National Assembly of France solemnly declared on May 22, 1790, that 'the French Nation renounces wars of conquest and will never use force against the liberty of any people.' But on November 19, 1792, the National Convention, abandoning the early principles of the Revolution, issued its famous decree that France 'will grant fraternity and aid to all peoples who may wish to recover their liberty,'—a decree which was, however, abrogated on April 14, 1793, by one declaring in favor of non-intervention. The Jacobins incorporated the principle of non-intervention in their still-born constitution of 1793. On June 18, 1793, Abbe Gregoire presented a 'Project for a Declaration of the Law of Nations' in twenty-one articles, as a pendant to the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man' of 1789. It contained few principles which are unsound. Some of them form part and parcel of the fundamental rights of states; others belong to the international law of the future; only a few are impracticable. This project, which has been characterized as Utopian, was rejected by the convention; but it may nevertheless be regarded as expressing the altruistic and idealistic spirit of the French Revolution in its attitude toward foreign nations."—*Ibid.*, pp. 43-44.—Similar theories, combined with political motives, were the basis of the armed neutrality of 1780, in which Catherine of Russia "laid down as principles she intended to defend, the rules proposed by Denmark some months earlier; freedom for neutrals to trade with belligerents; free ships, free goods; contraband limited to munitions of war, exclusive of naval stores; a blockade not binding unless effectually maintained."—L. F. Brown, *Freedom of the seas*, pp. 95-96.

1792-1885.—French and English violations.—Protest of the United States.—Progress.—"During the period of the gigantic revolutionary and Napoleonic struggles (1792-1815), fundamental principles and customs of international law, more especially of maritime law, were set at naught by both France and England, and the rights of neutral commerce were violated in the most outrageous manner. Napoleon, through his Berlin and Milan decrees of 1806 and 1807, not only declared the whole British Isles to be in a state of blockade and interdicted all commerce and correspondence with them, but ordered that all vessels sailing to or from any port in the United Kingdom or its colonies should be confiscated. [See also BLOCKADE: Meaning.] The British Orders in Council declared all French ports, together with those of her allies, to be in a state of blockade, and ordered the confiscation of any neutral vessel carrying 'certificates of origin'—a device for distinguishing between British and neutral goods. These measures taken together threatened the destruction of all neutral commerce. These abuses called forth the protest and opposition of the United States, which had become the main champion of neutral rights and duties at the beginning of Washington's administration in 1793—a position which she has since, on the whole, maintained."—A. S. Hershey, *History of international law since the Peace of Westphalia* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1912, p. 45).—"The principles of international law (or as the diplomats still preferred to call it, the Law of Nations) were repeatedly endorsed in general terms by the statesmen of 1815, but they made no attempt to draw up 'a new code of the law of nations' such as Alexander I had suggested in 1804. They left it, what it had been since its first exposition by Grotius, a body of rules and usages generally

observed by the nations, and enforced by their courts, but nowhere quite authoritatively defined, and therefore open to dispute and to varying interpretations. They thus lost a great opportunity not only of placing the system on a sound basis, but of extending its scope. For there were many spheres in which international rules would have been advantageous, and might have been readily accepted in 1815, but which could only be dealt with by common agreement; such as the conditions under which a citizen of one state should be admitted to citizenship of another, the restrictions that ought to be imposed upon shipping for the safety of passengers and crew, or the rules for the extradition of criminals. Nevertheless, some additions were made in 1815 to the scope of international law. Thus there was an elaborate definition of the rights of navigation on rivers which pass through more than one country. More significant, there was a general declaration against the slave trade, first issued in 1815 on the proposal of Britain, and renewed in stronger terms at the Congress of Verona in 1822; and though these declarations did not amount to a formal prohibition, they were interpreted by the Conference of Berlin in 1885 as having made the slave-trade illegal 'in conformity with the principles of international law as recognised by the signatory powers.'"—R. Muir, *Nationalism and internationalism*, pp. 170-171.

1815-1914.—Great powers system.—The primacy of the great powers is the basis of the European concert. The Monroe Doctrine was originally conceived as a form of opposition to this theory, but has since lent itself to a similar idea of the position of the United States with regard to America. Japan, admitted to the circle of the great powers in 1899, has likewise formulated a theory of hegemony with regard to the Far East. These various doctrines, although endorsed by usage, have not received the universal assent which would make them a part of international law, and hold a rather anomalous position.—See also MONROE DOCTRINE.

1856-1909.—Rapid growth of international legislation.—Treatises and unofficial codifications.—"The half century beginning with the Declaration of Paris [see also PARIS, DECLARATION OF] in 1856 and ending with the London Conference in 1909 . . . has been a period of congresses and conferences, of international unions and associations with definite organs in the shape of commissions and bureaux which are rapidly developing a sort of international legislation and an international administrative law. Although the principle of nationality won its greatest triumphs during this period in the achievement of Italian and German unity (1859-70), it seems that the spirit of nationality is being modified or supplemented by that of internationalism, and that the older conceptions of sovereignty and independence are yielding to ideals of interdependence."—A. S. Hershey, *History of international law since the Peace of Westphalia* (*American Journal of International Law*, Jan., 1912, pp. 50-51).—"Before the end of the nineteenth century, general conventional agreements had been made and signed by a large number of states acting together upon such matters as an 'International Bureau of Weights and Measures' (Metric System), 1875; 'International Protection of Industrial Property,' 1883; 'Protection of Submarine Cables' (in time of peace), 1884; 'Exchange of Official Documents, Scientific and Literary Publications,' 1886; 'Repression of African Slave Trade,' 1890; 'Formation of an International Union for the Publication of Customs Tariff,'

1890; and 'Regulation of Importation of Spirituous Liquors into Certain Regions of Africa,' 1890. Such international agreements became a part of the written law of nations, but covered only a very small part of the entire field of international relations in peace and war."—G. G. Wilson, *Legislative aspects, in symposium on international law (American Philosophical Society, Proceedings, v. 55, p. 308)*.—See also COPYRIGHT: 1909-1021.—The more formal international legislation of the period deals largely with the rules of war and neutrality, and means of avoiding war; it comprises, in addition to the Declaration of St. Petersburg (1868) and the abortive discussions of the Brussels conference of 1874, five important acts: the Declaration of Paris; the Geneva conventions (q. v.); the Hague conventions of 1890 and of 1907 (q. v.); and the Declaration of London.

The official codes of 1856, 1864, 1890, 1907 and 1909 were the outgrowth of long agitation. As early as the end of the eighteenth century, Jeremy Bentham emphasized the need of authoritative knowledge of precisely what is the law between nations. It is to Bentham that we are indebted for the term "international law" which replaced the earlier "law of nations." His influence, especially great in England, France and Spanish America, inspired many other publicists. Yet it is to the government of the United States that the world is indebted for the first official codification of the laws of land warfare, in the "Instructions for the government of armies of the United States in the field" prepared by Dr. Francis Lieber, and issued in 1863. This served as a model for the Geneva convention, and also initiated a general policy of drawing up codes for both military and naval action, by all the more important European governments. Treatises on international law, and unofficial codifications, are now numerous. The more important writers, grouped according to nationality, are as follows: British: Phillimore, Travers Twiss, Hall, Maine, Lorimer, T. J. Lawrence, Walker, Westlake, Baty, Barclay, Cobbett, Higgins, Holland, Phillipson, Spaight. American: Kent, Wheaton, Woolsey, Halleck, Field, Pomeroy, Snow, Moore, Davis, Taylor, J. B. Scott, Hershey, Wilson. Swiss and German: Heffter, Bluntschli, Perels, Ullman, Oppenheim. French: Ortolan, Funck-Brentano et Sorel, Pradier-Fodéré, Bonfils, Despagnet, Merignhac. Italian: Fiore, Mancini. South American: Calvo. Belgian: Laurent, Nys. Russian: F. de Martens. Austrian: Lammasch, Neumann. Japanese: Ariga, Takahashi. With these should be included Sir William Scott, Lord Stowell, of England, and judges Marshall, Story and Gray, of the United States. The Institut de Droit International, founded at Ghent in 1873, has exerted considerable unofficial influence through its various resolutions and recommendations. A somewhat analogous place is occupied in America by the American Society of International Law.

1914-1919.—Violations during World War.—Treaty of Versailles.—It is impossible to determine exactly the present status of international law. In the World War violations were alleged on both sides, in connection with such matters as validity of treaties; treatment of prisoners, enemy aliens, and occupied territory; status and transfer of enemy merchantmen; use of gas and explosive bullets; submarine and aerial warfare; bombardment of monuments and unfortified towns; blockade and embargo; contraband; etc. This by no means implies that the law is non-existent. "Law does not cease to exist merely because it

is broken, or even because for a time it may be broken on a large scale; neither does the escape of some criminals abolish penal justice. . . . Concerning the law of nations, the wonder is not that it should be broken, but that, down to the present war it should have been fairly well observed by most nations and ostensibly respected by all, in spite of lacking any definite sanction."—F. Pollock, *Introduction to Wheaton's Elements of international law, pp. xl-xli*.—See also WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.—"I do not hesitate to affirm that the violations of international law during the present conflict in Europe, fierce and wide extended as it is, have not exceeded, either in number or in importance, those that occurred during the wars growing out of the French Revolution and the succeeding Napoleonic Wars. In reality, many recent violations, which are commonly supposed to be new, have precise precedents, or analogies in what took place in the former titanic struggle, in which there were extensions of the contraband list and interferences with commerce under pretences of blockade, just as there have been during the present great struggle. These things are done, not because of any uncertainty as to the law, but because the parties to the war, being engaged in life and death contention by force, naturally think more of their own safety than of the interests of neutral nations. Nor is there in these things any reason for discouragement as to the future of international law. As the ordinary rules of intercourse have in all previous conflicts been more or less disregarded, according to the exigency or the intensity of pressure, so it has been found that when the incidents of the struggle came to be surveyed, there arose a general desire to extend the domain of law, to define its rules more clearly, and to take measures for their more effectual enforcement. This was what happened after the Thirty Years' War. The same thing occurred after the close of the wars growing out of the Spanish Succession. It happened again after the close of the Napoleonic Wars; and a similar phenomenon distinguished the ending of the Crimean War. . . . Judging, therefore, by the past, we are justified in looking forward to important developments in international law."—J. B. Moore, *Outline, in symposium on international law (American Philosophical Society, Proceedings, v. 55, pp. 294-295)*.—This prophecy, written during the progress of the war, has not yet been wholly fulfilled. The Treaty of Versailles does not attempt the urgently needed revision and clarification of international law. It does, however, set up in the league an international administration. And as precedents, its various provisions will doubtless affect the law profoundly, especially in the fundamental problem of the equality of nations, often referred to under the term "rights of small nations." "The primacy of the great Powers is sanctioned by more than a century of custom, which allows the affirmation not even of a legal equality. For although the acquiescence of the small nations in the decisions of the great Powers may have relieved the former of the necessity of admitting any invasion of the doctrine of equality, it is evident that the invasion took place none the less, inasmuch as their non-acquiescence would not have deterred the great Powers from carrying their decisions into effect. [The Treaty of Versailles perpetuates this system. Although equality is theoretically to be observed in legislation, the distinct preference shown to the five powers in the constitution of the judiciary] is

significant.] On the other hand, a new implication of the doctrine, one which has not yet received explicit definition, namely, that on highways or in zones, international or under international control, nations have equal rights of passage and trade, was recognized and sanctioned by so many provisions of the treaty that it must be regarded as firmly established. Finally, the only possible conclusion from the provisions of the treaty relating to the administration of international affairs is that they crystallize the primacy of five nations, the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan. . . . It is almost incredible that the crystallization of the inequality of nations in international administration should not result in the invasion by inequality of the status of nations in the formation and application of international law. Evidence is not lacking that the invasion has already begun."—S. W. Armstrong, *Doctrine of the equality of nations and the treaty of Versailles* (*American Journal of International Law*, Oct., 1920).

1920.—Recommendations of a committee of jurists.—A committee of jurists which met at the Hague in the summer of 1920 "unanimously recommended a series of conferences to be called 'Conferences for the Advancement of International Law,' to meet as successors to the first two Hague Conferences, [which met in 1899 and 1907] at stated times, to continue the work left unfinished, and the committee recommended further that the first of the series be held as soon as practicable for the purposes which they were bold enough to state as follows: 1. To restate the established rules of international law, especially, and in the first instance, in the fields affected by the events of the recent war. 2. To formulate and agree upon the amendments and additions, if any, to the rules of international law shown to be necessary or useful by the events of the war and the changes in the conditions of international life and intercourse which have followed the war. 3. To endeavor to reconcile divergent views and secure general agreement upon the rules which have been in dispute heretofore. 4. To consider the subjects not now adequately regulated by international law, but as to which the interests of international justice require that rules of law shall be declared and accepted."—J. B. Scott, *Development of modern diplomacy* (*History and nature of international relations*, E. A. Walsb, ed., pp. 121-122).

1922.—Laws of nations concerning use of submarines and poison gas. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL; BALANCE OF POWER; BLOCKADE; DRAGO DOCTRINE; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS; LEAGUE OF NATIONS; MONROE DOCTRINE; "MOST FAVORED NATION" CLAUSE; RECOGNITION OF STATES; TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF; WORLD WAR; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.

ALSO IN: R. Ward, *Enquiry into the foundation and history of the law of nations in Europe from the time of the Greeks and Romans to the Age of Grotius*.—J. Hosack, *Rise and growth of the law of nations from the earliest time to the Treaty of Utrecht*.—H. Wheaton, *History of the law of nations in Europe and America*.—*American Journal of International Law*.—J. W. Garner, *International law and the Great War*.—C. Phillipson, *International law and the Great War*.—C. C. Hyde, *International law: Chiefly as interpreted and applied by the United States*.—G. W. Wilson, *International law*.—T. Baty, *Portland ministry and the history of continuous voyage* (*Law Quarterly Re-*

*view*, July, 1922).—E. S. Roscoe, *Right to freight on prize cargoes in time of war* (*Law Quarterly Review*, July, 1922).

INTERNATIONAL LAW, American Institute of. See AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL LAW.

INTERNATIONAL LAW, Private: Definition.—"Private international law is 'the jurisprudence arising from the conflict of the laws of different nations, in their actual application to modern commerce and intercourse.' In the validity, obligation, and dissolution of contracts, in the modifications and transfer of property, in successions by will or on intestacy, in questions of the capacity or status of persons, in delicts, and in many cases not easily classed, this conflict arises from the claim of a party to the benefit of some law other than that commonly administered by the Court in which he stands."—J. Westlake, *Collected papers*, p. 285.

Leading principles.—Of the main principles applied to the conflict of laws, the earliest to be derived were "the *Lex Situs* . . . and the *Lex Domicilii*, . . . [then] the *Lex Loci Contractus*, or the law of the place where the contract was made, which applied generally, to contracts; *Lex Loci Actus*, or law of the place where an act is done, which governed the validity of an act as regards its form, whence the principle *Locus Regit Actum*; and the *Lex Fori*, or law of the place where a dispute is being litigated, which governs matters of procedure. These principles have all been incorporated into English law, subject to various limitations and exceptions. The latest principle to be adopted is that of 'The Proper Law of The Contract,' which governs disputes as to the interpretation and obligation arising out of a contract. The term is used to indicate the law of parties meant to apply, which must be ascertained from a consideration of the contract itself. . . . In the most important Continental States nationality seems the determining factor. In France (Code Napoleon 1803, art. 3), Italy (Code 1865, art. 6), and Germany (Civil Code, 1900) their respective subjects are governed by their national law as regards status and capacity, and these nations similarly apply to foreigners the law of the party's nationality. Austria applies the law of nationality to its own subjects, but the law of domicile to aliens. English law generally applies the law of the party's domicile to such matters."—W. N. Hibbert, *International private law, introduction*, p. xxviii.

Conflict of laws in Rome and medieval Europe.—"When the Roman praetor under the republic judged between citizens of those states which it gradually absorbed, he aimed at extracting that supposed essence of all law in which their various codes agreed, and the result was a *jus gentium*, afterwards supposed to be identical with the *jus naturæ*. But when the conquest of Rome by the barbarians, and still more the mutual conquest of the barbarians by one another, had filled every country with a new diversity of laws, no second attempt of that kind was made. . . . The German disdained to be sued in the court of the vanquished race, and his own judges knew nothing of the texts to which the Roman plaintiff [see FETIALES] might have appealed. Thus within each of the new kingdoms there arose a system of personal laws, the mode of administering which, as well as their mutual claims, were necessarily regulated by the positive institutions of the victors. The general rule was, that the law of the defendant governed To the ancient idea of extracting a

residuum of agreement from conflicting laws, there had succeeded the idea of choosing one of them. Thus marriage was to be celebrated by the law of the husband; and so strictly was this rule adhered to, that wives who had been married by their law were dismissed at caprice, a practice to which, in the year 895, the council of Tribur could oppose none but religious sanctions. A thousand years before, the Roman praetor [see *ROME: Republic: B.C. 367*] would have separated the intention in which the laws agreed from the rites in which they differed, and would have held the marriage valid by the *jus gentium*. Nor could the principle be confined to the collision of laws within any one of the barbarian kingdoms. The German stranger who passed from one to another of them, if he did not belong to any of the races whose laws were recognised in his new abode, was aggregated to the victor people: theirs was the prior claim to what in German ideas was the benefit of the new partner. The Roman stranger brought his own law with him, for it existed everywhere; and his too was the common law of all those classes who, from the exercise of any trade or industry, were likely to have dealings creating the tie of legal obligation between subjects of different kingdoms. Thus, in the dismemberment of the Roman empire, the habit of appealing to some positive law in all possible private disputes descended unbroken from the days when the world obeyed but one master and knew but one jurisprudence."—J. Westlake, *Collected papers*, pp. 290-292.

14th century.—Bartolus' conception of international contracts and jurisprudence.—"There can be no doubt that the first trace of a distinct conception of the rules we now call Private International Law is to be found in the famous chapter of Bartolus, a great Italian civilian of the middle of the fourteenth century. . . . The first section distinguishes the formalities of a contract from its substantial effects, and places the former, as we do, under the law of the place where it is made. This is one of the great canons grounding all modern rules on the subject. The next section lays down another of our great canons—that the *lex fori* determines the course of procedure in every trial. Next, he treats of the rule of the *lex loci rei sitae*: then he treats of the law as to personal status, and therein of the general principle of domicile. Then comes the rule that in Private International Law, as distinguished from the Roman law, a testator may die partly testate, partly intestate. He then treats of laws extending personal capacity as having effect outside the territory, whilst those which limit personal capacity are confined to the territory where they are in force; next, the case whether the English rule of inheritance by primogeniture would be extended to real estate situate out of England. He next treats of the extra-territorial effect of penal statutes."—F. Harrison, *On jurisprudence and the conflict of laws*, pp. 108-109.

17th and 18th centuries.—Dutch and French jurists.—Late introduction into English law.—"The next great epoch was in Holland and Northern France in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The Dutch civilians, who held fast, on the one hand, to the old theory that personal statutes everywhere followed the person whom they affected, on the other hand were confronted with the fact that Dutch independence required the most rigorous assertion of the principle that the Sovereign is supreme within his own territory, and also with the fact that they found themselves

surrounded with a mass of small communities having different local laws, and closely united in commercial intercourse. The Dutch jurists set themselves valiantly to adapt the problem of a supreme territorial law to the personal capacities and liabilities of a very migratory people. It was, in truth, a dilemma which far exceeded their utmost ingenuity. . . . The term in familiar use in modern law—conflict of law—seems to have been introduced (it certainly was popularized) by Huber, and dates from 1686. . . . The French . . . added nothing to the general principles of the science. It is needless to do more than note the works of D'Aguesseau, Bouhier, Froland, and Boullenois, all of whom flourished in the first half of the eighteenth century, the great pre-Revolution era in France."—*Ibid.*, pp. 114-116.—"So far as I know, there does not exist, in the whole range of the English law library, a single treatise, not an essay or a commentary, on this branch of law earlier than the nineteenth century. The Dutch civilians were scarcely known at all; the French were occasionally cited. Down to the middle of the eighteenth century in England I cannot find a single opinion or decision which seemed to show the consciousness on the part of English lawyers that there was any branch of law such as that we are now considering."—*Ibid.*, pp. 117-118.

19th century.—Development.—Problems in America.—"From the close of the eighteenth century, and in the early part of the nineteenth century, a series of new causes began to operate. The great school of philosophical jurists which culminated in Savigny transformed the field of jurisprudence. After the appearance of his *System of Modern Roman Law* the whole scheme of legal ideas received a new foundation. But before this, other causes had been at work. The new codes and system of law in Europe began to be compared with each other. New relations of intercourse between states were multiplied. And a far more fertile source of growth was at work. The States of America had each their own system of law, and they threw up a mass of problems, turning on the interchange of Municipal Law, precisely similar to those which the local law of the small communities of Holland and the provinces of old France had furnished to the Dutch and the French civilians of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Each State in America had its law of marriage and divorce, its bankruptcy law, its system of land law and security law. Louisiana had the civil law of France for its common law, and the Code of Napoleon for the type of its code. The Northern States had the English common law and English decisions. Here was an unlimited source for problems in the Conflict of Laws. To solve these problems, the great American lawyers and judges were thrown back upon the old Dutch and French civilians. The American decisions and dicta of the civilians were all collected rather than arranged in the vast and trackless wilderness, that encyclopædia of learning, known to us as Story's *Conflict of Laws*. This famous work was first published in 1834. . . . and from the date of its appearance hardly a single case on this subject in America or in England, and perhaps few on the Continent, have ever been decided without some reference to this learned book. . . . But whilst the States of America had been furnishing to Story and his fellow-countrymen a vast assemblage of difficulties to solve in the Conflict of Municipal Laws, an analogous movement has been at work in England from the beginning of the nineteenth

century. . . . What was done by Story in America had been in some measure previously done for England by Lord Stowell. . . . The immense colonial empire which had been acquired or consolidated during the long wars at the close of the eighteenth and the opening of the nineteenth centuries, threw upon . . . [British] tribunals the ultimate decision of a vast body of cases arising under multifarious systems of law. English judges were called on to determine cases under French law, Dutch law, Danish law, Spanish law, and all kinds of modifications of the civil law, in accordance with local practice or special legislation. Along with these cases came those under the Indian law, partly Hindoo, partly Mahomedan, partly of British enactment. And cases under any of the local systems, or under any colonial code, were correlated with, or conflicted with, English law. . . . English tribunals, and especially the Privy Council, the ultimate tribunal of appeal for the whole colonial empire, . . . consequently had cast upon them a task such as perhaps never fell to the lot of any tribunal in ancient or modern times. It was nothing less than that of trying cases complicated by the rules of almost every system of law that obtains in any part of the habitable globe."—F. Harrison, *On jurisprudence and the conflict of laws*, pp. 118-122.

See also ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL; ARMED MERCHANTMEN; ASYLUM, RIGHT OF; BALANCE OF POWER; BELLIGERENCY; BLOCKADE; CAPITULATIONS; DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE; DRAGO DOCTRINE; EMBARGO; EXEQUATOR; EXPATRIATION; EXTERRITORIALITY; EXTRADITION; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS; GENEVA CONVENTIONS; HAGUE CONFERENCES; HAGUE TRIBUNAL; INTERVENTION; INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE, PERMANENT COURT OF; LEAGUE OF NATIONS; LONDON, DECLARATION OF; "MOST FAVORED NATION" CLAUSE; NEUTRALITY; NON-COMBATANTS; PARIS, DECLARATION OF; PASSPORTS; POSTLIMINIUM; RETORSION; RULE OF 1756; TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF; ZAMORA; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: e.

ALSO IN: T. Baty, *Polarized law*.—J. H. Beale, *Conflict of laws*.—F. Wharton, *Conflict of laws*.—A. V. Dickey, *Digest of laws of England with reference to conflict of laws*.—J. A. Foote, *Foreign and domestic law*.—F. E. Farrer, *Forfeiture of enemy private pre-war property* (*Law Quarterly Review*, April-July, 1921).—C. C. Hyde, *International law: Chiefly as interpreted and applied by the United States*.—J. de Louter, *Le Droit international public positif*.—M. Mérignhac and E. Lémonon, *Le Droit de gens et la guerre de 1914-1918*.—E. C. Stowell, *Intervention in international law*.—E. A. Walsh, ed., *History of nature of international relations*.—J. Westlake, *Treatise on private international law*.

**INTERNATIONAL LIBRARIES AND LIBRARY GIFTS.** See LIBRARIES: Modern: International libraries, also Carnegie library gifts.

**INTERNATIONAL MERCANTILE MARINE** (1902). See TRUSTS: International.

**INTERNATIONAL MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.** See CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.

**INTERNATIONAL OPIUM COMMISSION.** See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1909 (February).

**INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.**—Two centuries ago the Royal Society of London [founded 1660] and the Paris Academy of Sciences [founded 1666] could easily embrace the whole range of science, and include in their membership essentially all

of the able investigators of England and France. The establishment of the Linnean Society in 1788 marked the beginning of a dispersive movement that has continued ever since. [But] the complete separation of investigators who might work in cooperation is certainly not desirable. The rise of astrophysics and physical chemistry is evidence enough of the advantage of bridging the gaps between diverging branches. . . . These principles have been applied in the United States by the formation [during the World War] of the National Research Council, a federation of research agencies, established under the Congressional charter of the National Academy of Sciences. The international scientific organizations that existed before the war were of several distinct types. Some devoted their efforts to the establishment of uniform standards of measure, others organized co-operative researches, while the majority held occasional congresses for the personal interchange of views. The International Association of Academies [founded ?] was without permanent headquarters or adequate funds, and was almost completely inactive between its triennial meetings. . . . The Royal Society [therefore] called an Inter-Allied Conference on International Scientific Organizations which opened in London on October 9, 1918. Belgium, Brazil, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Serbia, and the United States were represented by delegates. The Conference decided to recommend the withdrawal from former international organizations and the formation of new ones, in which nations that had been neutral in the war would be invited to take part. It was recognized that some of the old associations would doubtless be recognized and continued. A second Inter-Allied Conference was held in Paris under the auspices of the Paris Academy of Sciences from November 26 to November 29, 1918. Delegates were present from the countries represented in London, and also from Poland, Portugal, and Rumania. The International Research Council [suggested at the previous conference by the American delegates] was provisionally constituted. [This] council and its associated bodies, the International Astronomical Union, the International Geodetic and Geophysical Union, and the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, were formally inaugurated at the Palais des Académies, Brussels, at a meeting held July 18-28, 1919. The objects of the International Research Council, as defined at the Brussels meeting are: 1. To coordinate international activities in the various branches of science and its applications. 2. To encourage the formation of international associations or unions needed to advance science. 3. To guide international scientific activities in fields where no adequate organization exists. 4. To establish relations with the governments represented in the union for the purpose of interesting them in scientific projects. The General Assembly meets triennially at the permanent headquarters in Brussels. The United States is represented in the International Research Council by its National Research Council. The International Research Council provides the long desired means of coordinating the activities of international scientific bodies, which in the past have almost invariably worked independently. Similar confusion has prevailed in each of the participating countries, where no agency has existed to bring together men engaged in different classes of international research.—G. E. Hale, *International organization of scientific research* (*International Conciliation*, Sept., 1920, pp. 431-440).—See also INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES.

**INTERNATIONAL PEACE CONGRESS-ES.** See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899; 1907; PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

**INTERNATIONAL PRIZE COURT.** See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1907: Second peace conference; 1909 (October); LONDON, DECLARATION OF.

**INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, Agents of.** See DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE.

**INTERNATIONAL RELIEF.**—The term international relief has come to be associated almost entirely with relief work necessitated, directly or indirectly, by the World War. It might, however, be applied with equal exactness to all forms of charitable and philanthropic aid from foreign countries to any nation in distress. Thus there have been numerous instances of relief in time of famine, flood, earthquake, fire, and similar disasters. In the past the most frequent cases were of aid given by European nations and the United States to relieve distress caused by earthquakes, flood or famine. (See ITALY: 1908-1909; JAMAICA: 1907.) During and after the war, on the other hand, international relief was directed to the succour of the peoples of the war stricken countries, and it is this great work which is of the widest historical interest.

**Relief in Belgium and northern France.**—During the World War the people of Belgium and the invaded districts of northern France were reduced to great straits for food. A multitude of refugees fled to England, northern France and Holland where they were housed and cared for. But the bulk of the population was left behind without the means of obtaining adequate food, and many of them without the means of obtaining work. How to feed this multitude of helpless people was a problem which the American minister to Belgium undertook to solve. An American commission for relief in Belgium was organized under the directorship of Herbert Hoover, who in the face of manifold difficulties successfully carried out the great task laid upon him. Emile Commaerts made the statement that the need was so great "that the population would have been decimated by famine but for the help of the Commission for Relief in Belgium." "Mr. Hoover, in speaking [during World War] . . . of the work of the Commission, summed it all up under three heads. It had organized an almost perfect machine for securing justice and equality in the distribution of food, so that the poor had thereby been fed and kept up to the normal physical standard, enabling them to offer spiritual resistance to the invasion; it had provided a moral rallying-point to the communes; its delegates as eye-witnesses had acted as a constant restraint on Kreischefs and so prevented much brutality. Of the one hundred and fifty men who had thus far entered the Commission's service in Belgium, two were in asylums for the insane and thirty were suffering from nervous breakdowns."—B. Whitlock, *Belgium*, v. 2, pp. 233-234.—"Public appeals made in October, 1914, by Mr. Hoover, on behalf of the newly organized American Commission for Relief in Belgium, and by Minister Whitlock through the President, resulted in the swift organization of relief committees all over America. . . . At the same time Mr. Hoover begged the British Government for a subvention that would enable the Commission to begin work at once. . . . The sum of £100,000 [approximately \$500,000] was granted, and, with this actual money in hand . . . the Commission was able to begin making purchases and contracts on the large scale necessary to meet the Belgian cry."—V. Kellogg, *Fighting*

*starvation in Belgium*, pp. 95-96.—The annual report of the commission for 1916, stated: "The Commission for Relief in Belgium has its head office in London, with main branches in New York, Rotterdam and Brussels, and provincial or district offices in Antwerp, Liège, Namur, Ghent, Mons, Libremont, Hasselt, Charleville, Valenciennes, Longwy, St. Quentin and Vervins. All the functions of relief outside Belgium, including the purchase and transportation of foodstuffs and the mobilisation of charity, are carried out solely by this organisation. Through its Brussels branch the Commission maintains a separate organisation and direction in Belgium and Northern France, coördinating with the Comité National and the French district committees in the control of all relief distribution. . . . The Commission is of semi-diplomatic standing, . . . and is specially charged with responsibility as to the international guarantees under which it operates and the elaborate stipulations . . . providing that the foodstuffs shall remain in possession of the Commission until finally distributed to the consumers. . . . The 1914 crop and the pre-war stocks were not only to some extent destroyed and absorbed, through military operations, by the occupying army, but they could not, in the circumstances, be brought under control and properly conserved. Therefore, comparatively little wheat was left at the time relief began in November [1914]. . . . Negotiations were initiated in the month of June looking toward drastic control of the 1915 harvest of bread-stuffs. The total of such materials in the occupation zone . . . was placed under control of a Committee comprising American and Belgian nominees of the Commission for Relief and the Comité National, together with representatives of the German authorities. It was decided that an appropriate proportion of each peasant's production should be set aside for seed and food for his family through the year and left in his possession. . . . In the étape zone, however, the entire bread-stuff harvest was taken over by the [German] army, and an undertaking entered into with the Commission to supply the local committees with a ration. . . . The total overhead expense of the Commission was sixty-four one-hundredths of one per cent. the first year and forty-five one-hundredths of one per cent. the second year on the total value of supplies shipped to Belgium and Northern France, affording ample proof of the [volunteer nature of the services rendered]. . . . Most of the firms engaged in commercial operations on behalf of the Commission have either returned their fees or have made no charges. Inland purchases and conveyance from America, Canada and the Argentine have necessitated extensive rail transportation arrangements in which connection the Commission has enjoyed many generous concessions in rates and a large amount of entirely free transport, to say nothing of continuous and general favours in the way of extra facilities as to handling and delivery. The chartering and management of an entire fleet of vessels, together with agency control practically throughout the world, has been carried out for the Commission quite free of the usual charges by large transportation firms who offered these concessions in the cause of humanity. Banks generally have given their exchange services and have paid the full rate of interest on deposits; insurance has been facilitated by the British Government Insurance Commissioners; and the firms who fix the insurance have subscribed the equivalent of their fees. Harbour dues and port charges have been remitted at many points, and stevedoring

firms have made important concessions in rates. . . . In Holland exemption from harbour dues and telegraph tolls has been granted, and rail transport into Belgium provided free of charge. . . . The measure of the value of this volunteer service . . . is the low price at which foodstuffs have been delivered to the consumer in Belgium and the North of France. . . . To provide overseas transportation a frequent cargo-steamship service has been maintained between North America, the River Plate, India and United Kingdom with Rotterdam, all foodstuffs being shipped into that port for reshipment into Belgium and Northern France."—*Second Annual Report of Commission for Relief in Belgium, Nov. 1, 1914, to Oct. 31, 1916, pp. xxi-xxii, xxxii, xxxiii, xxxix, xl, xliii.*—In 1917 the organization had grown from small beginnings until it represented a volunteer service of fifty thousand persons, among whom were a very few partly paid experts. In February, 1917, H. C. Hoover said: "We buy our own material, we employ from fifty to seventy cargo ships at all times, and these ships fly the flag of The Commission for Relief in Belgium, and this is to-day the only flag at sea that is immune from attack or seizure. We employ hundreds of tugs and railway cars. We operate warehouses, mills, factories, and monthly distribute 220,000,000 lbs. of bread and 20,000,000 lbs. of bacon and lard, 5,000,000 tins of condensed milk, beans, corn, coffee, sugar, and thousands of tons of other commodities. Our dependants every month consume the wheat product of nearly 200,000 acres of American lands. . . . To assure the integrity of our organization we maintain bureaux of accounting, audit, statistics and inspection, covering the whole range from New York and Buenos Ayres to the last village in Northern France and Belgium. And our governmental relations involve . . . our own direct intervention with the governments on all sides and in broader issues the assistance of our own and the Spanish Ambassadors. . . . Of the \$250,000,000 spent in this work, approximately \$30,000,000 has come to our hand from the public benevolence of the world and less than \$0,000,000 of this sum has come from the American people. And, with the exception of one great gift of \$1,000,000 [from the Rockefeller Foundation], it has been the little rills of charity of the poor towards the poor. The great bulk of this expenditure has been furnished by the Allied Governments, and has been debited to the Belgian Government or to the Communes or Municipalities in Northern France which have received its benefits." After the United States entered the war the actual administration of relief was carried on by Dutch and Spanish staffs under H. C. Hoover, who continued to direct the work from outside Belgium. "Up to June 1, 1917, when the Government subsidies were provided for by loans from the United States Government, the Commission had had from the British Government, in round numbers, \$80,500,000, and from the French Government \$66,000,000, both these sums being in the form of loans to the Belgian Government, for relief work in Belgium. In addition, the Commission had had, from France, \$108,000,000 for relief expenditure in German-occupied Northern France. As charity from private sources, the Commission had had, up to the same date, . . . cash, food, and clothing to the amount of \$28,500,000, of which \$17,000,000 came from committees and persons in the British Empire, and \$11,500,000 from the United States. In addition the Commission had to its credit, on June 1, 1917, an additional \$5,000,000, temporarily accumulated in the course

of its commercial operations, which may be referred to as 'profit.' All this so-called 'profit' accumulation, however, is from time to time transferred to the Commission's strictly benevolent account. Altogether, therefore, the Commission had had available for its work, up to June 1st . . . [1918], \$297,000,000 in cash and goods. This takes into no account the large sums given within Belgium by cities, communes, and strictly Belgian organisations, sums whose total is not known to us but cannot fall short, up to date, of 500,000,000 francs [approximately \$100,000,000]. . . . The great sum received by private gifts from British sources has been chiefly raised by the admirably organised and energetically directed campaign of the British National Committee for Belgium Relief. . . . [About £800,000 was raised in the British Isles and used to supply ambulances for the Allies. The agricultural society also raised large sums for use in reconstructing devastated areas in France, and also in Serbia; but much of the work was lost when these areas were again overrun by the enemy. The British National Committee] has always worked in close co-operation with the Commission, but has managed its own affairs as to methods and details, turning over to the Commission, in London, the money, food, and clothing collected by it. The 'record' of all giving to Belgian relief is held by New Zealand, which from its population of 1,150,720 has sent to the National Committee \$2,655,758, or a *per-capita* average of \$2.29. Australia has given \$1.34 per capita, Canada 22 cents, the United Kingdom 9 cents, while the contribution of the United States averages slightly more than 10 cents."—V. Kellogg, *Fighting starvation in Belgium, pp. 96-98.*—"At one time in the fall of 1917 there were in progress in America fourteen national campaigns in the interest of raising money for war relief work in foreign lands and among our own troops for the year 1918. The funds sought in these various campaigns for purposes of war aggregated more than \$300,000,000. . . . [The] total funds raised for foreign relief in America up to 1918 amounted to more than \$20,000,000, and . . . supplies have been shipped valued at more than \$10,000,000, making a total of \$30,000,000!"—I. C. Clarke, *American women and the World War, p. 15.*—It is impossible to give anything like an adequate idea of the work done with these large sums and additional contributions made in other ways. Food was sent to Belgian prisoners in Germany; the American Ambulance Hospital in Paris was supported; the Civilian Committee of the American Fund began in 1917 to assist in the work of reconstruction; French children were cared for, some in homes, some "adopted" by individuals who undertook to send them a stated sum annually for a term of years; and hospitals were supplied.—See also BELGIUM: 1914-1918: National distress; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief.

Serbian relief: Scottish Women.—American, British and French funds.—"It was the good fortune of the Scottish Women to be able to give to the French four years of uninterrupted service in France, and over three years in Salonika. With the exception of the first four months, the Scottish Women worked for the Serbian nation during the whole war, through all their changing fortunes. With them they grappled with the dread typhus and overcame it; they accompanied them in the Great Retreat; they tended their wounded and prisoners in Krushevatz, and their refugees in Corsica; they followed them fighting through the Moglena Mountains; they strained to keep up



with their victorious armies over crest after crest, in the 'breathless rush' to Prilep, past Krushevatz and Kraguievatz, . . . and at the rear of their armies they entered Belgrade."—E. S. McLaren, *History of the Scottish women's hospitals, introduction*, pp. vii-viii.—The Serbian Agricultural Relief Committee of America, with the object of providing relief for the distressed peasant population of Serbia—the first organization for Serbian relief established in the United States—was founded in February 1915 under the auspices of the Serbian government. During the spring and early summer of 1915, seeds, plows, and other agricultural implements were shipped to Serbia, for use in reestablishing farms in the areas devastated during the Austrian invasion of 1914. When, however, the country was overrun by the Central Powers in the autumn of 1915, it became impossible to furnish further relief within the boundaries of Serbia. The word "agricultural" was dropped from the title of the committee and thereafter throughout the war its efforts were directed mainly to the relief of Serbian refugees, wounded and prisoners of war in Austrian territory. The work was carried on through English, French, and Swiss organizations, through whom money and supplies contributed in the United States were forwarded for distribution. The Serbian Relief Committee of America also had a large share in equipping and financing an Italian vessel which rendered vital service in rescuing Serbian refugees, after the great retreat to the Adriatic in 1915-1916, and transporting them from Albania to Italy. Early in 1919 the committee took up direct work in Serbia. The honorary secretary, with a unit of five, reached Belgrade in April, 1919, and in August a medical unit of twenty began operations in southern Serbia. The work expanded rapidly, and it was found necessary to appoint an overseas commissioner who took full direction of the work in Serbia in October, 1919. Changes in policy were made desirable by the altered conditions after the signing of the armistice, a general reorganization which was effected at the end of the year took effect on January 1, 1920, and the title of Serbian Child Welfare Association of America was adopted. At this time the overseas division was actively engaged in work in fifteen cities and towns and the association was supporting three trade schools, two orphanages, a vocational institute, a children's home placing bureau, seven health centers and dispensaries, three hospitals and a sanitarium beside engaging in other work. During the year 1920, the Association ministered to the sick and suffering, and fed, clothed and taught a total of one hundred thousand Serbians, the majority of whom were children who had passed through dispensaries, health centers and hospitals conducted by the association, or who had been visited by its physicians and nurses, or fed by its feeding stations. Through these institutions, preventoria, summer health camps and other agencies, some urgent need of an average of twelve thousand children a month was met. One of the most interesting and important departments of the work, and one which has had far-reaching results, was that of placing war orphans in subsidized families throughout Serbia, in accordance with the admirable plan put into operation by the Jugoslav government child welfare department. According to the official returns of 1920 there were still 50,000 of these homeless, orphaned children in Serbia proper to be provided for, while the government department had no funds available for the purpose. The association entered into full cooperation with

the government on October 1, 1920, and early in 1921 was placing the children in suitable homes at the rate of 1,000 a month. Before the association entered on this undertaking, a definite agreement was made between it and the government. Every child of school age had to have a satisfactory record of school attendance. The children were placed in selected communities, in groups of from 200 to 400, and wherever such a group was planted a health center was established. The municipality supplied the building, its furnishing, light, heat and water supply—also a Serbian staff of four. It was responsible for the upkeep of the building, and pledged itself to continue the work after the withdrawal of the Americans. The health center extended its care to all classes of children in the community, and established classes in practical home hygiene, the care of babies and children, and the training of nurses. The American association furnished, from its own trained staff, a doctor, dentist, dietitian, nurse, and assistant nurse, medical supplies, instruments, a definite sum of money to be used for definite purposes, and undertook the training of the Serbian staff. The beneficial effect, upon the country, of this program can hardly be estimated. From two to four hundred children were cared for in the families of each of a large number of carefully chosen communities, through the aid of a subsidy which required, and made possible, first, school attendance for the child; second, the establishment of a health center where every child was registered and his school attendance checked and through which, also, the subsidized homes were visited and material aid given wherever needed; the health of the children of the community was looked after by doctor, dentist and nurse, and classes were established in hygiene and nursing. The final responsibility for the administration and success of the program rested upon the people themselves, through local committees whose officers represented both the government and the leading civic organizations of the country. Such a program united the community life into a social whole. It was in effect, genuine community building; an organized effort to improve the health, child-care, education and well-being of each community.

The Serbian Relief Fund (British) was organized in September 1914 and immediately sent out three hospital units to Serbia. From November to January cases of typhus began to appear, and by the end of January the units were battling with all their might against the scourge. Then came the Austro-German invasion, and the Serbian defeat, which did not put an end to the activity of the Serbian Relief Fund. "On the contrary, it imposed fresh and ever increasing efforts on it. So long as the Serbian Army was able to defend its home territories, the task of the Serbian Relief Fund was to supplement its Medical Service. The converging invasion of the German, Austrian, and Bulgarian Armies introduced a new problem. Many thousands of refugees quitted their homes, and the task of succouring them fell to their Allies. . . . The stream of refugees flowed in two directions, the one to Salonica, the other to Scutari and the Adriatic. In spite of . . . difficulties the agents of the Fund were able to direct both streams with equal success, . . . to see the refugees comfortably settled under the care of the French Government in Corsica. The most difficult and adventurous task in the experience of the Fund fell to Messrs. Theodore Rigg and Robert R. Tatlock, two workers of the Friends' War Victims Relief Committee, who . . . spent

the months of December and January in Scutari and on the Adriatic coast. . . . The Serbian Government was in flight. . . . [Stores on torpedoed ships were lost, one large vessel laden with supplies was sent to the wrong port but they] managed to find food and organize relief for about ten thousand civilian refugees. . . . [The Serbians who arrived destitute of food and clothing and utterly weary, had in some way to be fed and sheltered. R. R. Tatlock in his journal said.] 'During this time sections of the Serbian Army had been moving off to Medua . . . and to Durazzo, and soon the refugees began to follow them. . . . [The Serbian minister of the interior promised] that all refugees at the coast should be fed with the army food. . . . [But at Medua everything was] in hopeless confusion. There were about 3,000 people lying on the rocks under the open sky, some having done so during six weeks. . . . There was plenty of excellent food on the shore, but several refugees were dying of hunger every day.' . . . Salonica was at once too overcrowded and too insecure to serve as a site for a settlement in which the refugees could be cared for until Serbia is restored, . . . and eventually the offer of the French Government to provide hospitality for all the refugees on its own soil was accepted. The majority were sent to Corsica, some to Algeria, and a few to places in the South of France. The Serbian Relief Fund would have been prepared to meet the full financial responsibility for the settlement in Corsica, but the generous offer of the French Government rendered this unnecessary, for it included not only lodging, but maintenance. . . . [To] the workers of the Relief Fund [however] . . . fell the medical care of the refugees and the responsibility of clothing them. . . . No time was lost in starting work to occupy the refugees. This was developed in such a way as to add to their efficiency, so that they would return to Serbia with some permanent gain from their exile. The French authorities sent the boys and students to Lycées, where they received the best education that France can provide."—G. Gordon-Smith, *Through the Serbian campaign*, pp. 293, 295, 296, 299, 300, 304-307.

ALSO IN: K. E. Royds, *Serbian in Corsica* (*Contemporary Review*, Jan., 1918).

**American Friends (Quakers).—British Friends.**—From the beginning of the World War until June, 1917, the American Friends cooperated with the English Friends in carrying on relief and reconstruction work in France. In June, 1917, upon the entrance of the United States into the war, the American Friends Service Committee, representing all the Friends (Quakers) in America was organized in Philadelphia. Over six hundred young men and women were sent to France to help build little portable houses for French refugees, raise rabbits, chickens and bees for distribution among the peasants, distribute clothing supplies, and operate hospitals for the civilian population. This work was closed early in 1920, except for the building and endowing of the Châlons maternity hospital at Châlons-sur-Marne, which will cost 1,250,000 francs and will provide for forty-six beds. This committee has worked jointly with the English Friends in all fields. Following the armistice the service committee sought means of bringing relief to the stricken people in Germany and Austria, and of healing the wounds of war. At first the work was confined to helping the German families whose husbands were still interned in England and the United States and in getting relief supplies to hospitals. In November, 1919, however, Herbert Hoover of the American Relief

Administration asked the committee to take charge of the child-feeding program for the whole of Germany. A careful survey was made and it was found that 75 per cent. of the children of Germany were undernourished and in need of outside help. Through the facilities afforded by the American Relief Administration food was shipped to Germany in January, 1920, and actual feeding operations began in February along the lines of the European Children's Fund operations in other countries. Feedings were carried on through school centers, and in June, 1920, as many as 732,000 children were fed daily. Simultaneously with the beginning of the work in Germany, the Friends began their work in Vienna for the relief of children under six years of age so as not to overlap the work of the European Relief Council which provided relief for all children between the ages of six and fourteen. As many as 32,000 children with about 4,000 nursing and expectant mothers were provided with extra food. Considerable contribution in food supplies were received from the American Red Cross for this work. In addition to the work of child feeding, distribution of clothing was made and general relief given to the middle classes and to students. In order not to pauperize the people a small charge was made for all supplies, except that contributed by the American Red Cross, and the money thus obtained was used to purchase more supplies. Considerably more than \$500,000 was spent in relief work in Austria prior to 1921. The group of Friends, who were designated to work in Serbia, arrived at Salonica, August 28, 1919. Their first work was to supervise the building of 100 houses by Bulgarian prisoners. Next they reestablished a government agricultural school at Leskovatz, put it in running order, and in 1920 turned it over to the Serbian authorities. They then went to Pec, in western Serbia, where they supervised the building of 153 houses for Montenegrin families, worked tractors and threshing machines, in order to help the Albanians and Serbians take care of their crops, and supervised dispensaries in the city of Pec and four nearby villages. In Poland the Friends engaged in anti-typhus and agricultural work, and endeavored to help the peasants to obtain farm equipment and farm stock. Much work was done in the care of the thousands of refugees who poured into Warsaw, and in helping the refugees with whom the Friends worked in the province of Samara and Siberia at the time of the Bolshevik drive. About \$200,000 had been expended in this work up to 1920. The work carried on in Russia during the war was continued after the armistice until February, 1919. Activities centered in the province of Samara, east European Russia, later in Omsk and Vladivostok, and by invitation of the soviet government permanent headquarters for relief work were established in Moscow.—See also below: Russian famine relief.

When work in the war stricken countries was begun in the autumn of 1914 British "Friends little imagined . . . that workers wearing the Quaker Star would find their way to France, Holland, Russia, Serbia, Poland, Corsica, and later to the Central Empires themselves. The first country claiming help [in October, 1914] was, naturally, devastated France. . . . The first task of the workers was to provide the most needful clothing and footwear, and to set to work on the construction of shelters in the destroyed villages, both in the Marne and the Meuse, [and the establishment of a hospital]. . . . It would be impossible to enumerate the villages and towns where relief and medical work was established. One of the principal centres was for a long time at Sermaize les

Bains . . . [where] a hospital was started, which became the centre of a very large medical and surgical work in the district. Later, when American Friends came on the field, a second hospital was opened. . . . In all the destroyed villages, the erection of temporary houses, or the repair of those which were still partly standing, formed a large part of the work of the Mission, and both at Dôle and Ornans in the Jura construction camps were established. . . . In many centres industries were started, to help the people to provide for themselves. . . . The Somme unit were installed in 1917, in desolate country . . . [where] it was necessary to haul everything from the outside world. . . . [Here agricultural workers were assisted to commence life anew.] The entry of American Friends into the work, both in France and in other fields, made it possible to extend very greatly, and the co-operation during the last two or three years . . . [was] a most happy piece of true international service. . . . Early in the autumn of 1914, work was started in *Holland*, among the Belgian refugees who had flocked across the frontier in thousands, and had been most generously received by the Dutch who provided them with shelter, food and clothing. . . . The enforced idleness of the refugees made it needful to start industries for the men, such as brush-making, and work rooms for the women and girls who soon became expert in rug-making and embroidery. . . . In 1915, in co-operation with the Serbian Relief Fund, work was started for *Serbian* refugees, first at Salonika, and later in Corsica, Corfu and Algiers, where work rooms were started both for women and men. . . . But among all the unhappy victims of these years of war perhaps none have suffered more than the peasants of *Russia*. . . . A pioneer party of four Friends left England in April, 1916, to investigate and report on the possibilities of giving help, . . . and the district of Buzuluk, an area as large as Belgium, was chosen as being a centre perhaps more destitute of help, and more crowded with refugees than any other. There was no doctor in the whole 700 square miles, though thickly peopled with 100,000 souls, of whom a quarter were refugees from the western frontier, 1400 miles away. . . . By the end of 1916, about thirty workers were scattered among various centres, and relief, medical and industrial work was in full swing. . . . Efforts were made during 1917-18 to combat the famine, consequent on a succession of bad harvests, and a special fund was raised in England for this purpose, chiefly for the purchase of seed-corn in Siberia and elsewhere. . . . In 1918, owing to the state of civil war in Russia, and the great unsettlement of the country, the Unit was obliged to withdraw, *via* Siberia, some to take up work among the refugees there, and others to return to England and America. . . . [Later the Relief Committee went to] *Poland*, in response to urgent appeals for help from various sources. By the autumn of 1919, a Unit of twenty-four workers was fighting typhus, starvation and lack of clothing."—E. F. Howard, *Friends' service in war-time* (pamphlet), pp. 18-26.

**Jewish relief.—Joint Distribution Committee.**—This committee consists of representatives of the American Jewish Relief Committee, the Central Committee for the Relief of Jews Suffering through the War, and the Peoples' Relief Committee. It was established November 27, 1914, after a conference between representatives of the American Jewish Relief Committee and the Central Relief Committee. The Peoples' Relief Committee was invited to send representatives to the Joint Distribution Committee on November 20, 1915. The

Joint Distribution Committee had a sub-committee of six members which received and digested all reports from belligerent countries and which upon the basis of such reports made recommendations or appropriations to the full committee. The delays in the receipt of reports from the different committees abroad and the fact that it was impossible from this end to decide as to the best methods to be employed for the relief of the appalling distress, led the Joint Distribution Committee to arrange to send a commission of its own representatives to investigate the situation on the spot and to establish permanent distribution agencies responsible directly to the Joint Distribution Committee. It exerted every effort to place the relief funds in the hands of a responsible committee in each country, which could, upon a judgment formed after a general survey of the situation as contained in each zone, apportion the money for the best interests, present and future, of the hundreds of thousands of people it was endeavoring to assist. In February, 1915, President Wilson was induced to issue a proclamation appointing a National Jewish Relief day, for which contributions were especially asked. Proclamation certificates of varying denominations were given in return for contributions and brought in \$67,000. The "Week of Mercy" secured more for the cause. For this the relatively small municipality of Sioux City, Iowa, alone gave \$8,000 and from Attleboro, Mass., where there are only thirty-five Jewish families, there came \$1,426. A statement by Herbert H. Lehman, the treasurer of the Joint Distribution Committee, issued in April, 1917, shows a total of more than \$8,200,000, collected by the three committees and distributed by the Joint Distribution Committee. Not a part of Europe or Palestine, where Jews suffered failed to receive assistance. Large sums went to Russia, Poland, Lithuania, Austria-Hungary, including Galicia, Palestine, Greece, Turkey, Syria, Egypt, Rumania, Serbia, Smyrna, Bulgaria, Tunis, Algiers, Morocco, Switzerland, and to Russian Jews in France and Turkish Jewish refugees in Spain. Help was extended to three continents and to fourteen distinct countries. Relief ships with food, medicines and supplies were sent abroad through coöperation with the state and navy departments of the United States, and with the consent of foreign governments, and arrangements were made for the bringing to America from the Far East of hundreds of refugees. Not even the supplying of matzoths for the feast of the Passover was overlooked. Special work was done by the Joint Distribution Committee in looking after the thousands of Jewish war refugees scattered throughout Europe. The committee hastened to order its workers to initiate relief activities at all the refugee centers and to coöperate at every point with the Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society, which had been working in the field of immigrant relief for many years. The committee established a special department for the care of Jewish war orphans, with headquarters in New York. This department supervised the work of caring for the Jewish war orphans in Europe and the East; it utilized the advice and services of experts in this field and worked in every possible way to provide shelter, care and homes for as many of the children as possible. The department operated under the direct supervision of the committee on war orphans of the Joint Distribution Committee. The plans for the care of Jewish war orphans were as follows: To survey the problem of Jewish orphan care in Europe, ascertaining the number of orphans in each country, the agencies active, available

workers, etc.; to secure data on budgets required for the work in the various fields and to develop uniform budgets for the entire work of orphans' care; to arrange for the registration in Europe of orphans having relatives in America or other countries and make arrangements for the reuniting of these children with their relatives wherever possible; to study the problem and possibilities of special care for pogrom orphans and arrange for their removal to other localities or their bringing to America; to arrange for a system of "orphan adoption" similar to the plan used in non-sectarian fields in Serbia, France, and Belgium, by which persons in America might pay a given amount for the support of a designated child in an institution or private family in Europe. The committee rebuilt many destroyed homes, provided for the permanent care of war and pogrom orphans, and supplied individuals and associations of artisans and traders with easy credit, tools, machinery and raw material. On all these activities the committee had expended, from the time of its organization until December 27, 1920, the magnificent sum of \$35,010,101.85, of which \$10,633,580.20 was disbursed in 1920.—See also below: European Relief Council; Russian famine relief; WORLD WAR; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. War relief: f.

The work did not end with the immediate post war activities, but was carried on in eastern Europe and Palestine, more especially with the idea of assisting the recipients of aid to become self-supporting. "Reconstruction activities in the distribution of credit through locally organised credit institutions are now [1922] being carried on in Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Esthonia, Rumania, Turkey, and Palestine. Credit activities are being instituted in Czechoslovakia and Hungary. A field party is at present on its way to Russia, and much work will be done there shortly. Approximately three million dollars have been appropriated for credit alone already, 361 approved loans for individual rehabilitation . . . [amounted to] 1,002,700 lei (in September the lei was approximately 150 to the dollar), and of the realty loans 5,313,100 lei, a total of 7,305,800 lei. Of the realty reconstruction loans 74 per cent were for terms of between 10 and 15 years, and 14 per cent between 5 and 10 years. The great majority (93 per cent) of the individual rehabilitation loans were for periods of over two years. More than half the borrowers were of the commercial class; 25 per cent were artisans. A similar table for Poland would show 186 co-operatives to which have already been transmitted for co-operative credit operations 117,600 dollars, and which have already disbursed as loans for individual rehabilitation Polish marks 760,545,867.50. . . . In Lithuania realty loans have been approved in fifty towns for a total of 34,835,000 marks. Actual construction has been started in 34 towns. On September 30 there were 364 houses under construction, . . . [to] provide accommodation for 1,888 individuals. More than one thousand houses are under construction in Bukovina. In Bessarabia, in Poland, in Latvia, in Czechoslovakia homes and stores are being constructed and repaired with loans made by the A.J.D.C. through locally organised co-operatives. Additional disbursements have been made for loans to co-operatives. In Lithuania, for example, 1,425,000 German marks have been lent to produce co-operatives, and 150,000 German marks to agricultural co-operatives. In Poland 43,000,000 Polish marks have been lent to 14 co-operatives, ten of which are consumers, three raw material, and one produce. In other countries similar loans have been made, and these, to-

gether with special loans to agriculturists, add a considerable sum to the budget of the Reconstruction Department. . . . The third important feature of the programme of the Reconstruction Department is trade education. Subventions are being granted to trade schools in Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary, and Rumania for the purchase of equipment destroyed during the war. . . . In addition to the re-equipment of trade schools which have suffered by reason of the war, the A.J.D.C. . . . adopted the policy of equipping and helping to maintain during the first few years of their existence new institutions for trade education. In East Slovakia and Sub-Carpathia, where the need for such new institutions has been made apparent, the A.J.D.C. is equipping and partially subventioning the support of teaching workshops and an agricultural school."—M. S. Viteles, *American aid to Jewish war sufferers* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial*, Nov. 16, 1922, pp. 630-631).—See also FOOD REGULATION: 1918-1921; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief.

**American Relief Administration.—European relief after the Armistice (1918-1922).**—"On the day after the signing of the Armistice, Mr. Hoover, then United States Food Administrator, was requested by President Wilson to proceed overseas to enter into arrangements with the Allied Governments for the immediate supply of food to the war-torn countries of Central and Eastern Europe. . . . After negotiations with the Allied Governments Mr. Hoover was appointed Director General of Allied Relief, acting under the Supreme Economic Council. . . . No evidence need be repeated showing why the people in a broad belt from the Baltic to the Adriatic and Black Seas needed food at the close of the most exhaustive war of civilisation, and no picture need be drawn of the even more complete catastrophe that would have followed had not help been forthcoming. . . . The principal task of the American Relief Administration, or the A.R.A. as it became known, was that of arranging the transportation and distribution of some 3,000,000 tons of foodstuffs from America, but to carry out efficiently these arrangements it was found necessary for the Director General of Relief to take over the temporary control of railroads in Central and Southern Europe; to establish or control some 10,000 miles of telegraph and telephone lines; to arrange barge shipments on the Danube, Elbe, and Vistula; to initiate exchange of food commodities between central and southern Continental States; to arrange the shipment of certain United States army stocks in France; to ship and distribute some 5,000 tons of American Red Cross clothing; to establish a temporary exchange system between America and Europe by which some \$7,000,000 were sent by Americans to relatives in devastated countries; to assist in the importation of raw materials to these countries; and in general to assist in the re-establishment of normal economic life. . . . The Allied and neutral countries thus supplied through the United States were Denmark, Holland, and Italy. The ex-enemy countries supplied were Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey. The so-called liberated territories supplied were Finland, Esthonia, part of North-West Russia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Belgium, Northern France, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Kingdom S.H.S. (Jugoslavia), part of South Russia, and Armenia. . . . The supplies delivered by the American and the Allied and neutral Governments, under the direction of Mr. Hoover, reached the . . . total of about 4,760,000 tons of foods, valued at over \$1,147,600,000.

Of these the value of supplies from America was about \$870,000,000, or nearly 77 per cent; those from the British Empire about \$120,000,000, or over 10 per cent; from France and Italy about 2 per cent each; about 4 per cent was financed jointly by the United Kingdom, United States, France, and Italy; and the remainder came from other countries. Of the deliveries from the United States approximately 20 per cent were sold for cash, 77 per cent on credit, and 2.2 per cent were given as charity. This latter item amounted to about \$10,300,000, including child feeding supplies from the United States Government as well as supplies furnished by charitable organisations. Of the deliveries from the British Empire administered by Sir William Goode about 65 per cent were sold for cash, 32 per cent on credit, and 3 per cent, or about \$3,498,000, given as charity, which, in view of the stringent food situation in the United Kingdom itself, represented a very substantial gift. In addition, it is roughly estimated that American charitable organisations, acting independently during this period, contributed relief to the value of some \$33,000,000. . . . The child relief started by the old A.R.A. was . . . carried on by the new private organisation. This work was projected for only one more year, and although improved conditions in certain parts made it possible to reduce the programme in 1920, the situation was then still bad in Central Europe generally. In short, the prolongation of the conditions caused by war disruption in Central Europe, unexpected by all to last as long as they did, made it seem essential to carry on these and other measures of relief through to the harvest of 1922, when it was found possible finally to withdraw. During this time mass child feeding was carried on under Mr. Hoover's direction in fourteen countries of Central and Southern Europe. These were Finland, Esthonia, part of North-West Russia, Latvia, Lithuania, Danzig Free City, Poland, Northern France, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Rumania, Jugoslavia, and Armenia. The greatest number of children fed were in Poland, Austria, and Czechoslovakia. With each harvest year it was possible to further reduce the programme until, in the present year [1922], child feeding was being carried on only in Esthonia, Latvia, Poland, and Austria. . . . During the whole period about 8,000,000 different children in Central Europe have benefited from these relief importations, including 1,000,000 fed in Germany under the American Quakers, with whom the A.R.A. co-operated in furnishing and transporting supplies. The programme of distributing free cooked meals has included as many as 4,000,000 children at one time, to whom a total of over 1,500,000,000 meals have been given since the Armistice. Warm clothing valued at over \$8,000,000 was distributed to more than 2,000,000 children, who came to kitchens in the coldest weather most pitifully clad. One of the tests of the urgency of the need in the various countries was the willingness of the respective Governments and people to contribute materially to the relief of their own needy children. . . . Leading citizens gave their services to national, district, or local organisations which conducted the feeding, and over 100,000 men and women co-operated, most of whom were volunteer workers. . . . From the start it was the constant endeavour to organise this relief as a step in self-help. . . . With few exceptions this policy attained complete success. The total expenditures of the A.R.A. for child relief in Central Europe from American funds since the Armistice amounted to about \$47,000,000 (not including relief in Germany

under the Quakers), while the known values contributed to the same operation by Governments and citizens of the countries aided amounted to about \$28,000,000, or 60 per cent of the American donation. . . . The policy of organising local bodies composed of prominent citizens to carry out this relief work has yielded the hoped-for result of providing a foundation for the continuation of child-welfare measures by these countries themselves. Such organisations, founded and built up by the A.R.A., have been perpetuated as national welfare bodies in Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, and Rumania, incorporated as semi-official agencies by legislation and provided with subsidies or assistance by the national and provincial Governments. . . . In Finland and in Jugoslavia this work was taken over by the respective Ministries of Health. In addition to child relief the A.R.A. purchased, shipped, and delivered to other foreign relief organisations supplies valued at \$4,462,000, for which these organisations paid. Relief was given to needy members of the educated or professional classes in Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary from funds given by various American charitable organisations, most prominent among which was the American Commonwealth Fund with gifts amounting to nearly \$1,000,000. This relief was afforded through food packages given the most needy members and through university and other kitchens. Material for clothing was also distributed. . . . Meals were also furnished to 30,000 needy university students in seven countries from donations of \$370,000 and refugees and others were given food from special funds of \$452,000. There was also the food draft operation through which those in America and elsewhere were enabled to purchase drafts for standard parcels of food to be delivered to friends or relatives in Central European countries. Delivery points were set up in Germany, Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary. The foods were shipped in bulk, made up into parcels at the local points, and delivered upon presentation of the drafts by their recipients. Food could thus be sent to a person in Vienna or Warsaw as quickly as the mails could carry a letter, with no damage or loss. 397,000 such food parcels were delivered, the value of which was about \$5,850,000."—S. Brooks, *American aid to Europe through Mr. Hoover* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial*, Nov. 16, 1922).

**European Relief Council.**—Organization for child relief in Europe.—Hoover campaign.—Eight great relief organizations, working among every race and creed, united under the name of the European Relief Council to coördinate child relief in Europe. In the winter of 1920-1921, the council sought to provide funds for 3,500,000 starving and diseased children in eastern and central Europe and to administer this relief economically, according to Herbert Hoover, who was chosen chairman. The coöperating agencies were the American Relief Administration, the American Red Cross, the American Friends Service Committees (Quakers), the Jewish Joint Distribution Committee, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, the Knights of Columbus (see KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS: 1914-1918), the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association. Franklin K. Lane was chosen treasurer of the council and R. J. Cuddihy of the *Literary Digest*, director of publicity. The relief was divided into two parts: (1) that of providing food and clothing, and (2) that of providing medical supplies and giving medical and nursing aid. The work of providing food and

clothing was carried out by the American Relief Administration, the American Friends' Service Committee, and the Jewish Joint Distribution Committee. The child-feeding program was carried on in each district by local authorities under the supervision of American directors, and the medical and nursing work was operated through units composed of a doctor, several nurses and a social worker, the units using local personnel. Where possible all efforts were directed toward building up in the community, in collaboration with the public authorities and local organizations, permanent constructive measures for saving child life which remained effective when American agencies withdrew. Upwards of 150,000 women of the various races in Europe furnished this service necessary to care for the children of their own countries.—See also FOOD REGULATION: 1918-1921.

Near East Relief.—“Near East Relief, incorporated by act of Congress, approved August 6, 1919 [with national headquarters at New York and Washington], continued the work of the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief (sometimes known as the American Committee for Relief in the Near East). This earlier Committee, the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, was organized in October, 1915, in response to an urgent cablegram from Hon. Henry Morgenthau, United States Ambassador in Constantinople. . . . This unincorporated association issued appeals to the American public and transmitted funds for relief purposes through . . . [the American ambassador] and other American representatives from October, 1915, to October 14, 1919. The first meeting of the Board of Trustees of Near East Relief was held October 14, 1919, at which time the organization was completed. . . . The relief work of Near East Relief on the foreign field has been administered by an overseas staff of 538 American men and women, organized under the direction of Col. William N. Haskell, U. S. A., Allied High Commissioner for Armenia, with headquarters at Tiflis; Col. J. P. Coombs, with headquarters at Constantinople, and Maj. James H. Nicol, with headquarters at Beirut, and American Consular agents in Persia and Bagdad. The immediate object of the Near East Relief has been physical relief, the distribution of food and clothing to save men, women and children from death through starvation and exposure. Coincident with the provision of food and clothing, it has been necessary to engage in related activities, directly due to the atrocities and other tragedies of the war in the Near East—such as the care of dependent children made orphans by massacres and deportations, homes for Christian girls enslaved in Moslem harems, hospitals and medicine for the thousands suffering from disease and malnutrition, and industrial workshops to aid a people normally industrious to become again self-supporting. All of these various forms of relief work have been carried on under a unified management.”—*Report to Congress by the Near East Relief, 1919, pp. 5-7.*—“When the relief work was undertaken, it at once became evident that a great number of children . . . must be cared for in institutions. . . . So far as funds have permitted, educational work has been carried on. The older children have been taught the various arts and crafts that will enable both boys and girls to become self-supporting. . . . Near East Relief in all its work aims at permanent results and to this end makes education for the orphans in its care one of its primary objects. As soon as the children are physically fit they are allotted to classes, the older ones alternating a half day in the school room with a half day of

industrial training. A director of education has been appointed to standardize the educational system, and to further the plan already under way to relate the course of study in the orphanages to that already established by government. Teaching is done in the native languages. . . . One feature of Near East Relief work that touches America closely is the reuniting of families and the transmitting of funds from friends and relatives of the distressed from the United States to the Near East. Constant advertisements for relatives in America are placed in our foreign press, and during [1920] \$100,000 per month has been transmitted through Near East Relief to relatives and friends, and such persons have been returned to the care of relatives. The card catalog of refugees with over 40,000 names is a register of human woe so pressing that it takes a stout heart to meet it.”—*Report of Armenian Committee, pp. 30-31, 35.*—The Commonwealth Fund was able in 1919 to contribute \$750,000 to the Near East Relief and to feeding Armenian children. In 1920 \$500,000 was used for food drafts to be distributed in Vienna, Warsaw, Budapest, and Prague, to women engaged in the arts and professions, including teachers, former army officers and officials of state, in a word, to the needy of a class which was ordinarily overlooked in the distribution of relief because of the difficulty of reaching them.

“Near East Relief . . . conducted activities during . . . 1921 in Constantinople and the adjoining territory in European Turkey, Thrace, Anatolia, Armenia, Cilicia, Kurdistan, Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Persia and Trans-Caucasia (Russia) including Russian Armenia and Georgia. . . . While relief has been given on the basis of greatest need to all suffering and dependent people of the Near East, the greater part of the work has been among the Armenians, Greeks, Syrians and Assyrians. On account of political conditions and continued military operation, it is impossible to secure complete and accurate statistics for the entire near East Relief area as of any given date. . . . [but] the general fact is established that at least 1,000,000 people, chiefly Armenians and members of the exiled subject races, are living in the Near East today who would have perished had it not been for American relief. . . . The largest single unit of relief work done by the Near East Relief has been in the portion of Transcaucasia known as Russian Armenia. Probably one half of the people now living in this area owe their lives, more or less, directly to the work of the Near East Relief. The president and other officials of the Armenian Republic a year ago officially declared that America literally saved the country from starvation. Certainly not less than 500,000 people in this area at that time were dependent upon relief. Many thousands had died of starvation before relief reached them, the victims of starvation in a single city such as Alexandropol or Erivan averaging at certain seasons from 150 to 200 a day among refugees, exclusive of citizens who died in the shelter of their homes. . . . The largest continuing feature is in connection with the orphanages. As of December 31, 1921, Near East Relief is conducting 124 orphanages in which there are 64,107 children, wholly dependent upon the orphanages as their only home, and approximately 50,000 others, fed and dependent upon the orphanages for the necessities of life.”—*Report to Congress by the Near East Relief, Dec. 31, 1921.*—“By the end of 1922, Near East Relief had equipped and staffed five relief stations, forty-four hospitals, which treated monthly 148,728 clinic patients, and sixteen homes for women rescued from Moslem harems. The

association employed an American staff of about 300,—some of them volunteers—as organizers and administrators of the system designed to and actually giving employment to 100,000 native workers. Near East Relief shipped overseas in 1921, 13,408 tons of clothing, food, medical supplies and other commodities, valued at \$2,186,833; and up to November 30, 1922, shipped 25,322 tons, valued at \$4,251,074. The total value of Near East Relief's operations to date approximate \$73,000,000."—*New Far East, Feb.*, 1923.—In 1922, Australia organized the Armenian Relief Fund of Australia, which raised \$100,000 preliminary to taking over a group of orphanages. The commonwealth also sent four cargoes of flour to the starving people, with the assurance "that there would be one each month."

Russian famine relief.—"Just at the time when it was thought that the A.R.A. could withdraw from their work in Europe the world was startled by the news of the famine in Russia, and in response to an appeal from Mr. Maxim Gorki, Mr. Hoover replied on July 23 [1921] . . . expressing his willingness to extend the aid of the A.R.A. After full discussion between Mr. Walter Lyman Brown, Director for Europe of the A.R.A., and Mr. Maxim Litvinov, representing the Soviet Government, an agreement was signed at Riga on August 20 which provided that the A.R.A. were to give relief to famine sufferers to the limit of their resources, and that the Russian Government were to pay all overhead expenses of this work in Russia, including transportation and warehousing of all supplies, the expense of Russian personnel, and other expenses of internal distribution. Resources available at the start only permitted plans for the feeding of one million children. Other resources which later came to hand permitted the raising of this programme until one meal a day was being furnished to over 4,000,000 children and to 100,000 adults, refugees and in hospitals; a daily ration of one Russian pound of corn being given to over 6,000,000 adults in the famine region (bringing the total fed to over 10,000,000); medicines and medical supplies valued at \$7,600,000 to combat the spread of epidemics that followed in the wake of the famine were being distributed to hospitals in Russia; and 200,000 tons of seed grain had been distributed for sowing in the Volga valley. This work was made possible by the contribution of \$24,000,000 in cash and medical supplies by the United States Government, of \$3,600,000 worth of medical supplies by the American Red Cross, about \$4,000,000 by the American Joint Distribution Committee for Jewish War Sufferers, and of \$12,000,000 worth of seed grains purchased and transported by the A.R.A. against gold payment by the Soviet and Ukrainian Governments. By agreement this gold was guaranteed and attested to have been in the possession of the Russian Treasury since August, 1914. An individual food-package plan was also started. By September more than 700,000 of these parcels, valued at over \$7,000,000, had been purchased in Europe and America for delivery to individuals in Russia. These parcels are made up and delivered through nineteen delivery stations in the principal cities of Russia. Clothing remittances are also now [November, 1922] being sold. Besides this the A.R.A. has delivered in Russia to other foreign relief organisations supplies to the value of \$1,825,000, and has credits on its books for \$1,000,000 worth of supplies for the future operations of these organisations. American relief organisations other than those mentioned above affiliated with the A.R.A. in Russia are the Society of Friends,

Memnonite Relief, European Student Relief, Federated Churches of Christ, National Catholic Welfare Council, National Lutheran Council, Volga Relief Society, Young Men's Christian Association, and Young Women's Christian Association. Some of these organisations have contributed funds through the A.R.A., and others have, in addition to other activities, distributed foodstuffs to the value of over \$1,100,000, mentioned in the preceding paragraph."—S. Brooks, *American aid to Europe through Mr. Hoover* (*Manchester Guardian Commercial, Nov. 16, 1922, p. 628*).

ALSO IN: V. Kellogg, *American relief for starving Russia* (*New York Times Current History, Jan., 1922*).

"In response to a personal request from President Harding, Herbert Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, on Feb. 10 submitted to the President a special report on the status of the work for famine relief. This report read in part as follows: . . . 'The American Relief Administration was appointed by you to distribute the Congressional appropriation; also to distribute food, clothing and medical supplies from a number of other sources. The total resources of the organization since the beginning of its work in Russia, are in round numbers . . . \$52,809,700. [In December, 1921, the American government appropriated \$20,000 for Russian relief on condition that the Soviet government would expend \$10,000,000 for the purchase of food and seed supplies in the United States within 90 days. In January the relief administration was feeding 1,200,000 Russians.] The larger resources made available at the first of the year permitted a program of distribution to adults and the provision of seed. Under your direction a purchasing commission for the Congressional fund was established on Dec. 24, through whom all purchases are made from the lowest bidders. The first ship from this fund was dispatched on Jan. 1, and during that month twenty-four full American shiploads and several part cargoes were dispatched on all accounts. . . .

"In the early Fall, . . . arrangements were settled for co-ordination between the various American charities then interested in Russian relief, with a view to assuring the efficient handling and distribution of the supplies under American direction inside Russia. The growing intensity of the famine has enlisted the interest of additional organizations and stimulated the creation of many new committees throughout the United States of various religious and political faiths. . . . The Jewish Joint Distribution Committee [which had already contributed \$861,000] informs me it will make a further contribution. . . . The American Friends Service Committee (Quakers) and the Russian Famine Fund of New York, . . . distributes through its own American staff in Russia and co-ordinates its work with the Relief Administration. I am informed by the Friends that their resources total about \$1,000,000, of which \$265,000 is included above.

"The American Federated Russian Famine Relief Committee has apparently secured about \$350,000 in cash and some \$200,000 in kind. . . . The International Committee in Europe, under Dr. Nansen, . . . [administered] the British Save the Children Fund and other funds [which] provide about \$2,500,000; the Norwegian, Swedish, Italian and other European national funds. . . . also distribute through this agency. The French Government has voted \$550,000, and the totals available to Dr. Nansen's organization apparently amount to about \$4,000,000.'"—*New York Times Current History, Apr., 1922, pp. 147-149*.—At the

same time 17,000 children were being fed by the relief administration in Latvia.—“A meeting of the principal Directors of the Russian relief work was held in New York on July 30 [1922], Herbert Hoover presiding. It was decided to continue the work for several months, especially the medical aid which threatened the rest of the world with contagion. ‘Russia, from the world’s standpoint,’ said Mr. Hoover, ‘is a cesspool of contagious infection.’ An alarming spread of cholera and typhus in South Russia was reported on July 19. In Odessa 3,000 cases of cholera were developed in July. Mr. Rickard and Mr. Brown issued a statement which said in part: ‘The Russian people have been snatched from the brink of a catastrophe unequalled in the history of the world’s disasters. For the last sixty days no one has starved in Russia. Deaths from starvation, which six months ago threatened to extend into the millions, have been limited to a number which certainly will not exceed half a million. Today almost 10,000,000 destitute people subsist on American foodstuffs. Literally millions of people have been and will be inoculated against the five major diseases. Hundreds of thousands of food packages have been delivered to individuals under the food remittance plan. The intelligentsia of all categories have been fed. The Russian railroads have been prevailed upon to do infinitely more than was deemed possible in the transport of food supplies. Ports long closed to commerce have been reopened. . . . The famine is dead, and the Russian people live.’ . . . The famine situation, according to statements made by Colonel William N. Haskell, Acting Director of the American relief work in Russia, on his departure for America on July 11, was greatly relieved. Over 9,000,000 people were then receiving American food who would otherwise have died of starvation, a total five times as many as the American army in France was feeding at the close of the World War. The Relief Administration had distributed 120,000 tons of food for children, over 200,000 tons of food for adults, the whole seed grain appropriation, and \$7,000,000 worth of medical stores.”—*New York Times Current History*, Aug., 1922.—At the end of August, 1922, the director of the American Relief Administration announced that relief work would go on in the Ukraine and that the children would be fed in Southern Ukraine where the rains had come too late, and crops were very poor. The continuation of relief was made possible by an additional contribution of \$1,250,000 from the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee. The director stated that at this time almost 2,000,000 were being fed by the Relief Administration. Medical relief would be continued and an effort made to improve sanitary conditions with the hope of staving off epidemics of contagious sickness.

See also AMERICAN AMBULANCE; FOOD REGULATION; RED CROSS: Character and aim; 1910-1920: Post-war relief work; WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: b, 1; War relief; YOUNG WOMEN’S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1917-1919; YOUNG MEN’S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: World War activities.

**INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL OF PEACE** (1910). See PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

**INTERNATIONAL SOCIALISTS**, Union of. See NEW YORK: 1920.

**INTERNATIONAL STATISTICS**. See FOOD REGULATION: 1885-1914; STATISTICS: Early records and census taking.

**INTERNATIONAL TRADE**: Free port policy. See TARIFF: 1918-1919.

**INTERNATIONAL TRIBUNAL**, Adoption of (1920). See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: First meeting, etc.

**INTERNATIONAL TRUSTS**. See TRUSTS: International.

**INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES**.—There were, during the World War, minor organizations in the allied nations in the fields of history, economics, and political science but nothing in any way comparable to the National Research Council (United States). With the assembling in Paris of the various peace delegations there were brought together large groups of scholars whose presence furnished the opportunity, as the creation in the preceding fall of the International Research Council (see INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH) offered the inspiration, for the organization of an International Union devoted to the humanities. The initiative in this movement was taken by the French Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres which in March, 1919, issued an invitation to the principal academies and learned societies of the allied countries to send representatives to a conference to be held in Paris during the month of May. The conference was attended by delegates from seven countries: France, Belgium, Italy, Rumania, Greece, Japan and the United States. It drew up a definite project for the establishment of an International Union of Academies, which was to be submitted to the learned societies of the allied and neutral countries. At the second conference, held on October 15-18, eleven countries were represented by delegates and three other countries had announced their intention of becoming members of the new Union. Thus the proposed organization had the support of fourteen countries, the seven mentioned above as being represented at the first conference and in addition to them, Great Britain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Russia, and Poland (Portugal and Serbia were added at the first meeting). The only refusal to join in the conference came from the Swedish Academy of Belles Lettres, History, and Archæology, which, however, announced its willingness to join the union “when it shall be possible to invite all countries to participate in it,” referring thus to the fact that, for the present, the central powers are not included. The first and principal task of the conference thus assembled was to perfect the plans drawn up at the first conference for creating an international scientific federation, corresponding in the domain of the humanities to the International Research Council in the domain of pure and applied science. This was accomplished by organizing a federation bearing the name Union Académique Internationale. The visible body of this federation is styled the Committee of the Union. The headquarters of the union, like those of the International Research Council, are established at Brussels. The first meeting of the union, after its final organization, was held in Brussels in May, 1920, when Professor Henri Pirenne, of the University of Ghent was elected president.—W. G. Leland, *International union of academies (International Conciliation*, Sept., 1920).

**INTERNATIONAL UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS**. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF.

**INTERNATIONAL UNIONS**. See NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM: Development of the international idea.

**INTERNATIONAL WORKING MEN’S ASSOCIATION**. See ANARCHISM: 1861-1876;



INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD; LABOR ORGANIZATION.

**INTERNATIONALISM:** Rise and growth of doctrine. See NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM: Development of the international idea; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Political background; Background of the Protestant Reformation; Modern: Intellectual development; Conflicting currents before the World War; JAPAN: 1894-1914.

**INTERNEED SHIPS,** strictly speaking, belligerent naval vessels in a neutral port which on overstaying a time limit (twenty-four hours permitted by most nations) are detained by the neutral government for the duration of the war. The expression is also loosely applied to merchant ships, but these may depart at any time they deem it prudent.

**INTEROCEANIC CANAL.** See PANAMA CANAL.

**INTERPARLIAMENTARY UNION,** Foundation of (1887). See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1889-1890.

**INTERREGNUM,** Great, period of German history, between the years 1254 and 1273, during which there was no generally recognized ruler. See GERMANY: 1250-1272.

**INTERREX,** name for temporary kings in Rome. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 509; SENATE, ROMAN.

**INTERSTATE COMMERCE:** Laws regulating and concerning. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION: United States: 1888-1921; COURTS: United States: Lack of uniformity; COMMODITY CLAUSE OF THE HEPBURN ACT; SHERMAN ANTI-TRUST ACT; SUPREME COURT: 1789-1835; 1835-1864; 1917; U.S.A.: 1898 (June); 1913 (June); TRUSTS: United States: 1907-1909: Suit of the government, etc.

**INTERSTATE COMMERCE ACTS:** Origin. See U. S. A.: 1873-1874.

1887. See CAPITALISM: 19th century: Regulation of capitalism; RAILROADS: 1887-1906; U.S.A.: 1887: Interstate Commerce Act.

1898. See U. S. A.: 1898 (June).

1908.—Commodity clause of Hepburn Act. See COMMODITY CLAUSE OF THE HEPBURN ACT; RAILROADS: 1908-1909.

**INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION.** See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1888-1920; LIQUOR PROBLEM: United States: 1913; RAILROADS: 1910-1916; 1921: Twenty rail systems; U. S. A.: 1918-1920.

**INTERSTATE EXTRADITION.** See EXTRADITION.

**INTERSTATE RENDITION.** See EXTRADITION.

**INTERVENTION.**—"Intervention is the interference of a state or group of states in the affairs of another state, for the purpose of compelling it to do or refrain from doing certain acts. Its essential characteristic is force, either open or concealed. Simple mediation or even a formal protest, unless there is present the intention of enforcing the demand, does not constitute intervention. The relation of intervention to international law and even the rules governing the practice are still in an extremely unsettled state. Most writers content themselves with a discussion of the particular conditions under which intervention is or is not justifiable, and make no attempt to determine the place of intervention in a system of international law. Almost without exception they treat the subject in an 'a priori' manner. From the premises that nations are independent, politically equal and possessed of the same rights, they deduce what the doctrine of intervention must be and what the con-

ditions which justify its use. Whatever may be said in favor of this deductive method from the ethical standpoint, from the legal and historical point of view it must always remain unsatisfactory. It proceeds from ideals rather than from the facts of history; from the standpoint of what ought to be, rather than from that of what is. States to-day [1900] do not base their actions on innate ideas of justice, or upon precepts deduced from considerations of absolute rights antecedent to custom and law, but on rules which can be shown to have been followed by all or most of the states. . . . In regard to the various grounds that have served as a basis for intervention in the past it would appear that some have been entirely abandoned, while others are firmly established. Intervention to prevent hostile acts, when the danger is imminent, is established to-day both in doctrine and practice. A disturbance of the balance of the power in its modern form stands as the ground for the assertion of the higher European right. Revolution and the establishment of a new form of government have not been considered as acts calling for the exercise of intervention since the first half of the [nineteenth] century, and the principle seems so antagonistic to modern political thought that it may be said to be abrogated. Intervention on humanitarian grounds is recognized, though it appears that national self-interest has usually been too powerful to allow intervention for humanitarian reasons solely. The precedents show that the stronger motives based on political and economic interests are usually necessary to induce states to intervene. Indeed intervention under this head is always based on a number of different but closely allied grounds, and as such is considered legitimate. In regard to intervention based on treaty agreement the precedents do not speak with any degree of precision. . . . Treaties securing a claim to intervention often became anachronisms, while others are in their very nature antagonistic to the consensus of opinion and precedents, and are therefore illegal from the beginning. With these two exceptions the practice seems to recognize a violation of a compact between states as a legitimate ground for intervention. . . . Intervention is becoming more and more recognized as the legal means by which the society of nations enforces its rights. This is true whether it is carried out by several states or by an individual state, acting in accordance with precedent and the consensus of international public opinion, although the modern practice shows a strong tendency towards action in concert. Intervention, therefore, instead of being outside the pale of the law of nations and antagonistic to it, is an integral and essential part of it; an act of police for enforcing recognized rights, and the only means, apart from war for enforcing the rules of International Law."—W. E. Lingelbach, *Doctrine and practice of intervention in Europe*, pp. 1-2, 24-25, 31-32.—From the ethical standpoint, we have a different view of intervention of which with some inconsistencies the United States has been the chief exponent. "Among the rules of conduct prescribed for the United States by the statesmen who formulated its foreign policy, none was conceived to be more fundamental or more distinctly American than that which forbade intervention in the political affairs of other nations. The right of the government to intervene for the protection of its citizens in foreign lands and on the high seas never was doubted; nor was such action withheld in proper cases; . . . the statesmen of America, believing that they had a different mission to perform, planted themselves upon the principle of the equality of nations as expounded

by Grotius and other masters of international law. This principle was expressed with peculiar felicity and force by Vattel, who declared that nations inherited from nature 'the same obligations and rights,' that power or weakness could not in this respect produce any difference, and that a 'small republic' was 'no less a sovereign state than the most powerful kingdom.' The same thought was tersely phrased by Chief-Justice Marshall, in his celebrated affirmation: 'No principle is more universally acknowledged than the perfect equality of nations. Russia and Geneva have equal rights.'—J. B. Moore, *Principles of American diplomacy*, pp. 131-132.—'It is unfortunate that publicists have not laid down broadly and unanimously that no intervention is legal, except for the purpose of self-preservation, unless a breach of the law as between states has taken place, or unless the whole body of civilised states have concurred in authorising it. Interventions, whether armed or diplomatic, undertaken either for the reason or upon the pretexs of cruelty, or oppression, or the horrors of a civil war, or whatever the reason put forward, supported in reality by the justification which such facts offer to the popular mind, would have had to justify themselves when not authorised by the whole body of civilised states accustomed to act together for common purposes, as measures which, being confessedly illegal in themselves, could only be excused in rare and extreme cases in consideration of the unquestionably extraordinary character of the facts causing them, and of the evident purity of the motives and conduct of the intervening state.'—W. E. Hall, *International law*, p. 304.

'There are . . . cases where there is moral justification for intervention by one or more nations. These are cases of intervention upon the ground of humanity; they cannot be called legally right, but they may be morally justifiable and even commendable. [See BELGIUM: 1914; World War; Germany and Belgian neutrality.] They come under what 'Historicus' calls 'a high act of policy above and beyond the domain of law.' A case in point was the intervention of the great powers of Europe in regard to the persecution and murder of Christians in Asia Minor in 1860. Interventions in order to preserve the balance of power in Europe were until recent times considered admissible and at times just. It can no longer be considered as justifiable—and in Europe, at least, is not practised. . . . [In 1865 the United States] government informed the French Government [which had established Ferdinand of Austria as emperor of Mexico] that their treatment of Mexico was regarded as injurious and menacing to republican institutions, and an American army was massed on the Rio Grande under General Sheridan. As a result, Napoleon III withdrew his forces from Mexico and the empire of Maximilian came to an end. In 1898 the President of the United States . . . declared that the intervention of the United States in the affairs of Cuba, then in insurrection against Spain, would be justified on the grounds of humanity and of protection to . . . [the citizens and commerce of the United States] as well as removing a constant menace to . . . peace. As a result, action by Congress followed which brought on the war with Spain. In June, 1900, on account of the Boxer movement, unprecedented disturbances arose in China directed largely against all foreign life and property. . . . An international expedition which included an American detachment was formed and raised the siege of the legations and took possession of Peking after overcoming the

resistance of the Chinese troops, the imperial household having fled. [See also CHINA: 1900.] This joint intervention was explained by Secretary Hay as being necessary to open communication with Peking to rescue our officials and with the purpose of affording all possible protection everywhere in China to American life and property and to guard all legitimate American interests. In November, 1903, the United States intervened in Cuba, in accordance with our treaty rights and guarantees, on account of the disorders arising upon the island.'—C. H. Stockton, *Outlines of international law*, pp. 100, 101-102.—'The Republic of Geneva was connected by an ancient alliance with the Swiss Cantons of Berne and Zürich, in consequence of which they united with France, in 1738, in offering the joint mediation of the three Powers to the contending political parties by which the tranquillity of the republic was disturbed. The result of this mediation was the settlement of a constitution, which gave rise to new disputes in 1768; but they were again adjusted by the intervention of the mediating Powers. In 1782, the French Government once more united with these Cantons and the court of Sardinia in mediating between the aristocratic and democratic parties; but it appears to be very questionable how far these transactions, especially the last, can be reconciled with the respect due, on the strict principles of international law, to the just rights and independence of the smallest, not less than to those of the greatest States. The former constitution of the Swiss Confederation was also adjusted, in 1813, by the mediation of the great allied Powers. . . . In 1862, a proposition was made by France to England and Russia, that the three countries should offer their friendly mediation to the contending parties in the American Civil War. The moment was deemed inopportune by Russia, and England declined to accede to the proposal. 'According to the information we possess,' wrote Prince Gortchakow to M. D'Oubil, Russian chargé d'affaires in Paris, on the 27th October, 1862, 'we are led to believe that a combined movement of France, England, and Russia, however conciliatory it might be, and with whatsoever precautions it might be surrounded, if it came with an official and collective character, would have been declined had it been made.'—C. Phillipson, *Wheaton's elements of international law*, pp. 125, 126.—The British intervention in Egypt; the intervention by the United States, in 1806, in British-Venezuelan affairs, in order to uphold the Monroe Doctrine; the intervention by the A.B.C. countries, in 1916, in the Mexican embroglio; by the Allies in Greece, during the World War, are all important instances of the application of the principle.

**Metternich's theory.** See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses: 3.

See also BALANCE OF POWER: Views of a publicist, etc.; INTERNATIONAL LAW; MONROE DOCTRINE: Latin American doctrines.

ALSO IN: H. G. Hodges, *Doctrine of intervention*.—N. D. Harris, *Intervention and colonization in Africa*.

**INTOLERANCE, Religious.** See TOLERATION.  
**INTOXICANTS, Problems of.** See LIQUOR PROBLEM; OPIUM PROBLEM.

**INTRANSIGENTES, political party.** See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1907.

**INTRANSIGENTISTS, the extreme radicals in European politics.**

**INVALID INSURANCE.** See SOCIAL INSURANCE.





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